

**EVALUATION OF THE INTERFACE OF EUCALYPTUS SPECIMENS WELDED
BY ROTARY FRICTION**

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ABSTRACT

Rotary friction welding produces joints by inserting wood dowels, with a specific rotation and feed rate, into pre-drilled holes made in wood substrates. Studies on the welding of fast-growing eucalypts from Brazilian planted forests are recent. Therefore, this research aimed to evaluate the macro and microstructural and thermochemical changes at the dowel/substrate interface of eucalypts welded joints from Brazilian planted forests and to determine the mechanical strength of two-piece eucalypts welded joints. Specimens formed by eucalypts dowels and substrates were produced. Subsequently, visual evaluation and scanning electron microscopy, attenuated total reflectance-Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy, X-ray diffraction, thermogravimetric, differential scanning calorimetry and tensile tests were performed. The results reveal that the rotary friction welding parameters adopted contribute to the densification of the welded interface and the formation of a structure responsible for joining the dowel and the substrate, providing mechanical strength to the joint. The cellulose crystallinity index and the apparent crystallite size of the eucalypts welded sample increase due to thermal degradation of amorphous components. The rupture of the welded joints is ductile and their average strength is 2,1 MPa. Welded joints of fast-growing eucalypts, from Brazilian planted forests, are suitable when the rotary friction welding parameters are similar to those used for eucalypts woods from Australian forests.

Keywords: Dowel connections, eucalypts wood, rotary friction, thermochemical changes, welding of wood.

41 **INTRODUCTION**

42 Rotary friction welding (RFW) of wood is a recent technique for joining elements from
43 the insertion of dowels, with specific rotation and feed rate, into pre-drilled holes machined
44 in wood substrates. This process causes heating at the interface of the wood pieces in contact,
45 reaching maximum temperatures of 301 °C to 388 °C for rotations between 1000 rpm to 2500
46 rpm (Rodriguez 2010, Belleville 2012). Consequently, the fusion of polymers occurs in this
47 region, forming an amorphous and dense material, fused with fragments of densified wood
48 fibers (Pizzi *et al.* 2004, Leban *et al.* 2005, Pizzi 2010).

49 According to Pizzi *et al.* (2004) and Pizzi (2010), the RFW technique has considerable
50 interest, since it is simple, fast, environmentally friendly, more sustainable and low-cost,
51 when compared to adhesives and metal fasteners joint techniques. In addition, RFW joints
52 have mechanical strength comparable to or even higher than glued joints (Pizzi *et al.* 2004).
53 This technique has potential for application in furniture and joinery manufacturing and in
54 engineered wood products, such as dowel-laminated timber (DLT) and dowelled cross-
55 laminated timber (DCLT), used as construction and building materials, alternatively to
56 concrete and steel (Pizzi 2010, Sotayo *et al.* 2020).

57 According to Belleville *et al.* (2018), eucalypts Australian hardwood is suitable for RFW,
58 since its greater lignin content is favorable to condensation reactions during the RFW process
59 and this is necessary to obtain an effective welded joint. The main *Eucalyptus* species welded
60 by rotary friction are: *saligna* (784 kg/m³), *pilularis* (925 kg/m³) and *maculata* (965 kg/m³)
61 (Belleville *et al.* 2016). The RFW parameters are 1,11 or 1,25 for the dowel/pre-drilled hole
62 diameter ratio and 1230 rpm or 1415 rpm for the rotation (Belleville *et al.* 2016, Belleville *et*
63 *al.* 2018).

64 *Eucalyptus* species from Brazilian planted forests have a higher proportion of sapwood
65 due to their fast growth, caused by favorable edaphoclimatic conditions (Magalhães *et al.*
66 2012). Mansouri *et al.* (2011) found that the weld line is wider for sapwood than heartwood,
67 since the greater permeability of sapwood allows greater movement of the molten material
68 at the dowel/substrate interface during the welding process. Therefore, differences in wood
69 anatomy influence the quality of welded joints, as well as the chemical composition and
70 structure of wood polymers, mainly lignin and hemicelluloses (Rodriguez 2010).

71 In Brazil, eucalypts plantations represent 78 % of the total tree planted area (IBÁ 2021).
72 Its wood is commonly used in construction and in furniture and joinery manufacturing (IPT
73 2022). Few studies have investigated the potential application of the RFW technique to
74 eucalypts woods from Brazilian planted forests. Schneid and Moraes (2016) welded *E.*
75 *saligna*, with 690 kg/m³ (IPT 2022), and *Eucalyptus* spp. (794 kg/m³) using 1,25 for the
76 dowel/pre-drilled hole diameter ratio and 1750 rpm for the rotation. This study found
77 promising results. However, it was focused only on determining the joint strength. Therefore,
78 further research might evaluate the thermochemical changes that occur at the welding
79 interface of these eucalypts woods.

80 The aim of this research is to evaluate the macro and microstructural and thermochemical
81 changes at the dowel/substrate interface of eucalyptus welded joints from Brazilian planted
82 forests and to determine the mechanical strength of two-piece eucalypts welded joints.
83 Therefore, visual evaluation and scanning electron microscopy (SEM), attenuated total
84 reflectance-Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (ATR-FTIR), X-ray diffraction (XRD),
85 thermogravimetric (TG), differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) and tensile tests were
86 performed.

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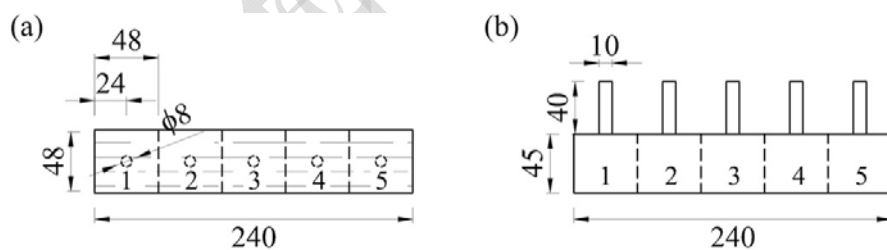
88 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

89 **Wood**

90 *Eucalyptus* hardwood, from planted forests in the state of Paraná - Brazil, was obtained
91 from a sawmill. It has an average apparent density of $938 \text{ kg/m}^3 \pm 12 \text{ kg/m}^3$ at 12 % moisture
92 content (MC).

93 **Samples and specimens (1st phase)**

94 This research was organized into two phases. The 1st phase consisted of macro and
95 microstructural and thermochemical evaluation of the dowel/substrate interface. The sample
96 was composed of 5 specimens formed by the substrate and the dowel, both eucalypts wood.
97 They were produced using smooth dowels (10 mm in diameter and 80 mm in length) and
98 planed rafter as substrate (240 mm × 48 mm × 45 mm), in which five holes of 8 mm in
99 diameter were drilled in the radial-tangential plane of the wood, perpendicularly to the fibers
100 and tangentially to the growth rings (Figure 1). Therefore, the dowel/pre-drilled hole
101 diameter ratio of 1,25 were adopted (Belleville *et al.* 2016, Schneid and Moraes 2016).



