

## Journal of Chromatography A 1186 (2008) 51-66

**Publisher:** ELSEVIER SCIENCE BV, PO BOX 211, 1000 AE AMSTERDAM, NETHERLANDS

**Subject Category:** Biochemical Research Methods; Chemistry, Analytical

**ISSN:** 0021-9673

**DOI:** 10.1016/j.chroma.2007.10.017

[http://www.sciencedirect.com/science?\\_ob=ArticleURL&\\_udi=B6TG8-4PW5XKX-B&\\_user=2347467&\\_coverDate=04%2F04%2F2008&\\_alid=1140654144&\\_rdoc=7&\\_fmt=high&\\_orig=search&\\_cdi=5248&\\_sort=r&\\_docanchor=&view=c&\\_ct=23&\\_acct=C000057013&\\_version=1&\\_urlVersion=0&\\_userid=2347467&md5=11ac917792a9fc539aa38c5d1263b4d1](http://www.sciencedirect.com/science?_ob=ArticleURL&_udi=B6TG8-4PW5XKX-B&_user=2347467&_coverDate=04%2F04%2F2008&_alid=1140654144&_rdoc=7&_fmt=high&_orig=search&_cdi=5248&_sort=r&_docanchor=&view=c&_ct=23&_acct=C000057013&_version=1&_urlVersion=0&_userid=2347467&md5=11ac917792a9fc539aa38c5d1263b4d1)

## Review

## Recent trends and developments in pyrolysis-gas chromatography

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**Abstract**

Pyrolysis-gas chromatography (Py-GC) has become well established as a simple, quick and reliable analytical technique for a range of applications including the analysis of polymeric materials. Recent developments in Py-GC technology and instrumentation include laser pyrolysis and non-discriminating pyrolysis. Progress has also been made in the detection of low level polymer additives with the use of novel Py-GC devices. Furthermore, it has been predicted that future advances in separation technology such as the use of comprehensive two-dimensional gas chromatography will further enhance the analytical scope of Py-GC.

**Keywords:** Pyrolysis; GC; Polymers; Laser pyrolysis; Non-discriminating pyrolysis; Polymer additives

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## 15 **1. Introduction**

17 Pyrolysis has been used extensively over the last 20 to 30 years as an analytical technique in which  
18 large molecules are degraded into smaller volatiles species using only thermal energy. The ultimate  
19 objective of analytical pyrolysis is to use the chromatographic information of pyrolysis products to  
20 determine the composition or structure of the original sample. The complexity of polymeric materials  
21 can vary extensively and they can be very challenging to analyse. Pyrolysis, combined with modern  
22 analytical methods, such as gas chromatography and/or mass spectrometry (Py-GC/MS) has become a  
23 quick, convenient and powerful tool for characterising polymers from involatile, complex  
24 heterogeneous samples. Previous reviews on Py-GC instrumentation, methods and applications were  
25 published by Wampler [1] and Wang [2] in 1999 and Moldoveanu [3] in 2001. Since this time there  
26 have been major instrumental developments in laser pyrolysis systems and non-discriminating  
27 pyrolysis techniques as well as progress in the use of Py-GC for the detection of low level additives in  
28 polymers. This review mainly covers the period from 1999 to 2007 but also included are references to  
29 literature before this period that appear not to have been covered in previous reviews.

## 32 **2. Pyrolysis-GC technique**

### 34 *2.1 Instrumental configuration*

36 The standard configuration of a pyrolysis-GC instrument has been discussed previously and largely  
37 remains the same in that the pyrolysis device, or pyrolyzer, is interfaced with the analytical column of  
38 the GC via the injection port [2]. A flow of inert gas, such as nitrogen or helium, flushes the  
39 pyrolyzates into the column, where components are separated. As discussed by Wampler, capillary  
40 columns offer the advantage over packed columns of higher resolution [1]. The detection method used  
41 is typically mass spectrometry but other GC detectors have also been employed depending on the  
42 intentions of the analysis. Nevertheless, instrument configuration is often varied. Newly developed  
43 thermal analysis equipment designed to enhance performance may replace existing ones or be  
44 incorporated in order to meet specific applications. Such developments include the use of lasers as a  
45 fragmentation source and more recently a technique called in-column or non-discriminating pyrolysis,  
46 all of which are discussed in detail below. This constant refinement of instrumental devices and  
47 parameters during the past 20 years provides an expansive record on the pyrolysis of polymers.

