

Dissertationes Forestales 399

**Valorization of non-traditional lignocellulosic feedstocks
for bioenergy and biorefinery applications**

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Academic dissertation

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ABSTRACT

Biomass is considered an abundant renewable resource for energy production through established routes such as combustion, biochemical conversion, and industrial energy systems. These applications could benefit from diversified feedstocks and provide a clear understanding of how different conversion processes influence fuel quality and the potential of side-stream products. Emerging technologies and developing markets may enhance the effective valorization of newly introduced resources, maximize their uses and profitability, and reduce the environmental footprint. At present, comparative data on non-traditional lignocellulosic feedstocks under region-specific conditions are scarce, and such data could further support a better-established acceptance of bioenergy. This thesis evaluates herbaceous perennial energy crops, coffee by-products, and native hardwood species from Brazil, with emphasis on their suitability for bioenergy and biorefinery applications. In **Paper I**, giant knotweed (*Fallopia sachalinensis* var. *Igniscum*) and Virginia mallow (*Sida hermaphrodita*) were assessed for their capacity for pellet production under Nordic conditions, combining field data and physical and chemical analyses. The results for bulk density, moisture, energy content, and elemental composition were in line with certification schemes, but mechanical durability and ash require further investigation. **Paper II** examined how hydrothermal liquefaction (HTL) could benefit coffee by-products by improving combustion properties and producing chemicals with potential and value-added applications. The hydrochars showed higher energy content than the raw materials, containing chemically complex oil fractions rich in fatty acids and alkaloids. **Paper III** evaluates native hardwood species from the Brazilian Cerrado - Caatinga transition zone, without prior evidence existing about their industrial energy applications. Forest inventory distribution data, dendrometry characteristics, and combustion-relevant fuel property measurements were used to identify species with favorable tree capacity and combustion properties. The thesis provides comparative information on non-traditional biomass resources and conversion routes, suggesting new additions in feedstock portfolios for bioenergy and biorefinery development.

Keywords: Energy crops, hardwood species, coffee by-products, pellets, hydrothermal conversion, chemical compounds, certification

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Joensuu, 15th May, 2026

Nikolaos Papamatthaiakis

LIST OF ORIGINAL ARTICLES

This thesis is based on data presented in the following articles, referred to by the Roman Numerals I-III.

- I** Papamatthaiakis N, Laine A, Haapala A, Ikonen R, Kuittinen S, Pappinen A, Kolström M, Mola-Yudego B (2021) New energy crop alternatives for northern Europe: Yield, chemical and physical properties of Giant knotweed (*Fallopia sachalinensis* var. 'Igniscum') and Virginia mallow (*Sida hermaphrodita*). Fuel 304, article id 121349. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2021.121349>
- II** Papamatthaiakis N, Barbero-López A, Eronen E, Jänne J, Mola-Yudego B, Haapala A (2025) Hydrothermal Liquefaction of Coffee Silverskin and Spent Coffee Grounds: Bioenergy and Biochemical Potential. BioEnerg. Res. 18, article id 65 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12155-025-10867-3>
- III** Papamatthaiakis N, Ribeiro A, Pineda Zapata S, Ferraz Filho AC, Haapala A, Mola-Yudego B Insights into the combustion properties and forest traits of native wood species for the emerging bioeconomy in NE Brazil. Manuscript.

Nikolaos Papamatthaiakis was the principal author of all articles, responsible for conceptualization, experimental design, sample preparation, laboratory analyses, data compilation, and writing, reviewing, and editing of all the manuscripts. Co-authors participated in the planning of the studies, conceptualization, experimental design, delivery of study materials, writing, reviewing, and editing of the manuscripts, and supervision.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ASP	<i>Aspidosperma pyrifolium</i>
BA-R	Baqué silverskin raw
BA-HC	Baqué silverskin hydrochar
BD	Bulk density
CAV	<i>Campomanesia velutina</i>
CAM	<i>Callisthene minor</i>
CEM	<i>Cenostigma macrophyllum</i>
COG	<i>Combretum glaucocarpum</i>
COL	<i>Copaifera luetzelburgii</i>
COT	<i>Cordia toqueve</i>
DAC	<i>Dalbergia cearensis</i>
DMC	Dry matter content
DMY	Dry matter yield
DU	Mechanical durability
DUM	<i>Duguetia marcgraviana</i>
FC	Fixed carbon
FWY	Fresh weight yield
GCV	Gross Calorific Value
HTC	Hydrothermal Carbonization
HTG	Hydrothermal Gasification
HTL	Hydrothermal Liquefaction
HYM	<i>Hymenaea martiana</i>
LUP	<i>Luehea paniculata</i>
MA-R	Mariposa silverskin raw
MA-HC	Mariposa silverskin hydrochar
ME-R	Meira silverskin raw
ME-HC	Meira silverskin hydrochar
MYT	<i>Myrcia tomentosa</i>
NCV	Net Calorific Value
NFI	National Forest Inventory
PIM	<i>Pityrocarpa moniliformis</i>
PTP/PTE	<i>Pterodon polygalaeflorus/Pterodon emarginatus</i>
SET	<i>Senegalia tenuifolia</i>
SC-R	Spent coffee raw
SC-HC	Spent coffee hydrochar
SWF	<i>Swartzia flaemingii</i> Raddi
VM	Volatile Matter

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INTRODUCTION

The transition away from fossil-based energy and materials requires not only expanding renewable energy and materials but also a more efficient use of biomass across integrated value chains. In this context, biomass should not be regarded solely as a fuel, but as a versatile raw material that can support the production of energy, chemicals, and other biobased products. Such an approach is closely linked to the development of a circular bioeconomy, in which residual streams, underutilized feedstocks, and regionally available resources are valued to increase resource efficiency and reduce environmental burdens.

However, biomass is not a homogeneous resource. Its physical, chemical, and logistical characteristics vary widely depending on origin, species, plant component, and processing history. These differences strongly influence the suitability of biomass for specific end uses, including direct combustion, densified solid fuels, and thermochemical or biochemical conversion routes. As a result, the identification and assessment of alternative biomass feedstocks have become an important research priority, particularly when conventional raw materials are limited, contested, or raise sustainability concerns. Thus, adding new knowledge will increase the flexibility for effective use of biomass and support the incorporation of versatile processing with a larger number of feedstocks.

Within this framework, the present thesis examines the potential of selected non-traditional lignocellulosic feedstocks for bioenergy and biorefinery applications. By addressing herbaceous perennial crops, coffee by-products, and native tropical hardwood species, the thesis contributes to the broader discussion on how diverse biomass resources may support renewable energy production, industrial valorization, and regional bioeconomy development.

Alternative biomass feedstocks for mitigating fossil fuels dependence

Biomass is an important renewable resource for heat and energy production. For instance, wood-derived biomass has traditionally been used to produce thermal energy. Nevertheless, this does not constitute bioenergy as such. Bioenergy is directly linked to advanced, sustainable uses of biomass, whether lignocellulosic or non-lignocellulosic. To be more precise, bioenergy involves converting biomass via diverse pathways, such as biochemical and thermochemical methods, to produce more efficient, value-added products (Bose et al. 2022; Chaudhary et al. 2025). That enables the production of biofuels, and solid densified fuels with high energy content, and chemicals. In terms of lignocellulosic biomass feedstocks, these include forest and agricultural residues, dedicated energy crops, industrial by-products, and waste (IEA 2024d).

Sustainably derived biomass does not add carbon when used for energy compared to fossil fuels, helping mitigate the consequences of climate change and reduce greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. In addition, sustainability encompasses characteristics such as economic expediency, controlled environmental footprints, and social impacts (Özdenkçi et al. 2017; Kardung et al. 2021). Biobased feedstocks are a considerable solution for substituting petroleum-based chemical products (Tsakalova et al. 2024). Biomass resources could also support energy autarky and reduce the need to import energy supplies (Ericsson and Nilson 2006; Frombo et al. 2009; Balcioglu et al. 2023). On the other hand, progress of technologies

related to other renewable resources, and the status of other primary energy sources are factors challenging the potential of biomass for energy applications (Berndes et al. 2003).

The basis of the lignocellulosic biomass is the contained components: cellulose, hemicellulose, and lignin. These components can be detected in different analogies, depending on the material origin (wood or herbaceous), species, and tissue type (wood, bark, roots, leaves, needles). Apart from that, other factors can also impact this variation, such as age, climatic conditions, and storage processes (Bhatia et al. 2020). This diversified composition plays a role in processing and the properties of the final products. For instance, bark pellets release similar amounts of energy to those from sawdust, but their ash content is much higher, and longer storage periods are also associated with higher ash content (Lehtikangas 2001). Thus, it is important to have as much information as possible about the composition and properties that will be linked to advanced and sustainable uses (Vassilev et al. 2012). In this regard, assessing biomass feedstocks with different origins could provide valuable insights into how they could fit into energy production.

Even though most biomass resources have potential for bioenergy and biorefinery, the decision of which resources to use should be carefully made. Controversies have arisen over the share of arable land to be allocated for crop plantations for energy purposes. Similarly, the use of food crops to produce biofuels, also known as 1st-generation biofuels, has occasionally drawn criticism for using biomass for energy. To tackle these issues, 2nd-generation biofuels were developed based on non-edible feedstocks, also known as dedicated crops for energy applications (Rafael et al. 2008). Optimizing the use of biomass residues could further enhance the development of a bio-based circular economy (Muscat et al. 2021).

Biomass for energy production could boost local economies, and it is a well-established concept with many notable examples. In Germany, the contribution of biomass to energy generation increased from 1.8% in 2005 to 7.7% in 2022 (AGEB 2023). In 2022, bioenergy accounted for 13.93 TW of power production, ranking second after nuclear power in Finland, and solid biomass was used to produce 10.08 Mtoe of primary energy in Sweden (Ember 2023; EurObserv'ER 2024a). In Greece, biogas production amounted to 145.3 ktOE in 2022, compared with 127.2 ktOE the previous year (EurObserv'ER 2024b). The use of regional biomass feedstocks is important for achieving this, as it minimizes emissions across the transportation stages (The Royal Society 2008). In addition, transporting feedstocks with low moisture content also benefits the supply chain by reducing costs (Tahvanainen and Anttila 2011). Setting standards as part of certification schemes strongly provides the necessary tools for validating biofuel characteristics alongside the related production and trade processes (Lewandowski and Faaij 2006).