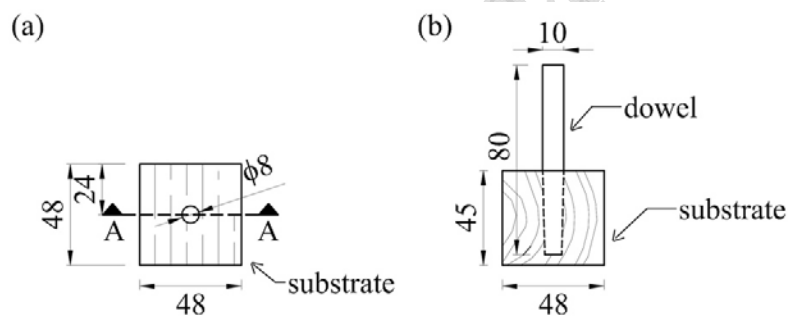
102 **Figure 1:** Schematic representation of 1st phase sample (dimensions in mm) (a) top
103 view; (b) front view.

104 The RFW process consisted of inserting the dowels into the pre-drilled holes machined in
105 the substrates to a depth of 40 mm, using a Charles MVC 955 machining center. The dowel
106 rotation and feed rate were 1000 rpm and 500 mm/min (Viana *et al.* 2021), respectively,
107 resulting in a welding time of 5 s.

108 After the RFW process, the sample was split into five specimens maintaining the dowels
109 centered in the top position (Figure 1). Subsequently, they were exposed to the ambient
110 temperature and humidity of the laboratory environment for 15 days, to recover the MC lost
111 during the RFW process. Following the stabilization period, samples were taken from the
112 specimens, exposing the welded interface and the unwelded wood, which is named the
113 reference wood in this paper.

114 Specimens for macrostructural analysis

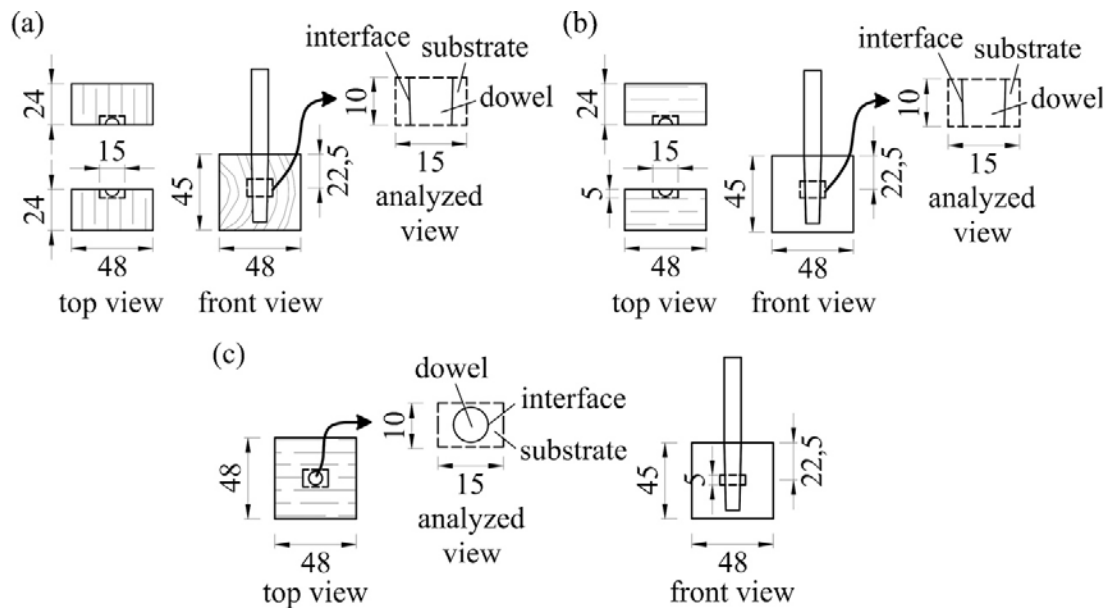
115 Three wood specimens measuring 48 mm × 24 mm × 45 mm were used for the
116 macrostructural analysis. They were obtained from a cut perpendicular to the fibers and
117 tangential to the growth rings, as illustrated in Figure 2.



118 **Figure 2:** Specimens for visual evaluation (dimensions in mm) (a) top view; (b) front view
119 cut A-A.

120 Specimens for microstructural analysis

121 Three wood specimens measuring 15 mm × 10 mm × 5 mm were used for the
122 microstructural analysis (Figure 3). They contained part of the dowel, the welded interface,
123 and the substrate, which were extracted from three specimens of 48 mm × 24 mm × 45 mm.
124 The first specimen (1S) was obtained from a cut perpendicular to the fibers and tangential to
125 the growth rings (Figure 3a), while the second (2S) and the third (3S) specimens were
126 obtained from a cut parallel to the fibers in the tangential and the radial directions to the
127 growth rings, respectively (figures 3b and 3c).



128 **Figure 3:** Specimens for SEM test (dimensions in mm) (a) 1S; (b) 2S; (c) 3S.

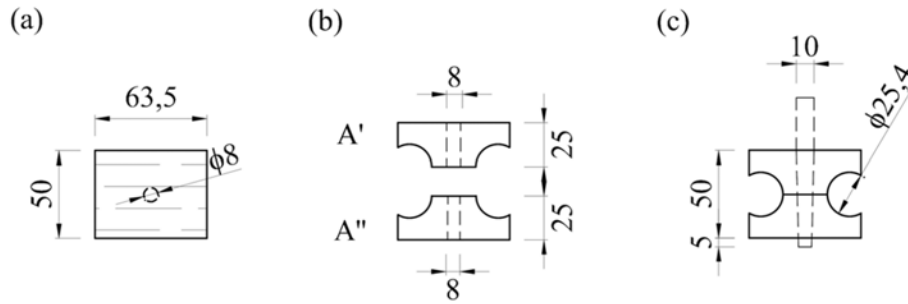
129 **Samples and specimens for thermochemical analysis**

130 The reference and welded interface specimens, measuring approximately 15 mm × 10 mm
131 × 1 mm, were used for the ATR-FTIR test. The reference and welded interface powdered
132 samples, obtained by scrapping the surface of the specimens, were used for the XRD (100
133 mg), TG (10 mg) and DSC (5 mg) tests.