1 2.1.1 *Types of pyrolyzers*

2  
3 The three most commonly used and recognised pyrolyzers for GC are the microfurnace, Curie-point  
4 and resistively heated filament [1-2,4-6].

5 The microfurnace rapidly raises the temperature of the sample until the pyrolysis temperature is  
6 reached and then maintains this temperature for the desired pyrolysis time. The samples are either  
7 injected or dropped into the pyrolysis zone by liquid syringe, solid plunger syringe or by using a small  
8 cup. The desired characteristics of this type of pyrolyzer, such as reproducibility, have always been  
9 difficult to develop [4]. Although much improved, most available furnaces still suffer from the relative  
10 drawback of rise times of several seconds [7]. Tsuge et al. developed a multifunctional microfurnace  
11 pyrolyzer for pyrolysis-GC and evolved gas analysis of various synthetic and natural materials [5,8].  
12 The system was composed of a double shot microfurnace pyrolyzer with a sophisticated temperature-  
13 control device; a GC equipped with an ultrahigh-temperature metal, chemically inert capillary  
14 separation column; and a quadrupole MS with an electron impact (EI) and/or chemical ionization (CI)  
15 source. It proved to be a very effective tool for a wider range of applications including, the structural  
16 characterisation of copolymer-type polycarbonates (PCs), the determination of flame-retardant  
17 mechanisms of PC, trace determination of stabilizers, the rapid characterisation of natural products, and  
18 forensic identification of various drugs and oils.

19 Curie-point pyrolyzers accurately reproduce pyrolysis conditions using ferromagnetic metals. The  
20 sample, which is positioned on to the end of a pyrolysis wire made from an appropriate ferromagnetic  
21 alloy, is inserted into the pyrolyzer and rapidly heated using a high frequency induction coil. The  
22 temperature ceases to rise when the Curie-point of the metal has been reached; that is the exact  
23 reproducible temperature at which the ferromagnetic material loses its magnetism. At this point the  
24 temperature remains constant until the coil is switched off [7]. In contrast to the microfurnace, the rise  
25 time of Curie-point pyrolyzers is much quicker from 0.2 to 0.4 seconds. However, the choice of  
26 different pyrolysis temperatures is limited since they are determined by the Curie-points of available  
27 materials [9]. Buco et al. used Curie-point Py-GC/MS for the determination of polyaromatic  
28 hydrocarbons (PAHs) in contaminated soil [10]. The technique proved particularly effective for low-  
29 molecular-mass PAHs but lacked in sensitivity for quantification of high-molecular-mass PAHs. It  
30 demanded a short operating time and required no extraction solvent. In addition, the results showed  
31 good accuracy for the measured PAHs when compared with a certified soil.

32 Filament pyrolyzers can acquire a controlled pyrolysis temperature extremely quickly by using a  
33 piece of resistive metal. An initial pulse of heating at a high voltage produces a current through the  
34 metal causing the filament to heat rapidly until the programmed pyrolysis temperature is reached. The  
35 pyrolysis temperature is maintained by reducing the voltage. Various commercial models of the  
36 Pyroprobe appear to be the most widely used filament pyrolyzer. Samples that are soluble in a volatile  
37 solvent are pyrolysed using a ribbon probe, those that are not are heated using a coil probe [4]. Whilst  
38 samples are added directly onto the ribbon probe, quartz tubes are used to hold the samples before  
39 being inserted into the coil probe. With regards to the latter, the exact pyrolysis reaction time is  
40 difficult to determine since the sample never comes into direct contact with the filament [9].  
41 Reproducibility with this system is very good providing that care is taken to ensure consistency with  
42 sample size and positioning [4,11].

43 Heated filament and Curie-point pyrolysis result in less secondary pyrolysis products compared to  
44 furnace pyrolysis and thus, the resulting pyrograms are easier to interpret. A major disadvantage exists  
45 with all three conventional pyrolyzers in that because they are mounted external to the GC system, they  
46 are prone to the deposition of higher-boiling point pyrolyzates and condensation of reaction products in  
47 the transfer line. This often results in sample losses and discrimination of high-molecular weight  
48 components [9,12].