Bioenergy in Nordic countries

Biomass, especially derived from forest residues, plays a significant role in strategies to increase energy production in Nordic countries (Cross et al. 2021). Several factors limit the margin for increasing forest biomass production. For instance, there will be a need to intensify forest management while minimizing negative environmental and social impacts (Bostedt et al. 2015). In addition, commercialization factors and technological development among others will shape the available feedstocks (Trømborg and Solberg 2010). Bioenergy has an important share among the renewable resources in Finland and Sweden. In Finland, biomass accounts for 38% of overall final energy consumption, while in Sweden it accounts for 38.7% (IEA 2024b; IEA 2024c). The development of policies shifting towards to a non-

fossil independence is part of the national strategy of Finland. Wood-based energy could play a substantial role in a new era of lower carbon emissions and an increasing share among renewable resources. On the other hand, certain schemes need to be followed to secure a sustainable supply chain and the continuous availability of feedstocks (Ministry of Economic Affairs and Employment of Finland 2022).

Energy cultivations have been established in Northern Europe, offering alternative energy sources. Willow plantation is the dominant species among wood crops for energy, with Sweden leading in reported plantations (Larsson and Lindegaard 2003; Mola-Yudego and González-Olabarria 2010). Denmark was a pioneer in establishing *Miscanthus* spp. plantations for pulp and energy applications at the end of the 1960s, with willow cultivations being introduced in the following years (Venendaal et al. 1997; Cahyanti et al. 2020). The use of wood chips for producing heat and energy is the most common practice in Finland. So far, there are limited efforts to establish energy crops, even though there is potential without threatening food and feed crop production (Finnish Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry 2005; Rämö et al. 2009). Reed canary grass (*Phalaris arundinacea* L.) showed the most promising results among the tested species, withstanding the harsh winter condition in Finland (Venendaal et al. 1997). A case study in Ostrobothnia, Finland, resulted an increase in reed canary grass areas, from 18 ha to 2300 ha for the period 2002-2006 (Pahkala et al. 2008).

Even though energy crops were accepted to a certain extent by farmers, bottlenecks limited the transition from trial-scale to full commercialization, such as the lack of supportive policies and ongoing subsidies (Venendaal et al. 1997). In Sweden, low yields of willow negatively influenced the interest for new farmers to adopt short rotation coppice plantations (Dimitriou et al. 2011). Even with well-designed subsidies, a group of landowners will remain skeptical about accepting energy crops on their own property, rendering it challenging to achieve widespread acceptance (Soliño et al. 2018). In addition, uncertainties in the prices of goods, challenges in energy markets, and a lack of commercial-driven institutional frameworks obscure the potential for farmers to adopt energy crop production. (Ostwald et al. 2013; Streimikiene et al. 2021; Thomson Ek et al. 2024).

Nordic conditions are characterized by short growing seasons and low temperatures, which hamper crop growth and play a role in yield productivity. Therefore, prospective energy crops should possess characteristics that enable them to withstand these harsh conditions. In addition, these crops should demonstrate successful growth in low-quality soil, as the most productive areas are intended for food production, and low dependence on water supply. Regarding the combustion characteristics of energy crops, they should have high energy content and low ash, and elements such as chlorine (Cl) and sulfur (S) should not exceed the suggested thresholds. Regarding herbaceous crops, which contain less lignin than woody crops, the mechanical durability of densified fuels is expected to be affected (Tumuluru 2018). In addition, pellets derived from herbaceous crops tend to have higher ash content (Stolarski et al. 2025).

Pellet consumption totaled 33 million tons in Europe in 2024, with about 30% imported (Bioenergy Europe 2025). Germany and Austria lead the list of the certified pellet-producing countries, followed by France, Spain, and Poland (ENplus® 2025). The corresponding figure for Finland was 536 000 tons, an increase of 9% compared to the previous year (Natural Resources Institute Finland 2025). Finland imported 213 000 tons of pellets from the Baltic countries and Denmark to meet consumption needs (Natural Resources Institute Finland 2025). Although pellet consumption in Finland is not as popular as in other countries, there

is ongoing progress towards greater acceptance among new users (Selkimäki et al. 2010; Proskurina et al. 2017).

The demand and prices of wood pellets are affected by geopolitical factors, limited availability of raw materials, and environmental disturbances, highlight the importance of research for new feedstocks (Selkimäki et al. 2010; Magiera et al. 2025; Pinho et al. 2025). Studying new crops could broaden the available feedstock options, providing alternatives based on regional factors. Moreover, suitable candidates should demonstrate good yield productivity and combustion properties and contain harmful chemical elements below the recommended thresholds.

Hydrothermal conversions of coffee by-products

The demand for biomass feedstock is growing steadily, both for energy production, material development, and chemical extraction. As a result, competition will arise between different biomass feedstocks, edible or not, and between the best-suited use in each case (Gerssen-Gondelach et al. 2014). Seeking new alternatives could expand the feedstock portfolio and help address forthcoming issues. Organic residues and by-products are among these alternatives, as they can be found in a wide range of production activities, including food production, forest management, and processing agricultural products. It is worth mentioning that sustainable valorization of residues could alleviate the shortage of feedstocks and limiting adverse ecological impacts (Cherubini et al. 2009). Valorizing waste side-streams could yield revenue for stakeholders and provide effective waste management, promoting circularity (Haldar et al. 2022; Remijnse et al. 2025).

Coffee silverskin is a thin layer of skin that encloses each of the two coffee beans in a coffee cherry (Saenger et al. 2001; Narita and Inouye 2014). Silverskin is the final by-product remaining after the roasting process, mainly deriving from Robusta coffee than Arabica (Zoccatelli and Ciulu 2025). Spent coffee grounds are the remaining wastes of the brewing process. It is estimated that 1 kg of instant coffee produces 2 kg of spent coffee grounds (Pfluger 1975). Current disposal methods of spent coffee grounds include soil amendment, bioenergy feedstock, and as substrate for mushroom production (Campos-Vega et al. 2015). Silverskin and spent coffee grounds can consist of about 24% and 12% cellulose, 17% and 39% hemicellulose, and 29% and 24% lignin, respectively (Ballesteros et al. 2014). Silverskin contains antioxidant compounds with phenolics, caffeine, and melanoidins being the most representative (Bessada et al. 2018a). Some studies have reported potential uses from valorizing silverskin, such as a functional ingredient in food products and as a fiber and mineral resource (Bessada et al. 2018b; Zoccatelli and Ciulu 2025). Spent coffee grounds could be, for instance, a source for biofuel production and extraction of substances for commercial use (Mussato et al. 2012; Zhao et al. 2024).

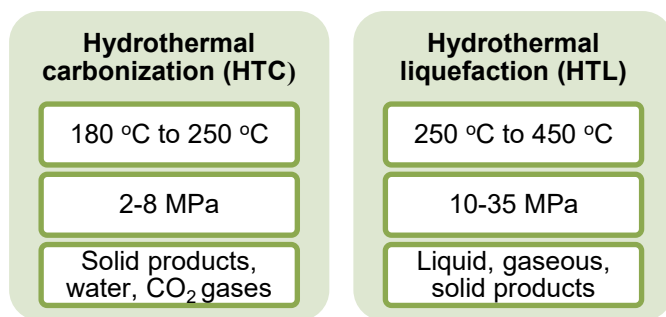


Figure 1. Differences between hydrothermal carbonization (HTC) and hydrothermal liquefaction (HTL) include temperature and pressure settings and the types of primary products produced by the processes.

The main methods of thermal conversion of biomass are combustion, gasification, pyrolysis, and hydrothermal (Luo and Zhou 2025). Processing by-products, and residues through thermal conversion could improve their management and enhance circularity (Dussan and Monaghan 2018; Leon et al. 2018; Shen et al. 2025). Hydrothermal processing encompasses hydrothermal carbonization (HTC), hydrothermal liquefaction (HTL), and hydrothermal gasification (HTG) (Ruiz et al. 2021). More specifically, HTC takes place in lower temperatures and pressure, 180 °C - 250 °C, and 2-8 MPa, respectively, with the corresponding values for HTL being 250 °C - 450 °C, and 10-35 MPa (Funke and Ziegler 2010; Castello et al. 2018; Heidari et al. 2019; Harisankar et al. 2022; Lachos-Perez et al. 2022). These differences between HTC and HTL are the processing temperatures and the obtained products (see **Fig. 1**). Mainly solid char, also known as hydrochar or biochar, the added water-with some biomass contained particles, CO₂ gas fractions can be obtained at the end of the HTC process, whereas HTL produces insoluble and soluble organic liquids, gases, and a solid slurry (Ruiz et al. 2021; Lachos-Perez et al. 2022). A key benefit of hydrothermal methods is that wet biomass can be processed without prior drying (Vardon et al. 2012; Anastasakis et al. 2018; Hedayati Marzbali et al. 2021). In addition, water can also be used as a solvent during the reaction, providing cost-effective and environmentally sustainable features for the process (Kiran Kumar et al. 2018).

In recent years, research on biomass valorization through hydrothermal conversion has increased rapidly, especially in the advanced treatment of residues and waste materials (González-Arias et al. 2022; Fan et al. 2023). A solid product derived from HTL treatment of sewage sludge showed certain levels of removal of dye agents from aqueous solutions (Leng et al. 2015). Wastewater from algae cultivation could be considered as a feedstock for biofuel production with applied HTL (Silva et al. 2024). Biomass feedstocks transported with water-based systems were investigated for HTL-produced biocrude (Mohan et al. 2025). Catechols and phenols were detected in wood bark and hemp hurds derived from HTL liquids, indicating source for diverse applications in the chemical industry (Jokinen et al. 2023).