134 **Samples and specimens (2nd phase)**

135 The 2nd phase consisted in determining the mechanical strength of two-piece eucalyptus
136 joints. The sample were composed of 5 specimens (1M-5M) formed by the substrate (944
137 kg/m³ ± 74 kg/m³) and the dowel (861 kg/m³ ± 67 kg/m³), both eucalyptus wood. They were
138 produced using smooth dowels (10 mm in diameter and 80 mm in length) and two-piece
139 substrates (63,5 mm × 50 mm × 50 mm), whose dimensions were based on ABNT NBR 7190
140 (1997) standard for transverse tensile testing, equivalent to ASTM D143 (2021) standard
141 (Figure 4).

142



143 **Figure 4:** Schematic representation of 2nd phase specimen (dimensions in mm) (a) top
 144 view; (b) front view before RFW; (c) front view after RFW.

145

146 The dowels and substrates were conditioned at 20 °C ± 2 °C and 60 % ± 5 % relative
 147 humidity (RH) (ISO 13061–17 2017) before the RFW process, to maintain 12 % MC. Holes
 148 of 8 mm diameter were machined in the radial-tangential plane of the substrates,
 149 perpendicularly to the fibers and tangentially to the growth rings. Subsequently, the dowels
 150 were welded by rotary friction into the pre-drilled holes, to a depth of 55 mm. The RFW
 151 parameters were the same adopted in the 1st phase, resulting in a welding time of 7 s. Later,
 152 the specimens were conditioned at the same temperature and RH for 7 days for MC recovery.

153 **Macrostructural analysis**

154 The macrostructural analysis of 1st phase specimens consisted of evaluating the RFW
 155 process, the arrangement of substrate growth rings, the color of the welded interface and the
 156 dowel and pre-drilled hole shapes resulting from the RFW process.

157 **Tapered dowel measurements**

158 The taper rate of the dowels was determined from the largest and smallest diameters of
 159 the dowel, measured using a caliper with an accuracy of 0,01 mm. It is expressed by Eq. 1
 160 (Smid 2003).

$$X = \frac{D - d}{L} \cdot 100, \quad (1)$$

161 where X is the dowel taper rate, in %; D and d are the largest and the smallest diameters of

162 the dowel, in mm, respectively, and L is the insertion depth of the dowel, in mm.

163 **Microstructural analysis**

164 The microstructural analysis consisted of capturing images of the welded interface using
165 a JEOL JSM-6390LV scanning electron microscope, with an accelerating voltage between
166 0,5 kV and 30 kV. The specimens were dried in an oven at 40 °C to remove residual moisture,
167 which could influence the quality of the SEM micrographs. Subsequently, they were fixed in
168 stubs, coated with gold in a sputtering system, placed in a sample holder, and then placed in
169 the SEM.

170 **Thermochemical analysis**

171 **ATR-FTIR**

172 For the ATR-FTIR analysis, the specimens were placed directly on the crystal of an
173 Agilent Cary 660 FTIR spectrometer, with an ATR accessory (ZnSe crystal). The spectra
174 were obtained at a range of wavenumbers between 4000 cm^{-1} and 650 cm^{-1} , with a resolution
175 of 4 cm^{-1} , recording an average of 32 sweeps. The spectra were normalized from 0 to 1 (Faix
176 1991).

177 **XRD**

178 For the XRD analysis, the samples were placed in a silicon zero background crystal
179 sample holders, which were prepared by front pressing using a glass slide. Subsequently,
180 they were placed in an X'Pert Pro X-ray diffractometer (PANalytical) PW3040/60. The
181 equipment operated at 45 kV and 40 mA, with CuK α radiation and a wavelength of 1,5418
182 Å. XRD measurements were recorded by an X'Celerator detector equipped with a graphite
183 monochromator in a scanning range of 5° - 55° (2 θ) and a step size of 0,042° (2 θ). A knife
184 was used to reduce low-angle air scattering.

185 The empirical cellulose crystallinity index (CI) was determined by the most commonly
186 used methodology in literature, the Segal method (Segal *et al.* 1959). After baseline
187 subtraction, it was calculated by Eq. 2. In addition, the apparent crystallite size (L) was
188 calculated using Scherrer equation (Eq. 3) (Navi and Sandberg 2011).

$$CI = \frac{I_{200} - I_{am}}{I_{200}} \cdot 100, \quad (2)$$

189 where CI is the cellulose crystallinity index (%), I_{200} is the maximum intensity of the 200
190 lattice diffraction and I_{am} is the intensity of the amorphous band ($2\theta = 18^\circ$).

$$L = \frac{0,9 \cdot \lambda}{\beta \cdot \cos \theta}, \quad (3)$$

191
192 where L is the apparent crystallite size (nm), λ is the X-ray wavelength (0,15418 nm), β is
193 the half-height width of the diffraction band and θ is the Bragg angle corresponding to the
194 (200) plane.

195 **TG**

196 For the TG analysis, the samples were placed in alumina capsules and then in a NETZSCH
197 STA 449-F3 Jupiter thermal analyzer, where they were heated in a nitrogen atmosphere at a
198 flow rate of 60 ml/min and temperature rate of 10 °C/min, from 23 °C to 800 °C.

199 **DSC**

200 For the DSC analysis, the samples were placed in alumina capsules and then in a Jade-
201 DSC Perkin Elmer differential scanning calorimeter, where they were heated in a nitrogen
202 atmosphere at a flow rate of 50 ml/min and temperature rate of 10 °C/min, from 20 °C to 400
203 °C.

204

205

206 **Mechanical tensile tests**

207 For the mechanical analysis, the specimens were placed in an Instron 5569 universal
208 testing machine, in which they were subjected to a tensile force parallel to the dowel wood
209 fibers and perpendicular to the substrate wood fibers. The applied load increased
210 monotonically, due to the crossbar displacement at a rate of 2 mm/min, until the joint rupture.
211 Later, the shear engaged by tensile pullout of the dowel was determined from the ratio
212 between the maximum force verified in the tensile test and the welded interface area of piece
213 A", where the joint breaks. It is expressed by Equation 3 (Viana *et al.* 2022b).

$$\tau = \frac{F_{max}}{\pi \cdot d \cdot h}, \quad (3)$$

214

215 where τ is the shear stress, in MPa; F_{max} is the maximum force, in N; d is the pre-drilled hole
216 diameter (8 mm); h is the piece A" height, in mm.

217 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

218 **Macrostructural analysis**

219 During the RFW process, some events were observed: the smoke emissions, which are,
220 according to Omrani *et al.* (2008), water vapour, CO₂ and degradation compounds from
221 carbohydrates, mainly hemicelluloses, and lignin (Figure 5); the darkening of the welded
222 interface; and the wear of the dowel and the pre-drilled hole. As stated in Yin *et al.* (2022),
223 these events are due to the contact pressure between the dowel and the pre-hole surfaces and
224 the high temperatures reached during this process, which intensity depends on the RFW
225 parameters adopted and the welding time.