1  
2 *2.1.2 Importance of pyrolysis-GC interface*  
3

4 The rapid and efficient transfer of pyrolysis products from the pyrolysis zone to the GC column is  
5 vital in order to attain good peak resolution. The interfacing of these two devices is therefore very  
6 important. Several parameters for the pyrolyzer have been identified in order to achieve this [1]. The  
7 pyrolyzer needs to heat the sample as instantaneously as possible to prevent drawn out transfer of the  
8 pyrolyzates through the injection port. It also needs to have a small internal volume and a rapid carrier  
9 flow to make sure all of the volatiles are swept out and onto the column and are not left in the hot zone  
10 to undergo secondary pyrolysis. Finally, a small sample size is essential to ensure that all of it degrades  
11 rapidly, and that the column capacity is not exceeded. At too large a sample size, parts of the sample  
12 may pyrolyze before others affecting reproducibility. As a result of these operating conditions,  
13 interfacing between the pyrolyzer and the GC injection port should be kept minimal to reduce the  
14 surface area and volume through which the pyrolyzate compounds travel. It should also be kept hot  
15 and insulated to eliminate cold spots and prevent condensation reactions.

16 The above conditions are not always attainable or suitable for particular experiments and variations  
17 always occur. For example, lower temperatures are often used to study the degradation kinetics of a  
18 material i.e. its thermal stability and degradation mechanisms.  
19  
20

21 *2.1.3 Types of detectors*  
22

23 The purpose of a detector used in conjunction with pyrolysis-GC is to monitor the carrier gas as it  
24 leaves the column and respond to changes in its composition as solutes are eluted. Ideally a detector  
25 should show a rapid response time, a wide range of linear response and high sensitivity. Mass  
26 Spectrometry continues to be the most widely used detector in qualitative and quantitative polymer  
27 analysis. The main advantage with MS is that it preserves the complex patterns of the initial sample by  
28 means of a mass spectrum corresponding to each peak in the GC profile, therefore allowing for the  
29 characterisation of polymers, the identification of additives and contaminants in polymeric samples and  
30 the determination of degradation mechanisms. The different methods of sample ionization available  
31 for MS allow for different degrees of fragmentation of the sample. Electron impact ionization involves  
32 the bombardment of sample molecules with high energy electrons and is the usual choice for the  
33 identification and structural analysis of complex macromolecules because it results in a higher degree  
34 of dissociation. Chemical ionization has also been used in polymer analysis for much gentler, more  
35 selective ionization whereby much less dissociation into ions of smaller mass occurs. Recently an  
36 alternative selective ionization method, metastable atom bombardment, has been reported [13-15]  
37 allowing the direct and fast insertion of samples into the mass spectrometer reducing analysis time.  
38 Quadrupole MS analysers, in particular, offer different modes by which mass spectra can be acquired  
39 depending on the purpose of the investigation. Selected ion monitoring (SIM) compared to total ion  
40 monitoring is a much more sensitive scanning mode for target compound identification. Instead of  
41 completing full scans of the chromatogram and collecting all of the ion fragments, SIM only measures  
42 and records pre-selected ions for a given retention time window. Thus if fragments were created at  $m/z$   
43 values other than those selected, data regarding those ions would not be recorded. SIM requires the  
44 retention data of compounds to perform a scan and in the case of co-eluting pyrolysis products; it is not  
45 able to distinguish between two compounds with the same mass ions and retention time.

46 Magnetic, quadrupole, ion trap and time-of-flight mass spectrometers have all been successfully  
47 coupled to conventional Py-GC instruments. The rapid analysis of polymers has specifically been  
48 achieved using time-of-flight mass spectrometry (TOF-MS) [11,13]. TOF-MS can acquire high-  
49 density data across narrow GC peaks and has proven to be a suitable detection system for fast GC

1 separations without compromising the chromatographic peak information. There is an extensive  
2 amount of literature available on the use of Py-GC/MS for a wide range of applications, some of which  
3 will be mentioned throughout this review and some of which have been reviewed in a recent paper by  
4 Peacock and McEwen [16].