Native species for boosting regional economy and strengthening biodiversity

Brazil has a well-established biofuel industry, with bioenergy experiencing steady growth over the past 20 years (IEA 2021). Ethanol and biodiesel report the highest production, followed by solid biomass fuels (IEA 2024a). Ethanol from sugarcane is mainly used for domestic transportation, with exports accounting for a smaller share (USDA 2023). Wood residues and by-products, whether from forest management practices or industrial processing, represent vast quantities of feedstock for producing electrical power in combined heat and power plants (IEA 2024a). Brazil is the largest charcoal producer in global scale, with 6.7 million tons being used annually in domestic level from 2021 to 2024 (IBÁ 2025). About 73% of wood biomass from native species was used to produce charcoal and firewood in 2005 (Ferreira-Leitão et al. 2010).

The Brazilian Cerrado (hereafter referred to as “Cerrado”) and Caatinga biome span approximately 2.8 million km², occupying 23.3% and 10.1% of the national territory, respectively (IBGE 2019). The Cerrado biome, the second largest after the Amazon, has a complex vegetation system including grasslands, shrublands, savanna forests, and agricultural lands (Ribeiro and Rodrigues 2006; Sano et al. 2007; Aguiar et al. 2015). The flora of the Cerrado is not that well studied, although the Cerrado is described as a hotspot of biodiversity (Myers et al. 2000; Simon et al. 2009). The Caatinga biome, on the other hand, has characteristic xerophytic, thorny shrub vegetation, with scattered clusters of tall dry forests or humid forests (Andrade-Lima 1982; Prado 2003; Leal et al. 2005).

Over the past 40 years, a notable reduction in native vegetation has been recorded in the Cerrado biome, while the land share for pastures and growing crops has increased (MapBiomias 2025). Growth in the number of soybean plantations has been recorded in Cerrado since 2000 (Severo dos Santos and Naval 2022). In the Amazon rainforest, 80% of private properties in rural regions should be reserved as protected areas, according to national legislation, whereas in the Cerrado biome, it is 20% and 35% for Cerrado-Amazon overlapping zones of the biomes (Strand et al. 2018; Rajão et al. 2020). The biodiversity status of the Caatinga biome has not been extensively studied compared to other regions of the country, and land cover change monitoring is lacking (Santos et al. 2011; Beuchle et al. 2015). The flora of Caatinga includes endangered species in high risk and an increasing number of newly discovered species (Fernandes et al. 2020)

Production of firewood has strong roots in northeastern Brazil, accounting for 21.3% of annual production in 2016 (Coelho Junior et al. 2019; Oliveira et al. 2023). Firewood production plays an important role at the social level, used for heating, but illegal logging rates are high (Coelho Junior et al. 2019). The area where most of the species studied in **Paper III** were collected is used to extract wood energy (Nazareno et al. 2021). Developing legislation for environmental sustainability has previously helped implement forest management practices for charcoal production (Bichel and Telles 2021). Apart from applying legislation, local communities need to be better informed about uncontrolled exploitation to minimize future disturbances (Souza et al. 2018). Besides vegetation loss, there is also a high risk of soil degradation, water security, biodiversity loss, and, subsequently, a negative impact on the livelihoods of local communities (Qiu et al. 2018; Ribeiro et al. 2021).

Utilizing biomass feedstocks poses challenges, as stakeholders must properly address several intermediate steps. Thus, a tailored approach is needed to achieve the greatest benefits by securing high-quality products and services within a sustainable framework. Though the aim is energy output, guidance through certification schemes and an underlying

understanding of how to improve the properties are indispensable, especially for an emerging economy such as Brazil.

Aims of the thesis

The present thesis aims to address the valorization of three types of lignocellulosic biomass, such as herbaceous biomass, coffee by-products, and wood, as alternative renewable feedstocks for bioenergy and biorefinery uses. To support a comprehensive assessment of the studied material, complementary parameters are presented and linked to field data, as well as to physical and chemical properties. In addition, an evaluation based on certification schemes clarifies potential barriers. Thus, the results summarize both quantitative and qualitative characteristics that support decision-making in a supply chain and increase the likelihood of better alignment with a bioeconomy concept.

Objectives

This dissertation has the main objectives:

- i) To investigate new energy crops as a biomass resource for pelletizing in Finland, by checking productivity, mechanical characteristics, and chemical properties.
- ii) To check how hydrothermal processing can elevate the properties of coffee by-products and residues, both for producing biomass fuels and for extracting chemical compounds.
- iii) To assess native tropical hardwood species with minimal industrial use, which could enhance as an incentive to boost local economies and advance forest management practices.

The hypotheses are:

- 1) The combustion-relevant properties of the two energy crops, giant knotweed and Virginia mallow, meet ISO and ENplus thresholds, suggesting a newly introduced feedstock for commercial pellet production.
- 2) Hydrothermal liquefaction leverages the energy density of coffee by-products and residues, reduces ash content relative to raw materials, and supports chemical extraction.
- 3) Selected native tropical hardwood species demonstrate robust properties for energy generation within certification limits, initiating a regional resource for incorporation within a bioeconomy plan.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Materials

Three biomass types were assessed in the present thesis, including crops, coffee production and consumption by-products, and native tropical hardwood species (wood and bark). In **Paper I**, the herbaceous energy crops giant knotweed (*Fallopia sachalinensis* var. 'Igniscum') and Virginia mallow (*Sida hermaphrodita*), both perennials, were investigated as possible feedstock for pellet production in Finland (**Paper I**). The species giant knotweed var. 'Igniscum' originates from the Japanese knotweed *Fallopia* sp or Mexican bamboo/round knotweed, being detected in Germany (Rogmans 2010). The tested variety developed through natural mutations, without genetic modifications or crossbreeding, and is noninvasive compared to the original one (Seppälä et al. 2013). Virginia mallow is a member of the Malvaceae family, is listed as endangered, and has a natural distribution in the eastern United States and Canada (Bickerton 2011; NatureServe 2021). The trials were established in the former MTT Agrifood Research Finland in Piikkiö (currently, Natural Resources Institute Finland), in southern Finland, in 2010 for giant knotweed and in 2011 for Virginia mallow, consisting of plots of 10 m². The harvested crop stalks for the pellet production were stored outdoors, protected from rain and sun and not in contact with the ground (see **Fig. 1**).

Coffee silverskin and spent coffee grounds were two biomass types investigated in **Paper II**. The samples were compressed, provided by Baqué S.L. (Spain), pellets, by Meira Ltd. (Finland), and untreated, by Mariposa Coffee Roasters (Slovenia), with all of them being considered as waste by-products from the places where they were collected (see **Fig. 1**). The spent coffee grounds were collected after coffee making in the premises of the School of Forest Sciences, Joensuu.

In **Paper III**, we evaluated 16 native tropical hardwood species collected from Piauí state, located in northeastern of Brazil, for which there were a few previous studies on chemical properties (**Fig. 2**). The species selection was based on local availability in the transition zone between the Cerrado and Caatinga biomes. Most of the collected samples were from the Aracajú Farm in the municipality of Santa Luz, and one species was collected in an area near the municipality of Colônia do Gurguéia (**Table 1**). The samples from the Aracajú Farm were derived from a harvested area of 2.7 km² where approved forest management plan was applied, being designated as a Sustainable Forest Management Plan area (Nazareno et al. 2021).



Figure 1. Example of biomass types analyzed. Top: Harvested stalks of giant knotweed (*Fallopia sachalinensis* var. *Igniscum*) and Virginia mallow (*Sida hermaphrodita*). Below: Untreated coffee silverskin (left), compressed (center), and in pellets (right).

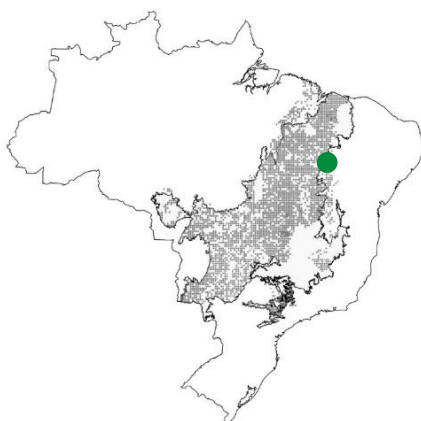


Figure 2. National Forest Inventory (NFI) plots in the *Cerrado* biome (SFB, 2023) and sampling area. The harvested samples were derived from the Aracajú Farm, municipality of Santa Luz, and near the municipality of Colônia do Gurguéia, in Piauí, Brazil.

Table 1. Collected native species, family taxonomy, and area where the samples were collected from.