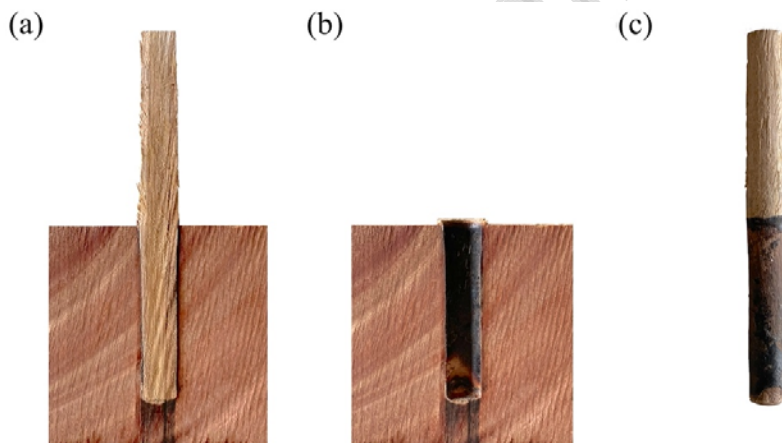
226 The cross-sections of a specimen, before and after the extraction of the dowel, are
227 illustrated in Figure 6. During the dowel insertion in the substrate, it passed through regions

228 with distinct anatomical and physical characteristics (Figure 6a), since the arrangement of
229 the growth rings in the cross-section is not symmetrical to the pre-hole axis.

230



231 **Figure 5:** Welding process.



232 **Figure 6:** Sectioned specimen after RFW (a) dowel and substrate; (b) substrate; (c) dowel.

233 The darkening of the dowel/substrate interface (Figure 6b) is due to hydrolysis of
234 hemicelluloses, reactions of sugars with amino acids and condensation and oxidation of
235 lignin phenolic compounds (Peña 2018). The pre-drilled hole and the dowel, originally
236 cylindrical, assume a conical shape due to their wear (Figure 6c). As the dowel is inserted
237 into the pre-drilled hole, its diameter reduces gradually, while the pre-drilled hole diameter

238 increases. Thus, the dowels had an average taper rate of 4,2 % and a standard deviation of
239 0,1 %.

240 **Microstructural analysis**

241 The scanning electron micrographs of 1S, 2S and 3S specimens are illustrated in Figure
242 7. The micrographs show that the RFW of eucalyptus wood reproduces the behavior
243 described in the literature for other wood species, even had a higher average apparent density
244 ($938 \text{ kg/m}^3 \pm 12 \text{ kg/m}^3$). There is a space between the dowel/substrate interface (figures 7a
245 and 7b), as reported by Properzi *et al.* (2005) when welding *Fagus sylvatica* hardwood (450
246 kg/m^3 - 600 kg/m^3). Figure 6c shows an intercellular material adhered to the substrate
247 interface, which is composed mainly of lignin present in the middle lamella of the wood,
248 keeping the cells interconnected, as reported by Gfeller *et al.* (2003) when welding *F.*
249 *sylvatica*.

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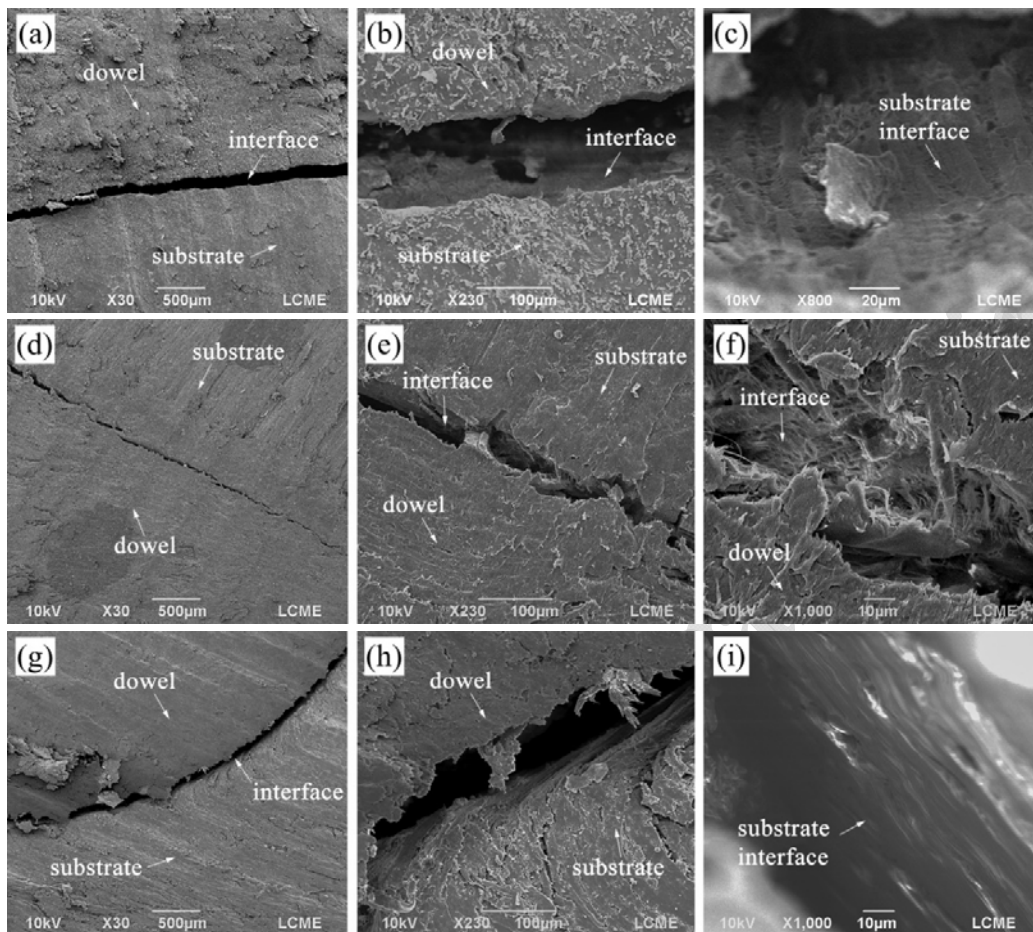
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264 **Figure 7:** Scanning electron micrographs of welded interfaces (a-c) 1S specimen; (d-f) 2S
265 specimen; (g-i) 3S specimen.