5 Isotope-ratio mass spectrometry (IRMS) has also been successfully combined with Py-GC. IRMS  
6 allows for the highly precise analysis of the stable-isotopic composition of organic compounds  
7 separated by GC. All IRMS instruments work in EI mode, use a single magnetic-sector analyzer, and  
8 multiple Faraday detectors for analog measurement of ion currents. A more detailed overview and  
9 evaluation of IRMS is provided in a recent paper by Sessions [17]. Although not yet a widely used  
10 technique, Py-GC/IRMS has proven to be useful for some applications. Pel et al. performed cytometric  
11 cell sorting and compound-specific Py-GC/IRMS analysis to determine population-specific isotopic  
12 signatures and growth rates in cyanobacteria-dominated lake plankton [18]. They reported that Py-  
13 GC/IRMS was able to analyse very small samples and reduced the chances of contamination and  
14 sample loss during handling. Impressed with the resolution achieved, they also recognized the  
15 potential of Py-GC/IRMS in the future analysis of plankton dynamics. A similar study used Py-  
16 GC/IRMS to determine planktonic community structure and trophic interactions and further  
17 recommended the technique for carbon isotope-based food web studies [19]. In a more unusual study,  
18 Py-GC/IRMS was used to obtain isotopic and structural information from the macromolecular material  
19 in meteorites [20]. The results highlighted the ability of the technique to analyse milligram-sized  
20 samples without compromising the resolution. Gleixner et al. studied the individual turnover rate of  
21 specific carbohydrates, lignin, lipids and N-containing compounds from French arable soil using Curie-  
22 point Py-GC/IRMS [21]. Again its potential as a technique to analyse organic compounds was  
23 highlighted.

24 Differential mobility spectrometry (DMS) [22] and ion mobility spectrometry (IMS) [23-25] are  
25 recognized methods for the detection of chemical and biological agents (gases, vapors and aerosols) in  
26 field settings. As advanced portable instruments they are small, highly sensitive, require little power  
27 and are capable of fast analysis times. Py-GC/IMS has proved particularly useful for the detection and  
28 identification of certain degradation compounds resulting from the pyrolysis of biological material,  
29 such as bacterial spores which could be used as biological warfare agents. Open and closed sample  
30 introduction tubes have been used in the Py-GC/IMS system for the detection of biological aerosol  
31 particulates and chemical compounds in water respectively. A study in 2001 made improvements to an  
32 existing Py-GC/IMS system in order to increase the amount of pyrolyzate compound information  
33 reaching the IMS detector [23]. The airflow enhancement through the pyrolysis tube allowed for an  
34 increase in the previously observed biomarkers for aerosols. The altered Py-GC/IMS instrument was  
35 subjected to several outdoor aerosol trials in which it was shown to provide information regarding the  
36 biological or non-biological nature of an aerosol and more specifically discriminate between aerosols  
37 of a gram-positive spore, a gram-negative bacterium, and a protein. Yinon provides a comprehensive  
38 review on instrumental advances and developments in IMS and further assesses its ability as a fast,  
39 general analytical measurement device [24]. A recent study compared both open tube and closed tube  
40 sample introduction Py-GC/IMS systems for the analysis of water contaminated with a surrogate  
41 chemical warfare agent [25]. Results showed that the limit of detection for the VX nerve agent  
42 surrogate was lowered by two orders of magnitude for the closed injector compared to the open tube  
43 system, making the closed tube Py-GC/IMS system more suitable for detecting chemicals in liquids.

44 Besides MS [26-30] and mobility spectrometers, other Py-GC detection methods have been reported  
45 for a wide variety of applications. These include, flame ionization detection (FID) [31-36] and atomic  
46 emission detection (AED) [37-40].

## 47 48 49 2.2 Sample preparation

1  
2 Often, time consuming pre-treatments of the sample are required to make it amenable for Py-GC/MS  
3 analysis. Depending on the nature of the sample, this can involve a simple hydrolysis or dissolution  
4 step and/or a more complex derivatization process.  
5

### 6 7 *2.2.1 Derivatization*

8  
9 Derivatization involves the conversion of non-volatile polar or thermally sensitive compounds into  
10 related more volatile derivatives. It is a well established technique in pyrolysis-GC, extending the  
11 capabilities of pyrolyzate analysis by improving the behaviour of the analyte during separation in the  
12 column, modifying the thermal degradation pathway or enhancing detectability of the analyte.  
13 Different methods of derivatization have been reported, namely hydrogenation, methylation and  
14 silylation, whereby the hydroxyl, carboxyl and amino functional groups in polar compounds are  
15 converted into much less polar methyl, trimethyl or trifluoroacetyl derivatives of greater volatility using  
16 appropriate reagents. The most commonly used derivatising reagent is tetramethylammonium  
17 hydroxide (TMAH) although other quaternary ammonium hydroxides have also been reported as  
18 effective reagents. Haffenden and co-workers developed a novel Py-GC/MS based methodology to  
19 analyse the composition of non-volatile residues of Maillard reaction products in two separate studies  
20 [41,42]. Both studies involved a post-pyrolytic in-situ derivatization technique, the first using  
21 hexamethyldisilazane (HMDS) and the second using trimethylsilyldiethylamine as silylating reagents.  
22 The application of the technique indicated the formation of several derivatives in both cases. The  
23 analytical characterisation of diterpenoid and acrylic resins employed in art works has been achieved  
24 using an on-line derivatization method using HMDS reagent and Py-GC/MS [43,44]. Results obtained  
25 were compared with previously reported results from in-situ thermally assisted hydrolysis and  
26 methylation with TMAH. Several non-reported trimethylsilylated derivatives of compounds present in  
27 the diterpenoid resins were identified. In both cases, improved sensitivity, better resolution of the most  
28 representative peaks and more simplified, well-resolved chromatograms were obtained by using HMDS  
29 as a derivatizing reagent.