Species	Family	Collected area
<i>Aspidosperma pyrifolium</i> Mart. (ASP)	Apocynaceae	Aracajú Farm
<i>Callisthene minor</i> Mart. (CAM)	Vochysiaceae	Colônia do Gurguéia
<i>Campomanesia velutina</i> (Cambess.) O. Berg (CAV)	Myrtaceae	Aracajú Farm
<i>Cenostigma macrophyllum</i> Tul. (CEM)	Fabaceae	Aracajú Farm
<i>Combretum glaucocarpum</i> Mart. (COG)	Combretaceae	Aracajú Farm
<i>Copaifera luetzelburgii</i> Harms (COL)	Fabaceae	Aracajú Farm
<i>Cordia toqueve</i> Aubl. (COT)	Boraginaceae	Aracajú Farm
<i>Dalbergia cearensis</i> Ducke (DAC)	Fabaceae	Aracajú Farm
<i>Duguetia marcgraviana</i> Mart. (DUM)	Annonaceae	Aracajú Farm
<i>Hymenaea martiana</i> Hayne (HYM)	Fabaceae	Aracajú Farm
<i>Luehea paniculata</i> Mart. (LUP)	Malvaceae	Aracajú Farm
<i>Myrcia tomentosa</i> (Aubl.) DC. (MYT)	Myrtaceae	Aracajú Farm
<i>Pityrocarpa moniliformis</i> (Benth.) Luckow & R.W. Jobson (PIM)	Fabaceae	Aracajú Farm
<i>Pterodon polygalaeflorus</i> Benth. / <i>Pterodon emarginatus</i> Vogel (PTP)	Fabaceae	Aracajú Farm
<i>Senegalia tenuifolia</i> (L.) Britton & Rose (SET)	Fabaceae	Aracajú Farm
<i>Swartzia flaemingii</i> Raddi (SWF)	Fabaceae	Aracajú Farm

Methods

The climatic data in **Paper I** were recorded by the Finnish Meteorological Institute from the Kaarina Yltöinen observation station, including monthly minimum and maximum temperatures, rainfall totals, and the effective sum over 5 °C. Soil analyses were carried out for **Papers I** and **III**. The Eurofins laboratories delivered the analysis results for the samples from the areas where the energy crops were cultivated (**Paper I**). As these were experimental trials, reporting the soil characteristics could serve as a reference point in conjunction with yield productivity for future studies. Better knowledge of soil conditions enables more effective management, for instance, by adding sufficient fertilizers to support crop production, achieve high productivity, and prevent disturbances. Soil samples from the Aracajú Farm were also collected and analyzed (**Paper III**). As the wood samples were derived from a stand undergoing natural regeneration management, soil description provides a comprehensive understanding of the favorable ecological conditions for the selected species. The main aspects described in both soil analyses were pH, topsoil characterization, and elemental content. The data obtained for yield productivity, including dry matter content (DMC), and fresh (FWY) and dry mass yields (DMY) (**Paper I**), with the harvested parts of the crop being either stems, leaves, or both stems and leaves. The crops were harvested within three years, either April, May, June (early harvest) or July, August, September (late harvest) from 2012 to 2014, for giant knotweed, and two years, from 2013 to 2014, for Virginia mallow. The fertilizers applied during crop cultivation in the trials were nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P), and potassium (K).

The stalks required pretreatment to enable pelletization and ensure even product quality (**Paper I**). Stalk comminution was achieved using an MTD 5HP woodchipper/shredder (MTD Products LLC, Cleveland, OH, USA). The treated material was forwarded to a hammer mill (Miller 20, Miller s.r.l., San Giorgio in Bosco, Italy), using an 8 mm screen (see **Fig. 3**). The produced hammered material was 107.3 kg for giant knotweed and 23.1 kg for Virginia mallow. The hammered material was finally processed for pelletizing using a pellet press (Type PP330, Sweden Power Chippers AB, Borås, Sweden) with an 8/50 die. The maximum observed temperatures during the pellet production were 95 °C for giant knotweed, and 78 °C for Virginia mallow, and the hourly production was approximately 82 kg. Water was constantly added through the chipper moisturizing system to enhance pellet formation. Pelletizing yielded 77 kg of pellets for giant knotweed and 16 kg for Virginia mallow. The obtained biomass of giant knotweed after every process, stalk pretreatment, hammering, and pellet production, can be seen in **Fig. 3**.

The hydrothermal liquefaction (HTL) was carried out with the use of a using a Parr 4580 high-pressure reactor (Parr Instrument Company, Moline, USA), maximum volume of the reactor 5.5 liters, maximum operating temperature at 500 °C, and maximum operating pressure of 250 bar (see. **Fig. 4**). The process included adding 5% of dry feedstock and 95% of water, being set between 94 and 97 bars and 300 °C, with the process duration being 60 min (**Paper II**). This temperature was chosen for delivering adequate volumes of both oils and hydrochar, consistent with prior optimization studies on lignocellulosic residues (Barbero-López et al. 2024; Jokinen et al. 2024). After the hydrothermal conversion was completed, a separation process followed, isolating the solid hydrochar from the water-rich light oil solution.

Both the distribution and the dendrometry characteristics, such as the mean values of total height and diameter at breast height, were obtained from the National Forest Inventory (NFI) of Brazil, which coordinated by the Brazilian Forest Service (SFB 2023) (**Paper III**). These

two metrics constitute the basis for the tree volume estimation. The data recorded during 2017-2018, and the maps used to create the figures were retrieved from Natural Earth and the Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics (IBGE 2006).



Figure 3. Hammer mill (Miller 20, Miller s.r.l., San Giorgio in Bosco, Italy) used for the hammering process of the giant knotweed and Virginia mallow stalks. Obtained biomass of giant knotweed after pretreatment of stalks (left), hammering process (center), and pellet production (right).

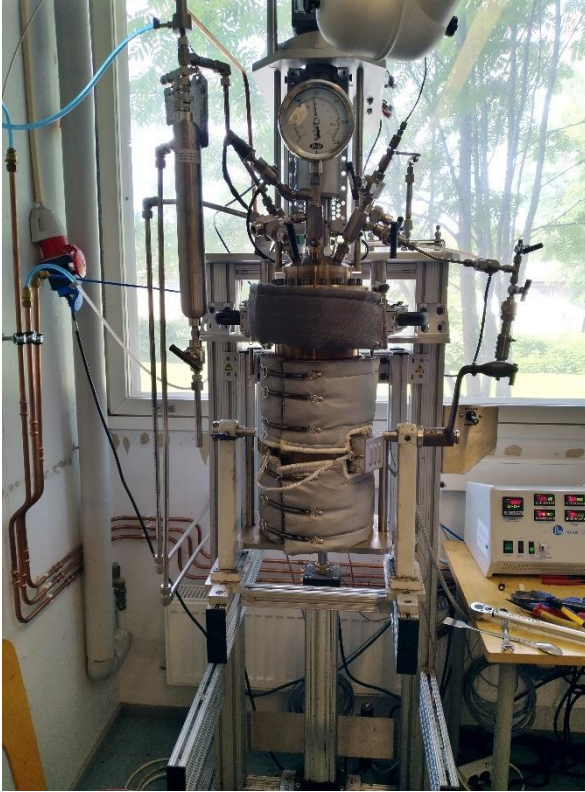


Figure 4. The hydrothermal liquefaction (HTL) Parr 4580 high-pressure reactor at the lab of the School of Forest Sciences, University of Eastern Finland.

The bulk density (BD) was calculated using a 5-liter measuring cylinder. The mechanical durability was calculated using a tumbler with a set rotation speed of 50 rpm and a 10 min rotation time. Equations (1) and (2) were used for the calculations of BD and DU (European Pellet Council 2013):

$$BD = \frac{(m_2 - m_1)}{V} \quad (1)$$

where *BD*: Bulk Density ($\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$)

m_1 : mass of the empty measuring cylinder (kg)

m_2 : mass of the full measuring cylinder (kg)

V : net volume of the measuring cylinder (m^3)

$$DU = \frac{m_A}{m_E} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

where *DU*: mechanical durability (%)

m_E : mass of wood pellets, not sieved, before testing (kg)

m_A : mass of the wood pellets, sieved, after testing (kg)

A sample of 300 pellets, random selection, was used for each crop for measuring the dimensions of the pellets, and the moisture content was determined by oven dry method at 105°C for 24 h, using an oven Termarks Type TS-5410 following the EN 14774-1:2009 standards, and a moisture analyzer (Radwag MAC 210/NH) (European Committee for Standardization Solid Biofuels 2009). The energy content, gross calorific value (GCV), of the pellets using a bomb calorimeter (EN ISO 1716 Bomb Calorimeter, Fire Testing Technology Ltd, UK) according to ISO 1716:2010 (ISO 2010) (**Paper I**). A static jacket oxygen bomb calorimeter, IKA C1 (IKA-Werke GmbH & Co. KG, Germany), was used to measure the GCV, following the ISO 1928:2020 standards (**Paper II**). The bomb calorimeter used for the pellets was also used for measuring the energy content of the wood and bark samples from the native tree species at 50% moisture (**Papers I AND III**). The net calorific value (NCV) for the pellets was calculated at two different moisture contents 5% and 10%, as described in SFS-EN ISO 18125:2017 (SFS 2017).

The Inductively Coupled Plasma - Optical Emission Spectrometry (ICP-OES) (**Papers I, II, and III**) was applied for describing the elemental content, including sulfur (S), of the samples. In **Paper I**, an accredited service laboratory determined the chlorine (Cl) content of the pellets in accordance with SFS-EN 15408:2011 (SFS 2011). The applied method was carried out by determining the dissolved anions by applying liquid chromatography of ions, based on the SFS-EN ISO 10304-1: 2007 (SFS 2007). Inductively Coupled Plasma-Mass Spectrometry (ICP-MS) was used to detect the chlorine (Cl) content of wood and bark samples for **Paper III**. Before ICP-OES and ICP-MS, the samples were treated using a microwave-assisted acid digestion, EPA 3051 method, with a CEM Microwave Accelerated Reaction System, Model MARS 5 (CEM Corporation, Charlotte, NC, USA). The combustion analysis was conducted for measuring carbon (C) and nitrogen (N), using an elemental analyzer Vario MAX Cube (Elementar Analysensysteme GmbH) (**Paper III**). For **Paper I**, the contents of the monosaccharides, soluble and insoluble lignin, extractives, and ash were determined as instructed in Hayes (2012).