266

267 For the RFW parameters adopted, the wood fibers intertwined at the interface and formed
268 a microstructure responsible for joining the dowel and the substrate, providing mechanical
269 strength to the joint (Zhu *et al.* 2017b) (figures 7d-f). Hongda *et al.* (2022) reported a similar
270 behavior when welding *Phyllostachys edulis* (680 kg/m³) bamboo dowels in European spruce
271 (700 kg/m³) substrates, with feed rates of 200 mm/min, 600 mm/min and 800 mm/min.

272 The fibers at the edge of the substrate interface flowed in the direction of rotational
273 movement, due to the forced insertion of the dowel and the consequent increase in

274 temperature (figures 7g-h) (Pizzi *et al.* 2004). Figure 7i illustrates the deformation and the
275 densification of wood cells at the substrate interface due to the contact pressure and the
276 heating induced by the RFW process. According to Leban *et al.* (2004), this contributes to
277 the welded joint strength.

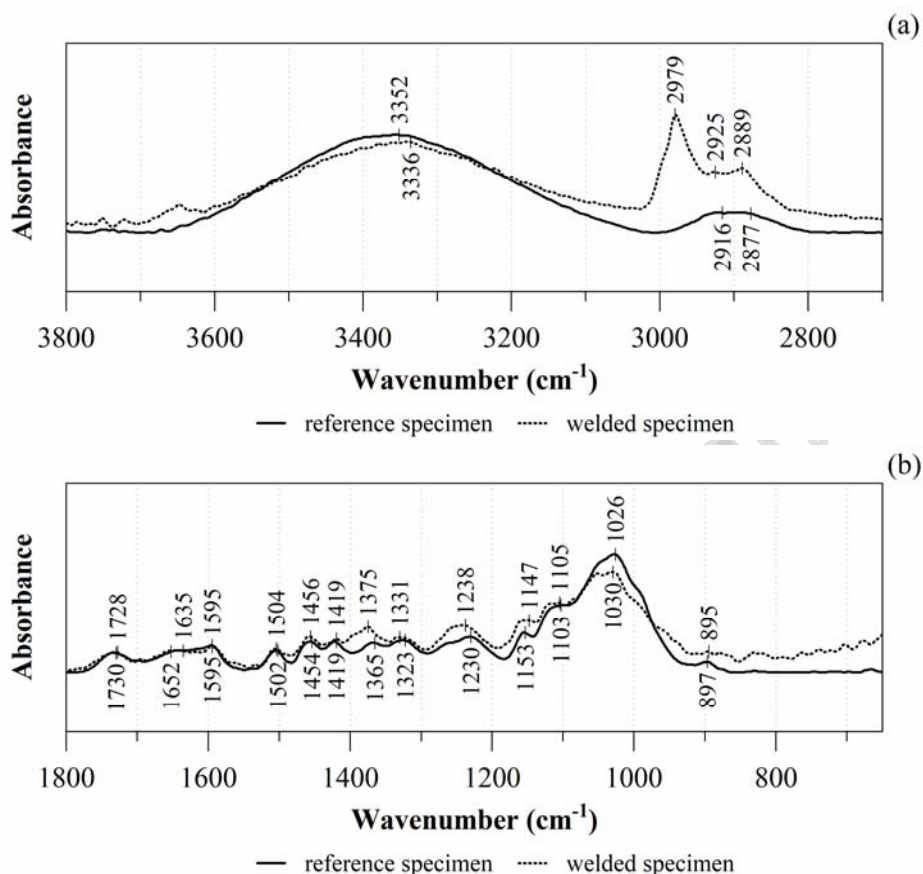
278 **Thermochemical analysis**

279 **ATR-FTIR**

280 The ATR-FTIR spectra of reference and welded wood specimens are illustrated in Figure
281 8. The shape of the spectra is similar to those obtained by Belleville *et al.* (2018) when
282 welding Australian *E. saligna* and *E. pilularis* with a rotation of 1230 rpm and a dowel/pre-
283 drilled hole diameter ratio of 1,26. These parameters are similar to those adopted in this
284 research.

285 The main changes resulting from the RFW process are verified in the 3600 cm^{-1} - 2800
286 cm^{-1} and 1500 cm^{-1} - 850 cm^{-1} bands. The 3600 cm^{-1} - 3100 cm^{-1} band corresponds to the
287 stretching of hydroxyl groups (O-H) (Delmotte *et al.* 2008). The low peak at 3336 cm^{-1} , for
288 the welded specimen, is due to dehydration reactions, caused by water loss during the RFW
289 process (Kanazawa *et al.* 2005, Esteves *et al.* 2013). This change increases dimensional

290 stability by reducing hygroscopicity and water absorption at the wood-welded interface
291 (Amirou *et al.* 2019).



292 **Figure 8:** ATR-FTIR spectra of the reference and welded specimens (a) 3800 cm⁻¹ -
293 2700 cm⁻¹ band; (b) 1800 cm⁻¹ - 650 cm⁻¹ band.

294 The 3000 cm⁻¹ - 2800 cm⁻¹ band is attributed to the stretching of methyl (CH₃) and
295 methylene (CH₂) groups (Esteves *et al.* 2013, Dias Jr. *et al.* 2017). The high peaks at 2979
296 cm⁻¹, 2925 cm⁻¹ and 2889 cm⁻¹, for the welded specimen, is due to changes in cellulose
297 crystallinity and lignin (Dias Jr. *et al.* 2017).

298 The 1456 cm⁻¹ - 1419 cm⁻¹ band corresponds to asymmetric C-H deformations in lignin
299 and C-H bending in cellulose (Özgenç *et al.* 2017, Kubovský *et al.* 2020). It is higher for the
300 welded specimen due to lignin alteration resulting from condensation and/or formation of
301 CH₂ bridges between lignin fragments and the increase in the amount of crystalline cellulose

302 (Belleville 2012, Kubovský *et al.* 2020). Li *et al.* (2021) observed the increase of a nearby
303 peak (1462 cm^{-1}) when welding *Phyllostachys pubescens* (680 kg/m^3) bamboo dowels in
304 *Populus* sp. (450 kg/m^3) substrates, using a rotation of 1500 rpm and a feed rate of 400
305 mm/min - 450 mm/min. The feed rate is similar to that used in this research (500 mm/min).

306 The 1380 cm^{-1} - 1300 cm^{-1} band is assigned to C-H bending in cellulose and
307 hemicelluloses (Kubovský *et al.* 2020). For the welded specimen, the 1375 cm^{-1} and 1331
308 cm^{-1} peaks are higher due to the increase of condensed structures (Esteves *et al.* 2013;
309 Kubovský *et al.* 2020). In addition, the 1331 cm^{-1} - 1323 cm^{-1} band indicates the splitting of
310 ether bonds from lignin (Belleville *et al.* 2013).

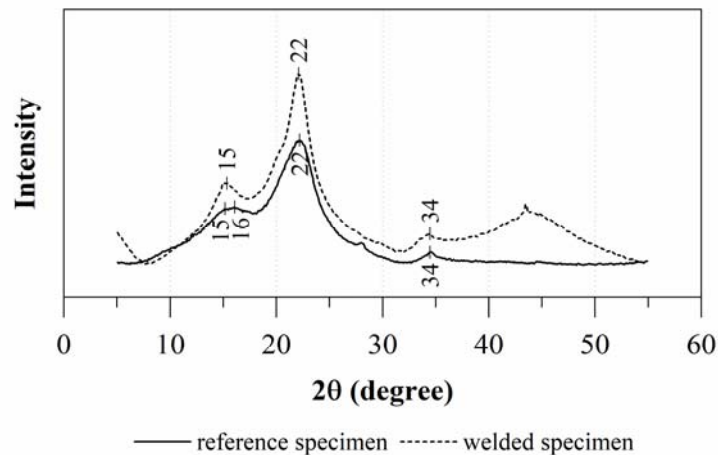
311 The peaks at 1300 cm^{-1} - 1200 cm^{-1} and 950 cm^{-1} - 850 cm^{-1} bands are more intense for
312 the welded specimen due to acetyl group splitting from hemicelluloses, causing the
313 production of acid substances in the welded interface, as reported by Belleville (2012) when
314 welding *Acer saccharum* and *Betula alleghaniensis* hardwoods with a rotation of 1230 rpm.

315 The 1200 cm^{-1} - 1000 cm^{-1} band is assigned to C-O-C stretching in cellulose,
316 hemicelluloses and lignin (Kubovský *et al.* 2020). For the welded specimen, the 1147 cm^{-1}
317 and 1105 cm^{-1} peaks are higher and the 1030 cm^{-1} peak are lower, when compared to the
318 reference specimen. The first behavior suggests dehydration reactions forming covalent
319 intermolecular bonds and the latter indicates the beginning of cellulose degradation processes
320 and the partial demethoxylation of lignin and its gradual crosslinking (Kubovský *et al.* 2020).

321 **XRD**

322 The XRD patterns of the reference and welded wood samples are illustrated in Figure 9.
323 The X-ray diffractograms are similar to those obtained by Zhu *et al.* (2017b) and by Zor *et*
324 *al.* (2021), when welding *B. pendula*, *L. Gmelinii*, *Abies bornmulleriana*, *Quercus robur* and

325 *Castanea sativa* from northern hemisphere. These patterns refer to cellulose I β (JINROO01-
326 CSD), whose main peaks are 14,9°, 16,6°, 22,9° and 34,4° (2 θ) (Groom *et al.* 2016).



327 **Figure 9:** X-ray diffractograms of the reference and welded samples.

328 The peaks are more pronounced for the welded sample. It indicates that there were changes
329 in the cellulose crystallinity, as observed in the ATR-FTIR spectra (Figure 8). This is also
330 confirmed by the cellulose CI which corresponds to 65 % and 59 % for the welded and
331 reference samples, respectively. Zhu *et al.* (2017b) reported a similar behavior when welding
332 *B. pendula* dowels in *L. gmelinii* substrates using a rotation of 1080 rpm and feed rate of 600
333 mm/min, parameters similar to those adopted in this research.

334 The apparent crystallite size (L) is 2,9 nm and 2,4 nm for the welded and reference
335 samples, respectively. The greater L and cellulose CI for the welded sample suggests that the
336 proportion of crystalline cellulose increased due to the RFW process. The contact pressure
337 and the high temperatures cause the hydrolysis of polysaccharides, the production of acid
338 substances from acetyl groups of hemicelluloses and the splitting of ether bonds from lignin,
339 as verified in the ATR-FTIR spectra (Figure 8). Consequently, a reduction in the amorphous
340 phase from the sample, since the polymers become more mobile, leaving cellulose free to
341 fuse and form larger diameter fibrils and microfibrils (Navi and Sandberg 2011). According

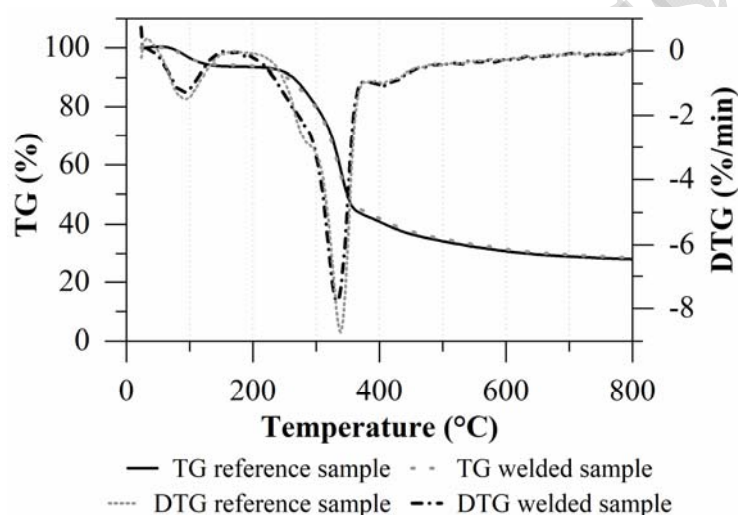
342 to Navi and Sandberg (2011), the greater L and cellulose CI, together with interface
343 densification observed in the SEM micrographs, contributes to the stiffness and strength of
344 the joint.

345 **TG**

346 The thermogravimetric behavior of the reference and welded wood samples and their first
347 derivatives (DTG) are illustrated in Figure 10. The thermal degradation process is divided
348 into three phases: dehydration, at a range from 20 °C to 200 °C; active pyrolysis, at a range
349 from 200 °C to 385 °C; and passive pyrolysis after 385 °C (Slopiecka *et al.* 2012). At the
350 initial heating temperatures, the DTG behavior of the samples shows a relative minimum due
351 to the evaporation of water and volatile wood extractives (Slopiecka *et al.* 2012, Zhu *et al.*
352 2017b). This occurs at 90 °C for the reference and welded samples, with a mass loss of 6,2
353 % and 5,8 %, respectively. The mass loss of the welded sample is 0,4 % lower, since the high
354 temperatures reached in the RFW process reduce the number of accessible OH groups, as
355 found in the ATR-FTIR test (Figure 8). Similar behavior was obtained by Zhang *et al.* (2018)
356 when welding *Betula* spp. dowels in *L. gmelinii* substrates, with welding times of 3 s, 5 s and
357 7 s and rotation of 2400 rpm. The welding times are similar to those of this research, however,
358 the rotation is much higher.