The ash content was measured according to SFS-EN 18122:2015, at 550 °C for **Paper II** and **Paper III** (SFS 2015a). The volatile matter (VM) content, described in **Paper II** and **Paper III**, was measured at 900 °C, according to SFS-EN 18123:2015 (SFS 2015b). For measuring both the ash and VM, a muffle furnace, Naber N7 (Nabertherm GmbH, Germany) was used. The fixed carbon (FC) content was calculated for the last two studies using Eq. (4). A Soxhlet extraction was used for purification of the hydrochar, with methanol as the solvent, followed by high-resolution Fourier-transform ion cyclotron resonance mass spectrometry (FT-ICR MS) to determine the polar, with electrospray ionization (ESI), and nonpolar, with atmospheric-pressure photoionization (APPI), sample constituents.

$$FC = 100 - (MC + A + VM) \quad (4)$$

where *FC*: Fixed Carbon (w-%)

MC: Moisture Content (w-%)

A: Ash (w-%)

VM: Volatile Matter (w-%)

The overall results from testing the pellets (**Paper I**) were compared to the suggested values of the SFS-EN ISO 17225-6:2014, quality class A, and ENplus Quality Certification Scheme for wood pellets, quality class B (ISO 2014; European Pellet Council 2015). The first refers to the highest requirements for pellets produced from herbaceous biomass, and the second to minimum thresholds for wood pellets. Due to the different structures of

herbaceous and woody biomass, there are different certification schemes, with higher requirements for wood pellets. The SFS-EN 17225-6:2014, quality class B, was also used as a reference point for the elemental content of coffee silverskin and spent coffee samples in **Paper II**, as it can be used other biomass types as well (SFS 2014). The same pattern was followed by the elemental content of wood samples of the native tropical species, using SFS-ISO 17225-4:2021 quality class B2 (ISO 2021). The B2 class of this scheme refers to by-products and residues from the wood processing industry, with a moisture content between 15% and 55%. As the tested material was part of the stem, with wood being separated from bark, this scheme was more suitable for evaluating the elemental content of the species.

In **Paper I**, the study materials were obtained from a single experimental trial for each species, limiting the available biomass for pellet production. The harvested stalks were stored in industrial bags outdoors and in a shed for a year before pelletizing. Even though there was no contact with soil or exposure to sunlight or water, this long period could still affect the crop properties. The silverskin materials, **Paper II**, were collected from three different locations, with some of them amounting to small quantities. This fact limited the feedstock availability, and the produced oils and hydrochars were obtained from two runs of the HTL process for each sample. The overall liquid and solid products from each sample were combined in single batches, one from each. Some of the wood and bark materials from the native tropical species, **Paper III**, which did not have adequate material for analysis, could not be restocked due to the long distance and the shipping cost. In addition, the samples represented three individual trees per species, and we included them in all tests to make a reliable comparison. In a very few cases of bark material, there was enough material from two trees, and in two cases from a single tree. The distribution data represent only the Cerrado biome, with potential bias, as no data were available for the Caatinga biome. An illustrative structure of the thesis is shown in **Fig. 5**, which summarizes the applied processes and methods.

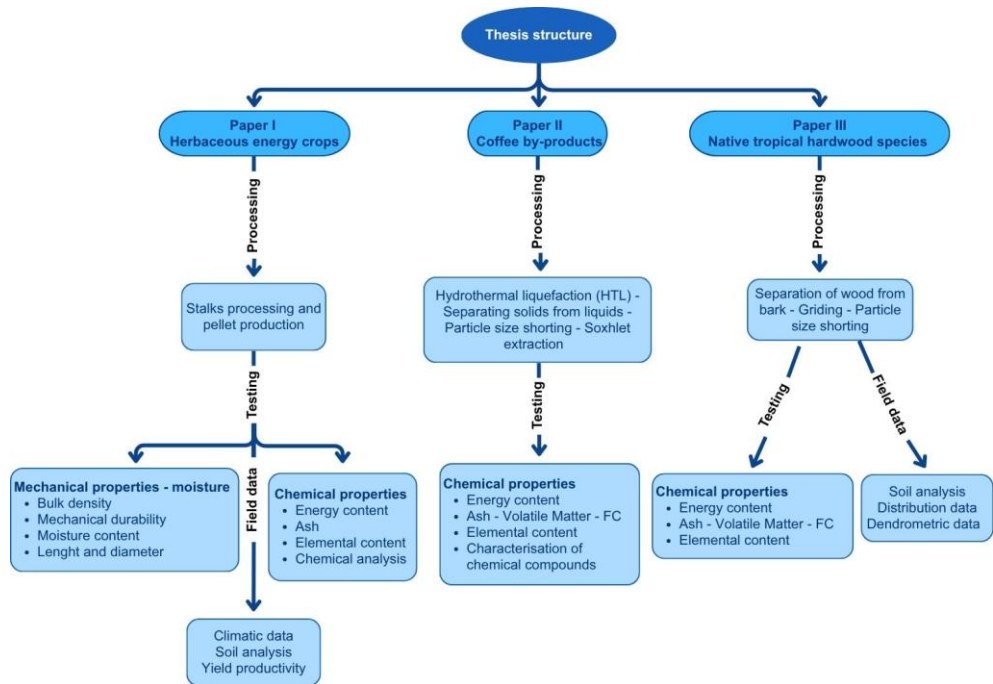


Figure 5. Structure of the thesis describing the type of material in each study, the applied processes, as well as the testing methods, and the additional collected data.

RESULTS

Pellet production from energy crops

The weather data obtained showed that the lowest temperature was $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, whereas the highest was $21.9\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. In addition, the annual precipitation observed ranged from 107.2 mm to 205 mm. The topsoil in the cultivation area was classified as medium-fine sand and humus, containing 6%–12% organic matter and having a pH of 6.3. The characterization of the yield productivity started for a period of 3 years for giant knotweed and 2 years for Virginia mallow. The dry matter yield (DMY) varied between $5.41\text{ odt ha}^{-1}\text{ yr}^{-1}$, not fertilized and only stems were harvested, and $27.67\text{ odt ha}^{-1}\text{ yr}^{-1}$, fertilized and both stems and leaves harvested, for giant knotweed. Virginia mallow had corresponding results of $6.46\text{ odt ha}^{-1}\text{ yr}^{-1}$, fertilized and only stems were harvested, and $16.72\text{ odt ha}^{-1}\text{ yr}^{-1}$, fertilized and both stems and leaves harvested (**Table 3**). The peak of yield was observed when harvesting occurred between July and September for both crops.

The bulk density of the produced pellets was between the recommended thresholds suggested by the certification schemes, being $677.71\text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ for giant knotweed and $725.18\text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ for Virginia mallow. The pellets from both species did not meet the minimum mechanical durability requirements. Giant knotweed pellets performed better results with 96.7%, being slightly lower than the recommended 97%, while the corresponding number of Virginia mallow was 92.9%. The moisture content decreased gradually from raw material to pellets, dropping by about 2–3 units at each processing stage. The moisture content of the pellets fluctuated between 5.9% and 6.69%, while the values below 10% aligned with both certification schemes. The observed diameter was approximately 8.1 mm for both species, whereas the giant knotweed pellets were longer, with a mean length of 29.14 mm, compared to Virginia mallow pellets, which were 21.99 mm.

The energy content of the pellets was close to $20\text{ MJ}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ at a moisture content of 5%, and between $17.2\text{ MJ}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ and $17.5\text{ MJ}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ at a moisture content of 10%. Giant knotweed pellets resulted in better ash content, by not exceeding the limit, compared to Virginia mallow, which had the corresponding value slightly higher than the ENplus limit. The content of chlorine (Cl) and sulfur (S), two elements with dense corrosive characteristics, was in accordance with the recommendations. Similarly, a group of other elements that need to be reported had met the suggested requirements. There was variation in the content of monosaccharides and soluble and insoluble lignin, with giant knotweed having higher values in some and Virginia mallow in others, but with no significant practical difference. On the other hand, the content of the extractives was almost double for Virginia mallow compared to that of giant knotweed. An overview of the pellet test results, compared with the certification schemes, is shown in **Table 4**.

Table 3. The yield productivity estimated yearly, including dry matter content (DMC) (w-%), fresh weight yield (FWY) (t·ha⁻¹), and dry matter yield (DMY) (t·ha⁻¹) of giant knotweed and Virginia mallow, as well as the harvested part from each crop. e: early harvest (April, May, June), l: late harvest (July, August, September), S: stems, L: leaves, *: not fertilized. Standard errors are presented in parentheses.

Species	Year	DMC	FWY	DMY	Parts of the crop
Giant knotweed	2012	20.8	70.2	14.64 (1.74)	S - L (l)
		27.2	88.72	24.15(2.83)	S - L (l)
		36.6	75.5	27.67 (3.40)	S - L (l)
		31.6	41.67	15.27	S (l)
	2013	87.3	8.83	7.71 (1.31)	S (e)
		64.3*	8.42*	5.41* (0.35)	S (e)
	2014	15.9	109.7	17.5	S - L (e)
		37.9	59.44	22.6	S - L (l)
Virginia mallow	2013	84	7.69	6.46 (0.81)	S (e)
	2014	81*	10.1*	8.2* (0.40)	S (e)
		37	45.2	16.72	S - L (l)

Table 4. Evaluation of physical and chemical characteristics of the pellets studied based on certification schemes ISO and ENplus.

Characteristics	Giant Knotweed - ISO/ENplus	Virginia mallow - ISO/ENplus
Moisture content	Pass/Pass	Pass/Pass
Net calorific value	Pass/Pass	Pass/Pass
Ash	Pass/Pass	Pass/Fail
Bulk density	Pass/Pass	Pass/Pass
Mechanical durability	Fail/Fail	Fail/Fail
Sulfur (S)	Pass/Pass	Pass/Pass
Chlorine (Cl)	Pass/Pass	Pass/Pass

Hydrothermal conversion of coffee by-products for bioenergy and biochemical applications

The HTL process of the assessed coffee by-products yielded hydrochar, a water-rich light oil, and a water-insoluble heavy oil. Spent coffee yielded higher amounts of hydrochar and heavy oil, whereas silverskin produced almost twice as much light oil as spent coffee. The energy content of the studied materials was significantly improved after the HTL process. The untreated materials released energy between 19 MJ·kg⁻¹ and 22 MJ·kg⁻¹, which can be considered comparable to the tested Norway spruce sawdust, which was 19.16 MJ·kg⁻¹. The hydrochar, on the other hand, reached up to 34.3 MJ·kg⁻¹, with spent coffee hydrochar recording the highest values, in **Fig. 6**. HTL improved combustion characteristics by lowering the ash in each case. Similarly, the volatile matter content decreased after hydrothermal conversion, in contrast to the increased fixed carbon content. Overall, spent coffee grounds depicted the most promising features for combustion applications (**Fig. 7**).