359 The DTG behavior shows a relative maximum at 153 °C, for the reference sample, and, at
360 150 °C, for the welded sample. According to Crespo *et al.* (2015), these maximum points are
361 due to the complete evaporation of water and volatile extractives. As the temperature
362 increases, the chemical bonds are broken due to dehydration reactions (Rowell 2005). At 290
363 °C, the DTG of the reference sample shows a slope change characterized by the pyrolysis of
364 hemicelluloses (Rowell 2005). It is caused by the deacetylation and by the release of acetic
365 acid and formic acid (Navi and Sandberg 2011, Poletto *et al.* 2012a), which was observed in

366 the 1238 cm^{-1} - 1230 cm^{-1} and 897 cm^{-1} - 895 cm^{-1} bands of the ATR-FTIR spectra (Figure
367 8). The DTG of the welded sample does not show a slope change, since part of hemicelluloses
368 was decomposed during RFW (Stamm *et al.* 2006). According to Poletto *et al.* (2012b), the
369 susceptibility of hemicelluloses to thermal decomposition can be attributed to its random
370 amorphous structure, which is easily hydrolyzed. Zhu *et al.* (2017a) reported similar
371 temperatures for the pyrolysis of hemicelluloses, between 227 °C and 327 °C, when welding
372 *Betula* spp. and *L. gmelinii* woods, with a rotation of 1000 rpm. The same rotation used in
373 this research.



374 **Figure 10:** TG/DTG thermograms of the reference and welded samples.

375 The DTG behavior shows a relative minimum around 335 °C due to the pyrolysis of
376 cellulose, which is less intense for the welded sample. This is probably caused by chemical
377 changes in the amorphous regions of microfibrils during the RFW process (Sun *et al.* 2010).
378 At 348 °C, the reference and welded samples lost 50 % of their mass. Belleville *et al.* (2018)
379 obtained similar results when welding *E. pilularis* (345 °C).

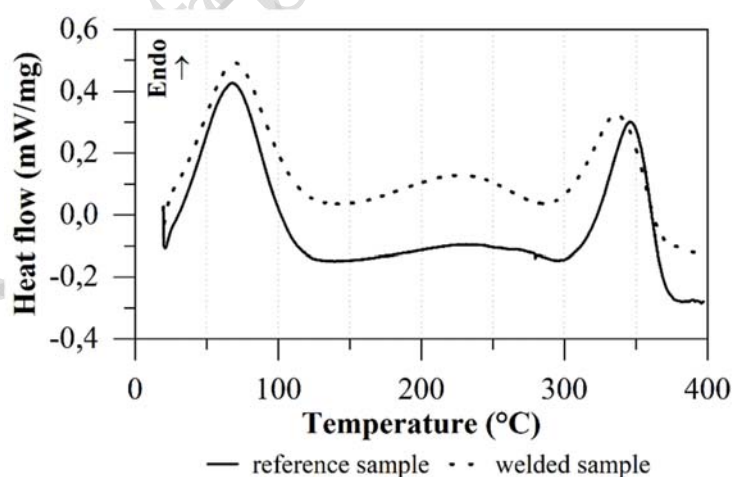
380 Between 350 °C and 800 °C, the samples show a continuous and slow mass loss due to
381 lignin pyrolysis, which occurs in a wide temperature range (Crespo *et al.* 2015). This results
382 in a more condensed structure, as verified in the ATR-FTIR test, which contributes to the

383 mechanical strength of the welded joint (Sun *et al.* 2010). In this temperature range, the mass
384 loss is less pronounced for the welded sample, since the chemical reactions during RFW
385 increase the complexity and the thermal stability of polymers at the welded interface
386 (Belleville *et al.* 2018).

387 The extractives, mainly volatiles, degrade between 150 °C and 600 °C, causing the
388 emergence of new extractable compounds, resulting from the thermal decomposition of cell
389 wall structural components of the wood (Esteves and Pereira 2009; Zhu *et al.* 2018).

390 DSC

391 The thermograms, represented in Figure 11, illustrate the DSC behavior of the reference
392 and welded wood samples. The relative maximum (endothermic) peaks, between 20 °C - 125
393 °C, 160 °C - 285 °C and 300 °C - 375 °C, are due to volatilization and tar formation processes
394 (Strezov *et al.* 2003, Ball *et al.* 2004). Between 125 °C - 160 °C, 285 °C - 300 °C and after
395 375 °C, the relative minimums (exothermic) are derived from the decomposition and
396 carbonization of wood compounds (Strezov *et al.* 2003, Ball *et al.* 2004).



397 **Figure 11:** DSC thermograms of the reference and welded samples.

398

399 In general, the temperature and the intensity of the relative maximum and minimum are
400 lower for the welded sample than the reference sample. This behavior indicates that the RFW
401 process causes changes in the chemical composition of the welded interface, as noticed by
402 the XRD results (cellulose crystallinity). Sun *et al.* (2010) also reported a reduction in the
403 intensity of relative maximum (exothermic) peaks when welding *B. alleghaniensis*
404 hardwood.

405 The first relative maximum (endothermic) peak, at 68 °C, for the reference sample, and,
406 at 70 °C, for the welded sample, is due to the water evaporation (Strezov *et al.* 2003, Poletto
407 2016). The heat flow intensity for the welded sample is 9 % lower than that of the reference
408 sample. This lower intensity is due to the loss of OH groups caused by high temperatures
409 reached during the RFW process. Pereira (2017) also verified the reduction in intensity of
410 the endothermic peak between 50 °C and 100 °C, after heating *E. urophylla* wood, up to 260
411 °C.

412 As the temperature increases, the wood polymers soften, mainly hemicelluloses, which
413 are more susceptible to high temperatures (Vaziri and Sandberg 2021). At 140 °C, the DSC
414 thermograms show a first relative minimum (exothermic) hump assigned to the complete
415 evaporation of free and adsorbed water present in the wood (Esteves and Pereira 2009).

416 A secondary relative maximum (endothermic) peak is observed at 231 °C, for the
417 reference sample, and, at 225 °C, for the welded sample. It is characterized by the degradation
418 of lignin and, mainly, hemicelluloses, due to their thermal decomposition (Strezov *et al.*
419 2003, Poletto 2016, Wulfhorst *et al.* 2016). The intensity of the heat flow at this peak is 44
420 % higher for the welded sample than for the reference sample, since the intercellular material
421 at the welded interface has more lignin condensed structures, as verified in the ATR-FTIR
422 test (Pizzi *et al.* 2006, Stamm *et al.* 2006).