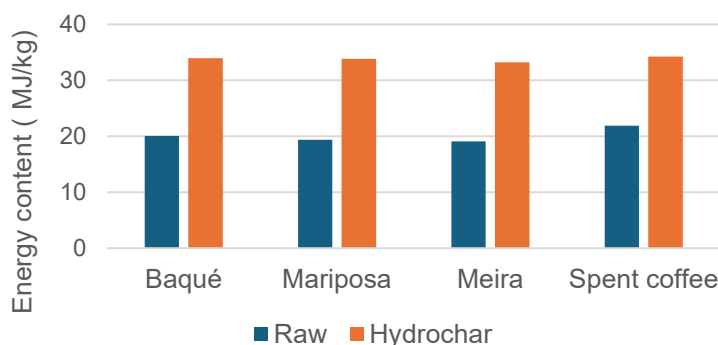


Figure 6. Energy content of the assessed coffee by-products before and after the hydrothermal treatment.

Most target chemical elements did not exceed the recommended thresholds, with copper (Cu) reporting notably higher levels than the limits, particularly in the silverskin hydrochar samples. Nickel (Ni) showed values above the limits for BA-HC, MA-HC, and SC-HC, with the latter being slightly above the limit. In addition, MA-HC was the only tested sample in which zinc (Zn) content did not align with the recommended limit value.

The chemical compounds detected in the silverskin samples showed no significant differences in composition, but there were differences in the quantities of certain compounds. The delivered light and heavy oil, both for silverskin and spent coffee HTL-treated materials, indicated noticeable amounts of fatty acids and alkaloids, as well as the presence of nonpolar compounds, such as triterpenoids and hydrocarbons.

Polar compounds, for instance, carbohydrate degradation products or types of alkaloids, were only contained in the light oils. The obtained oil fractions are described by high complexity, consisting of aliphatic and aromatic compounds. More specifically, there was considerable diversity of compounds mainly described as condensed aliphatic and aromatic hydrocarbons, unsaturated and hydroxy/epoxy fatty acids, triterpenoids, and alkaloids, among others, which were found based on the positive ion (+) APPI detection. The negative-ion (−) ESI included carbohydrates and their degradation products, aliphatic saturated and unsaturated amides, fatty acids (mainly C16 or C18 skeleton), and acidic oxyaromatic compounds (**Fig. 8**).

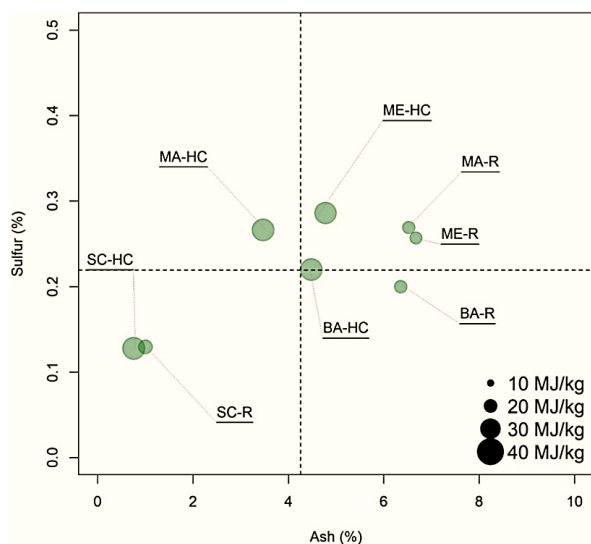


Figure 7. Content of ash (w-%), sulfur (S) (w-%), and energy ($\text{MJ} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$) content from silverskin and spent coffee, both for raw and hydrothermal treated samples. The dashed lines refer to the mean ash, 4.25%, and sulfur, 0.22%.

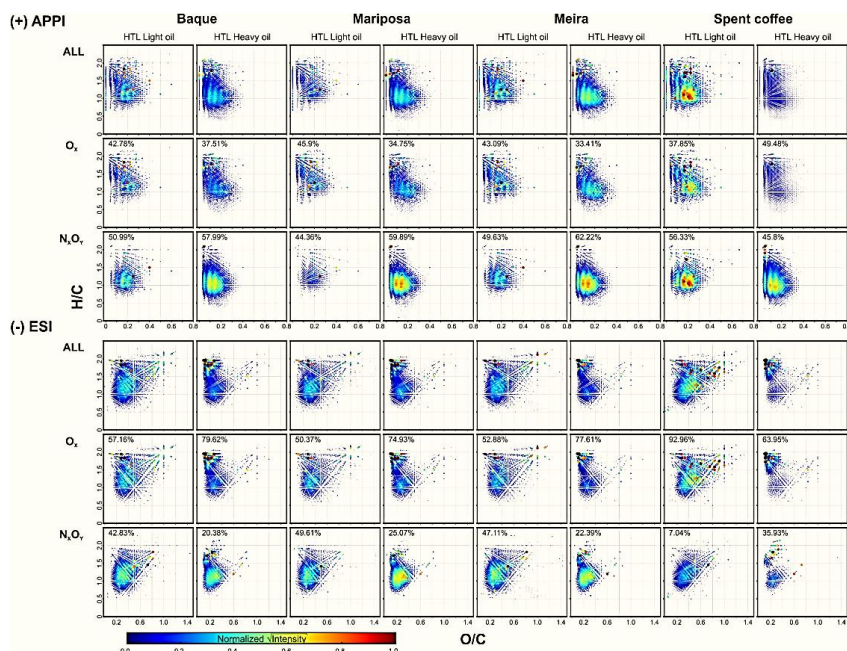


Figure 8. Van Krevelen diagrams for the CHO and CHNO compounds in the HTL light and heavy oils of coffee silverskin and spent coffee grounds, determined by Fourier-transform ion cyclotron resonance mass spectrometry, both with atmospheric-pressure photoionization (APPI), positive ion, and electrospray ionization (ESI), negative ion.

Native hardwood species from Brazil for energy applications

The assessed tree species exhibited a broad distribution, being spotted in 103 plots of the Brazil's NFI, and sampling in total 3734 tree measurements within the Cerrado biome (see **Fig. 9**). Four species numbered more than 400 trees each, with a peak of 550 trees. Some of those species were well represented in the area, whereas others were restricted to parts of the Cerrado, such as the northeast. The observed dendrometry features, such as the mean height and DBH, varied from 5 m to 11 m and from 0.07 m to 0.17 m, respectively, indicating the complexity of the forest structure. The soil from the sampling area was classified as strongly acidic loamy sand, with a mean pH of 5.1.

The measured energy content of the wood specimens, the average GCV was approximately $18.5 \text{ MJ} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$, slightly higher than the corresponding mean value for the bark specimens. On the contrary, wood samples had less ash content, between 0.32% and 0.87%,

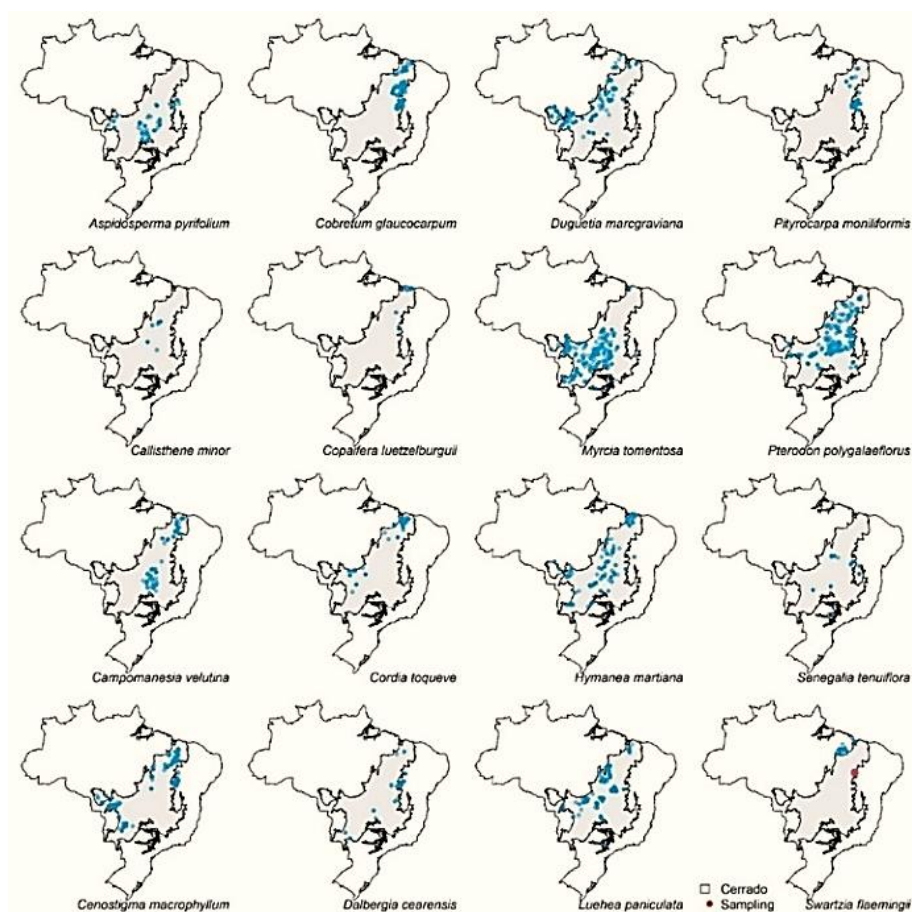


Figure 9. Distribution of the investigated species as recorded in the Cerrado biome based on the Brazilian National Forest Inventory.

compared to those from bark that ranged between 1% and 4.45%. Both sample types had similar carbon (C) content, averaging 50%. Based on the elemental analysis, almost all the wood samples were within the standard limits for the target elements. *D. marcegraviana* was the only species that had slightly higher content of sulfur than the certification limit. A summary ranking system was developed to identify the best-suited species for combustion applications. based on energy, ash, and chlorine (C) and sulfur (S) contents (**Fig. 10**). *P. polygalaeflorus* was the topmost among the species investigated, encompassing the highest rank, considering high energy, and low ash, chlorine (C), and sulfur (S) contents, followed by *L. paniculata*, and *A. pyrifolium*.

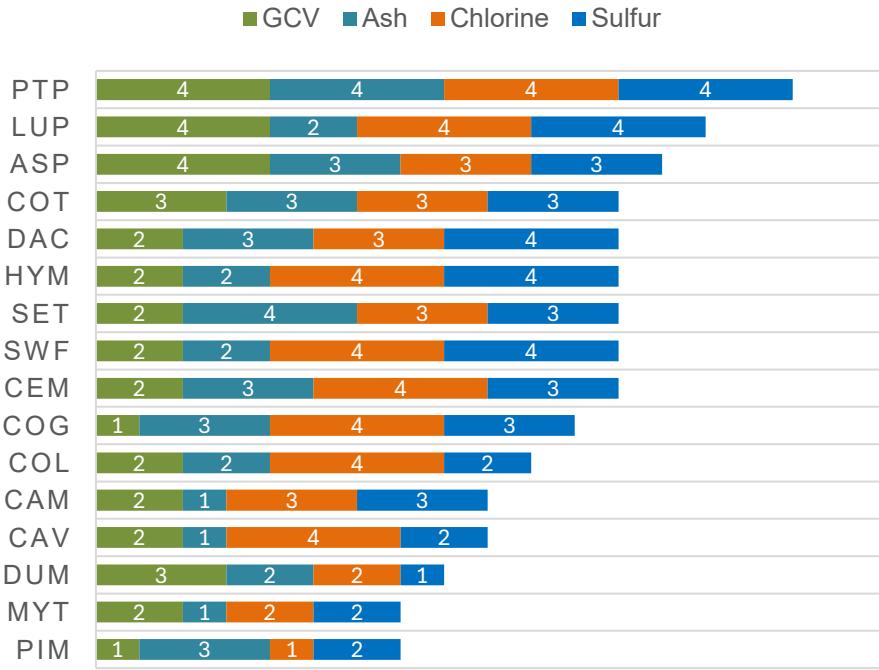


Figure 10. Synthetic ranking of the investigated species based on the variables gross calorific value (GCV), ash, chlorine, and sulfur content. For GCV, a higher value refers to a better rank, and for the rest of the variables, the lower the better, the higher the score.

DISCUSSION

The present thesis focused on different biomass sources to expand the potential feedstocks for producing energy and extracting chemical compounds. All the materials studied are newly introduced and lack sufficient research on energy production. The thesis argues that, despite the ongoing and increasing demand for energy production, there are plenty of resources that could be considered part of green economy development. Biomass utilization is a complex process that encompasses sustainable feedstock availability, transparency in supply chain systems, and products that meet high-quality standards. Even though there are similarities across all biomass resources, the distinguishing differences determine the processes required for effective application. In this regard, a well-organized plan is needed to clarify certain characteristics for better describing the best-suited applications.

Advancing herbaceous energy crops for pelletizing

The ongoing need to reduce dependence on conventional fuels has raised awareness of the importance of advancing biomass use. Densified solid biomass fuels like pellets outperform wood chips or firewood by saving space, containing less water, and releasing more energy. A greater reflection of bioenergy is the high-quality products and services it delivers. In **Paper I**, two newly introduced herbaceous crops were examined as potential feedstock for pellet production in Finland, demonstrating good potential. The crops assessed in **Paper I** belong to the group used to produce second-generation biofuels, thereby avoiding competition with food production. This factor is of great importance for improving public acceptance and eliminating conflicts that emerged when food crops were used to produce biofuels (Naik et al. 2010).

The resulting yields of giant knotweed and Virginia mallow are comparable to those reported in other studies for bioenergy production. *Polygonum sachalinensis* yielded 5.13 odt ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, not fertilized, and 9.58 odt ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for *Sida hermaphrodita*, fertilized, in Lithuania (Slepetyts et al. 2012). In Poland, Virginia mallow resulted yields between 7.47 odt ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ to 9.19 odt ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in a 4-year period and varied from 6.5 odt ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ to 9.6 odt ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Borkowska et al. 2009; Oleszek et al. 2020). Between the lowest unfertilized productivity values, harvesting only stems, of the two crops, giant knotweed reported 5.41 odt ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ whereas Virginia mallow 8.2 odt ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. Energy crops could be associated with ecological aspects, such as soil restoration and improved productivity in marginal and degraded lands (Nijsen et al. 2012; Nackley et al. 2013). For instance, marginal lands in rural regions with low food crop productivity can be considered for energy production (Csikós and Tóth 2023). Abandoned lands, where agricultural activities previously occurred and are currently not considered for yielding high productivity, have the capacity to cultivate dedicated energy crops (Field et al. 2008; Canadell and Schulze 2014). Environmental assessments could help develop comprehensive crop profiles to support better decision-making on species choice and management applications (González-García et al. 2012; González-García et al. 2014).

The physical and chemical characteristics of pellets are associated with storing, transportation, and the applications of use. Giant knotweed and Virginia mallow pellets achieved bulk density within the reference standards. In other case studies, giant knotweed pellets had a bulk density of 509.9 kg·m⁻³, whereas Virginia mallow pellets had 570 kg·m⁻³ and 999.3 kg·m⁻³ (Jasinskas et al. 2014; Țiței and Andreoiu 2017; Streikus et al. 2017). Even

though both crops had lower mechanical durability compared to the certification schemes, there is room for improvement in mechanical durability, either as pretreatment or during pelletizing. Heating biomass before pelletizing improves lignin binding behavior (Uslu et al. 2008). Higher moisture content increases binding and activates water-soluble compounds, thereby enhancing that effect (Lindley and Vossoughi 1989; Kaliyan and Vance Morey 2009).

The energy content of the studied pellets is comparable to values from other species, both wood and herbaceous. Pellets from commercial wood species had NCV ranging from 14.41 MJ·kg⁻¹ to 17.91 MJ·kg⁻¹, with an average moisture content of 10.1% (Telmo and Lousada 2011). The gross calorific value of giant knotweed and *Miscanthus* pellets was about 19 MJ·kg⁻¹ (Streikus et al. 2017). Both species produced pellets within the ISO standards for ash content, but only giant knotweed met the ENplus standards, with Virginia mallow slightly above the limit. Further trials over longer periods could help better determine the ash content. For instance, winter harvesting could help reduce ash content (Burvall 1997; Christian et al. 2006).

Developing different mixtures of biomass materials could improve pellet characteristics, enabling the use of more materials for fuel production (Hernández-Neri et al. 2022). It should be noted that many factors determine how well performance a fuel could have. Factors such as the harvesting season and storing period of the biomass, solid fuels geometry, type and condition of the boiler, and even the feeding process of the fuel could play a role in combustion properties and released emissions (Lehtikangas 2001; Prade et al. 2012; Nižetić et al. 2019; Kraszkiewicz et al. 2022; Petlickaitė et al. 2023; Lio et al. 2025). Thus, it can be concluded that the development of biomass fuels should occur in parallel with other needed sectors for successful implementations.

Broad knowledge is essential to a better understanding of the practices needed to support environmental benefits through the cultivation of bioenergy feedstocks (Lemus and Lal 2005). Priority should be given to enhancing biodiversity and carbon sequestration when deciding which degraded land will be planted with energy crops (Tudge et al. 2025). Thus, biomass feedstocks derived from sustainable production could contribute to social benefits, for example, the development of rural areas, restore soil with depleted nutrients, and improve biodiversity habitats (Paine et al. 1996; Mehmood et al. 2017; La Torre Ugarte 2026).

Certification schemes were developed to verify every step of biofuels production, ensuring the supply of high-quality products to consumers. Setting standards as part of certification schemes strongly provides the necessary tools for validating fuel characteristics alongside the related production and trade processes (Lewandowski and Faaij, 2006). Both giant knotweed and Virginia mallow (**Paper I**) showed rather good results, meeting most of the thresholds recommended by certification schemes. That sets the stage for further investigation to address the very few drawbacks observed. New studies could examine other variables to increase the potential applications of these two crops. For example, Giant reed (*Arundo donax* L.) is a tall, perennial, rhizomatous grass that can be used for energy, paper pulp, roofing thatch, and training stakes for orchards and vegetable crops (Lewandowski et al. 2003).

Waste side-streams for valuable products and services

The constant increase in organic solid waste led societies to develop sustainable and effective methods for disposal. Apart from conventional methods such as incineration and landfill

disposal, rapid technological advancements enable the use of these feedstocks as energy and chemical sources. Thus, constant research will expand the recovery of value-added products and issue tailored solutions.

In **Paper II**, the hydrothermal conversion of coffee roasting by-products, silverskin and spent coffee grounds, yielded promising results, including rich in energy hydrochar and light and heavy oils as chemical resources. In recent years, HTL processing is gaining a growing attention for bio-oil production through valorization of food wastes and agricultural residues (Hu et al. 2017; Posmanik et al. 2017; Rao et al. 2018; Chen et al. 2020; Cutz et al. 2025). Previous studies have portrayed the potential of using silverskin as a source of chemical compounds, such as phenolics and fibers (Pourfarzad et al. 2013; Kulkarni et al. 2024; Boninsegna et al. 2025).

The hydrothermal treatment of silverskin yielded more liquids than spent coffee grounds, with the latter producing a higher volume of hydrochar. The energy content was upscaled, with the hydrochars having a mean value of about $33.8 \text{ MJ} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$, approximately 40% higher than that of the raw samples. Biochar from pyrolyzed silverskin reached up to $24.2 \text{ MJ} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$, while processed spent coffee grounds through torrefaction had energy content up to $27.28 \text{ MJ} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ (Chen and Jhou 2020; Pozo et al. 2021). HTL biochar from corn stover had measured gross energy between $21 \text{ MJ} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ and $25 \text{ MJ} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$, with higher values observed with treatment at 300°C (Nava-Bravo et al. 2025). Based on that, HTL could produce energy-rich solid products compared to other conversion treatments, but the choice of feedstock and process settings plays a role in that as well.