423 A second relative minimum (exothermic) hump is observed at 294 °C for the reference
424 sample and, at 286 °C, for the welded sample. It is attributed to the primary pyrolysis of
425 hemicelluloses and the consequent formation of furfurals and acetic acids (Strezov *et al.*
426 2003, Yang *et al.* 2007), since hemicelluloses are the least thermally stable and, therefore,
427 more susceptible to thermal degradation caused by RFW (Stamm *et al.* 2006).

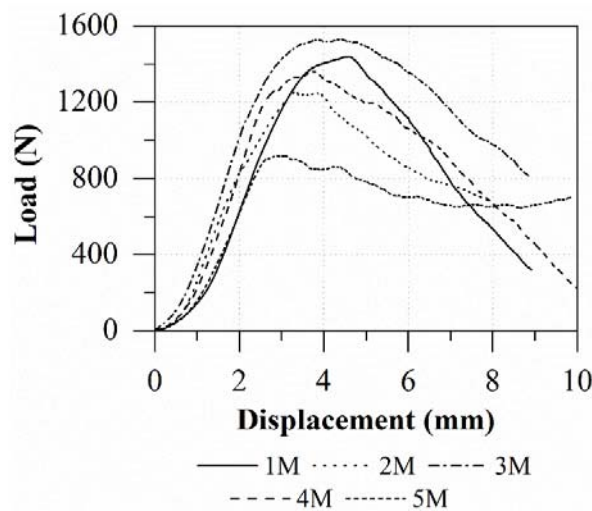
428 Increasing the temperature, a third relative maximum (endothermic) peak is observed at
429 346 °C, for the reference sample, and, at 336 °C, for the welded sample. This peak is due to
430 the pyrolysis of cellulose, caused by depolymerization, decomposition, and volatilization
431 (Lee *et al.* 2003, Yang *et al.* 2007, Wulfhorst *et al.* 2016). Its temperature and intensity reduce
432 after RFW, indicating that part of cellulose, mainly amorphous fraction, is decomposed
433 during the RFW process (Sun 2010, Zhu *et al.* 2017b), as observed in the ATR-FTIR and
434 TG/DTG results. Khalimov *et al.* (2019) reported very similar behavior for birch wood, with
435 690 kg/m³ (Meier 2021), when comparing a reference sample and a pyrolyzed wood sample.

436 The enthalpy of fusion of cellulose corresponds to 18,2 J/g and 15,1 J/g for the reference
437 and welded samples, respectively. The enthalpy value is lower after welding, probably due
438 to the partial degradation of cellulose during RFW of the wood (Zhu *et al.* 2017a). Above
439 375 °C, the heat flow of the DSC thermograms starts to decrease due to the condensation
440 reactions (Tsujiyama *et al.* 2000).

441 **Mechanical strength**

442 The load × displacement curves of 1M to 5M specimens are illustrated in Figure 12. An
443 almost linear increase in force is observed, until reaching the maximum load. Subsequently,
444 there is a gradual failure of the joint, characterizing a ductile rupture. Belleville (2012)
445 reported the same behavior for *B. alleghaniensis* dowels welded unidirectionally in two-piece
446 substrates of the same species, which is a hardwood as eucalyptus species.

447 The welded surface strength of eucalyptus specimens is presented in Table 2. The average
 448 strength and the coefficient of variation are 2,1 MPa and 18 %, respectively. The variation in
 449 the results may be related to the wood heterogeneity, since Belleville *et al.* (2016) obtained
 450 similar coefficients of variation (10 % to 25 %) when welding *E. saligna* and *E. pilularis* by
 451 rotary friction, with a rotation of 1000 rpm.



452 **Figure 12:** Load × displacement curve.

453 **Table 2:** Shear strength of eucalypts specimens.

Specimen	1M	2M	3M	4M	5M	Mean	Standard deviation
Shear strength (MPa)	2,3	2,0	2,4	2,1	1,5	2,1	0,4

454
 455 Schneid and Moraes (2016) obtained an average strength of 3,0 MPa when welding *E.*
 456 *saligna* dowels (12 mm in diameter) into pre-drilled holes (10 mm in diameter) machined in
 457 *Eucalyptus* spp. (794 kg/m³) substrates composed by two pieces, to a depth of 50 mm. The
 458 rotation and the feed rate were 1750 rpm and 750 mm/min, respectively. The strength is 30
 459 % greater than that obtained in this research. This may be due to the different adopted RFW
 460 parameters.

461 Viana *et al.* (2022a) reported an average strength of 0,7 MPa when welding *Mezilaurus*
462 *itauba* ($824 \text{ kg/m}^3 \pm 8 \text{ kg/m}^3$) dowels with 10 mm in diameter into pre-drilled holes, with 8
463 mm in diameter, machined in *Pinus taeda* ($606 \text{ kg/m}^3 \pm 10 \text{ kg/m}^3$) substrates composed of
464 two pieces, to a depth of 55 mm. The rotation, the feed rate and the dowel/pre-drilled hole
465 were 1000 rpm, 500 mm/min and 1,25, respectively. The strength is 67 % lower than that
466 obtained in this research, probably, due to the different dowel and substrate wood species,
467 since the RFW parameters are the same adopted in this research.

468 The results obtained in this research demonstrate the potential of fast-growing eucalypts
469 woods, from Brazilian planted forests, to be welded adopting RFW parameters similar to
470 those used for Australian eucalypts and northern hemisphere woods. However, further
471 studies should focus on determining the optimal RFW parameters to obtain the best
472 mechanical performance of the joint.

473

474 CONCLUSIONS

475 In this research, eucalypts RFW joints from Brazilian planted forests were evaluated based
476 on the macro and microstructural, thermochemical and mechanical analyses. The results
477 allow us to conclude that:

- 478 • the adopted RFW parameters contribute to the densification of the welded interface and
479 the formation of a structure responsible for joining the dowel and the substrate,
480 providing mechanical strength to the joint;
- 481 • the cellulose CI and the apparent crystallite size of the eucalypts welded sample are
482 greater due to thermal degradation of amorphous components;
- 483 • the rupture of eucalypts welded joints is ductile and their average strength is 2,1 MPa;

- 484 • welded joints of fast-growing eucalypts, from Brazilian planted forests, have suitable
485 strength when the RFW parameters are similar to those used for eucalypts woods from
486 Australian forests.

487

488 **AUTHORSHIP CONTRIBUTIONS**

489 A. C. C. V.: Conceptualization, data curation, formal analysis, investigation, methodology,
490 writing – original draft, writing – review & editing; P. D. M.: Conceptualization,
491 methodology, project administration, supervision, writing – original draft, writing – review
492 & editing; W. L. W.: Project administration, supervision, writing – review & editing.

493

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500 Applications in Civil Construction (NANOTEC-UFSC) for technical support during RFW
501 process and SEM, ATR-FTIR, XRD, TG, DSC and tensile tests.

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