The lowest ash content was found in the spent coffee hydrochar at 0.8%, slightly lower than in the raw material at 1.0%. The hydrothermal conversion reduced ash content in all tested samples, with Mariposa hydrochar dropping by 2.8 units. The ash content remained higher than that of solid biomass fuels, and treatments to reduce it are needed. Deashing of HTL-treated bark significantly reduced the ash content from 2.27%, before deashing, to 0.44% (Feng et al. 2014). The HTL treatment increased the content of the elements, with most showing a low increase and not exceeding the recommended threshold. Copper content was rather high in both hydrochars and raw materials, with the lowest levels in spent coffee hydrochar. Nickel and zinc observations were also elevated above the limits, with Baqué and spent coffee hydrochars including only nickel, while Mariposa hydrochar encompassing both nickel and zinc. The leaching approach might help reduce the levels of those elevated elements. For instance, leaching with ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid removed copper from wood waste (Nami Kartal, 2003).

All HTL liquids showed richness in their constituent profiles. Despite the different origins of the silverskin samples, strong similarities were noted in the chemical compositions. That contrasts with previous studies, which showed differences based on geographical origin and coffee varieties (Tan et al. 2016; Bessada et al. 2018a; Kresna et al. 2024). The HTL liquids from all samples contained different fatty acids and alkaloids, with caffeine being the main type of alkaloids. In addition, nonpolar compounds, like triterpenoids and hydrocarbons, were detected in both light and heavy oils. Polar, water-soluble compounds, on the other hand, were detected in light oils only, including carbohydrate degradation products or a few alkaloids, such as caffeine. These findings suggest that the hydrothermal valorization of coffee by-products could have potential for producing wood preservatives, cosmetics, and pharmaceuticals (Barbero-López et al. 2018; Bessada et al. 2018b; Kamgang Nzekoue et al. 2022). Recently published studies illustrated additional possible applications arising from valorizing coffee by-products and scaling up the potential value-added products (Lee et al. 2023; Tsigkou et al. 2025). Substrate for biobutanol and hydrogen production, organic

fertilizers, and soil amendment by removing heavy metals being some examples (Hijosa-Valsero et al. 2018; Mirzoyan et al. 2022; Jiang et al. 2023; Młynarczykowska and Orlof-Naturalna 2024).

HTL biomass processing requires further leveraging through optimized procedures and refinement to current challenges, achieve desired qualitative and quantitative outcomes, and enhance commercial prospects (Ross et al. 2010; Jena et al. 2011; Tekin et al. 2014; Pham et al. 2025; Tiwari and Mallick 2025). Technological improvements could positively impact logistics efficiency, with lower costs, and aggregate sustainable networks based on renewable resources (Gerssen-Gondelach et al. 2014; Chaudhary et al. 2025).

Sustainability pathways for retaining biodiversity

A strategy plan for utilizing biomass resources should include information on fuel characteristics and stock availability (Kataki and Konwer 2001; Ngugi et al. 2018). Furthermore, the production of biomass for producing solid biofuels should avoid the risk of biodiversity disturbance and, if possible, enhance biodiversity (Cramer Commission 2006). In **Paper III**, native tropical hardwood species from northern Brazil were examined to assess species availability, dendrometry traits, and combustion properties. Features, such as tree distribution, heights and DBH, and chemical characteristics, were presented aiming to suggest the most qualified species for energy production. The species *Cenostigma macrophyllum*, *Duguetia marcgraviana*, *Hymenaea martiana*, *Luehea paniculata*, *Myrcia tomentosa*, and *Pterodon polygalaeiflorus* showed a broad distribution. These six species were detected in at least 8 plots and had individual measurements from 242 to 550. Regarding the height measurements, *Duguetia marcgraviana* and *Swartzia flaemingii* recorded the highest average heights, 10.87 m and 11.44 m, respectively, with the first species showing the highest height variability. *H. martiana* and *P. polygalaeiflorus* depicted DBH from a few centimeters <10 cm to up 60 cm and the highest diameter variability. Providing knowledge of versatile tree characteristics better supports decision-making for forest management, disturbance monitoring, and integrating commercialization and biodiversity values (Marques 2006; Cotrina Sánchez et al. 2020; Silva Santos et al. 2026). Thus, robust focus has been given to developing new methods for more accurate and quicker data acquisition, such as terrestrial laser scanning and mobile laser scanning (Holvoet et al. 2025).

In the context of using the studied species for energy generation, the bark samples had GCV ranging from 18 MJ·kg⁻¹ to 23 MJ·kg⁻¹, while the corresponding values for the wood were 19.5 and 20 MJ·kg⁻¹. The characterized energy contents are similar to those of other species, such as beech, being approximately 19.5 MJ·kg⁻¹ (Vusić et al., 2021). Two case studies of native species from Sub-Saharan Africa revealed that five species averaged an energy content of 14.9 MJ·kg⁻¹, and only two of 12 species exceeded 18 MJ·kg⁻¹ (Lubwama et al. 2023; Manyatsha et al. 2025). Native species from Nigeria, particularly used as fuelwood, depicted an average GCV of 15.52 MJ·kg⁻¹ (Yunusa et al. 2024). Examining other species from the Cerrado biome, the GCV was from 18.71 MJ·kg⁻¹ to 19.5 MJ·kg⁻¹ (Marques et al. 2020).

The ash content of all species remained below 1%, with *Aspidosperma pyrifolium*, *Cenostigma macrophyllum*, *Pterodon polygalaeiflorus* and *Senegalia tenuifolia* having ash contents even lower than 0.4%. It is estimated that about 480 million tons of ash are produced annually from the combustion of biomass, with need for proper removal and management (Munawar et al. 2021). These findings are in line with other species from Brazil, with ash

ranging from 0.26% to 0.62% (Marques et al. 2020). The elemental analysis showed that only *Duguetia marcgraviana* had slightly higher sulfur levels than the ISO thresholds. The low corrosive profile of biomass fuels is attributed to the low maintenance cost of boilers (Paz et al. 2021). The aluminum content in *Callisthene minor* was significantly higher than in the other species. Cerrado soil is exceptionally saturated with Al, and some Vochysiaceae species, such as *Callisthene minor*, remove Al from the soil through the root system (Chenery 1948; Haridasan 1982; Furley and Ratter 1988; Andrade et al. 2011).

Shifting land cover, for instance, by extensively establishing pastures and food crop plantations, could negatively affect regional climatic conditions by unsettling the water cycle, which could subsequently impact the remaining native species (Sampaio et al. 2007). Croplands tend to have higher surface albedo, especially compared to lands covered by native species, leading to reduced precipitation and evapotranspiration (Costa et al. 2007). Modeling scenarios give provision that deforestation in the Cerrado could lengthen the dry season, thereby aggravating conditions for native vegetation (Costa and Pires 2010). Shifting land cover in conjunction with climatic changes could further stress both flora and fauna in Cerrado (Hofmann et al. 2025). Longer dry seasons and the expansion of crop plantations could make biomes even more prone to wildfires (Jolly et al. 2015; Schmidt and Eloy 2020). Raising public awareness of sustainable management practices and providing necessary information on the bioenergy potential of native species could reduce illegal activities (Gama et al. 2022). A better understanding of the capacity of native species for commercialization might act as an incentive for improving current policies, which in turn might lead to having more protected areas. For example, only 7% of the Cerrado biome is covered by legislative protection, while the corresponding number of protected areas in the Amazon forest is 46% (Soares-Filho et al. 2014).

Apart from energy production, the species studied are described by ecological and medicinal services as well. *Myrcia tomentosa* is described as a pioneer species (Imatomi et al. 2013). *Aspidosperma pyrifolium*, *Cenostigma macrophyllum*, and *Piptadenia moniliformis* are linked to honey production in Piauí (Aleixo et al. 2015). In addition, these four species, along with *C. glaucocarpum*, show suitability for ecological restoration (Conceição Sabino et al. 2021; Lima et al. 2021; Ribeiro et al. 2021, Vourlitis et al. 2026). Savanna tree species have thicker bark compared to forest trees, giving them the ability to better tolerate fire damage (Hoffman et al. 2012). *L. paniculata* has shown potential for cosmetic and antioxidant applications, *P. polygalaeiflorus* has demonstrated anti-inflammatory effects, *Hymenaea* species, particularly *H. martiana*, are widely used in Northeast Brazil to treat inflammation and rheumatism (Albuquerque et al. 2007; Vellozo et al. 2013; Boniface et al. 2017; Leal et al. 2018; Nunes et al. 2018).

Future roadmaps and conclusions

Biomass offers resilience, with high availability in various forms, and new methods are being developed for novel conversions. Biomass resources do not compete with one another; on the contrary, they complement one another and are characterized by solidarity and the provision of tailored solutions. In addition, this feature promotes adaptability by integrating a range of biomass feedstocks across different processing methods. Nowadays, securing domestic energy autarky is a high priority, and increasing biomass utilization is more crucial than ever. A genuine way to achieve this is to obtain multiple benefits from available resources that could originate at the local level. Improving pellet properties could be achieved

with blend adjustments. Introducing alternative feedstocks will increase the overall production capacity. Technological advancements help better valorize materials, such as biomass by-products, that were previously difficult to process. Biomass-driven production systems may enhance the economic viability of native species conservation and support the livelihoods of indigenous communities. These aspects could enhance commercial applications, as novel and promising products and services could accrue. Certification schemes pave the way for the sustainable utilization of emerging resources.

Summarizing the findings of all the papers from this thesis, the assessed biomass feedstocks showed potential for integration into energy systems. In **Paper I**, energy crops depicted an exceptionally good profile for pellet production in Nordic conditions, especially when compared to other herbaceous crops. Coffee waste products in **Paper II** could be scaled up through hydrothermal conversion, both in terms of energy and chemical compound production. Native tropical species from Northeastern Brazil, as demonstrated in **Paper III**, provide evidence for altering current uses by integrating them into sustainable bioenergy systems, while preserving ecologically driven traits. Nevertheless, further investigation will be needed to clarify the necessary practices and optimized methods for successful incorporation into commercial supply chains.

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