30 Thermally assisted hydrolysis and methylation (THM) is an alternative on-line derivatization  
31 technique for Py-GC/MS, which is much simpler and faster compared to wet chemically derivatization  
32 methods. Asperger and co-workers analysed natural waxes using THM in the presence of TMAH,  
33 carried out on a filament pyrolyzer [45,46]. They found THM to be a very suitable derivatization  
34 method which was able to overcome problems such as the generation of non-specific pyrolyzates  
35 observed in conventional Py-GC analysis of waxes. The method enabled both rapid fingerprinting and  
36 detailed compositional analysis by means of structural elucidation of the THM products. The effect of  
37 TMAH used in THM, in comparison with the effect of sodium hydroxide on the slow pyrolysis of  
38 cotton cellulose has been reported [47]. Information regarding the reactive decomposition of cellulose  
39 was obtained using Py-GC/MS. In a recent study, Ikeya et al. compared an off-line methylation  
40 method using carbanion and methyl iodide reagent with thermally assisted hydrolysis and methylation  
41 using TMAH on Py-GC analysis of humic and fulvic acids [48]. The off-line methylation proved to be  
42 the better method as it produced additional information on structural unit of humic substances.

43 There are a number of excellent reviews available on derivatization methods. Wang discussed both  
44 pre and post-derivatization techniques adapted for Py-GC analysis [2]. Particular focus was placed on  
45 the developments in pre-pyrolysis derivatization, which is used to convert the functional group in the  
46 polymer to obtain a favourable degradation pathway during pyrolysis. A review on Py-GC/MS by  
47 Moldoveanu in 2001 reported advancements in derivatization techniques including methylation and  
48 silylation [3]. The same year, a review by Challinor on the development and applications of on-line  
49 and off-line thermally assisted hydrolysis and methylation reactions in analytical pyrolysis was

1 published [49]. Trimethylsulphonium hydroxide (TMSH), tetramethylammonium acetate (TMAAc)  
2 and *N,O*-bis(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide (BSTFA) reagents provided more specific advantages  
3 when compared to TMAH where particular applications were required. A recent review by Halket and  
4 Zaikin published in 2006 describes on-line derivatization methods employed in mass spectrometry,  
5 including Py-GC/MS [50].  
6  
7

### 8 *2.3 Instrumental developments*

9

10 Gains in chromatographic sensitivity are continually being made with improved techniques and  
11 instrumentation, including the design of sophisticated gas inlet systems and interfaces which improve  
12 the efficiency of the trapping and transfer of gaseous products to the GC column. In addition, progress  
13 continues to be made with GC detectors including mass spectrometry, which also contributes to the  
14 ever increasing power of Py-GC systems. However, details regarding such improvements are beyond  
15 the scope of this review. The most significant instrumental improvements in pyrolysis-GC include  
16 laser pyrolyzers for the analysis of microscopic samples, and non-discriminating pyrolysis for the  
17 analysis of high-molecular weight pyrolysis products.  
18  
19

#### 20 *2.3.1 Laser pyrolysis-GC*

21

22 Micro analytical techniques that facilitate the separate analysis of distinct regions within complex  
23 heterogeneous samples have an increasing application in polymer analysis. Laser pyrolysis-gas  
24 chromatography (laser Py-GC), or laser micropyrolysis-GC, is one such technique, however studies  
25 which have utilized this method are limited. Although early works involving the analytical technique  
26 and its applications date back to the early 1970s, recent studies are still primarily focussed on  
27 instrumental development. This lack of progress is due to a number of factors including i) the  
28 sensitivity limitations of existing chromatographic technologies required for testing the typically small  
29 product concentrations; ii) the inter-disciplinary skills needed; iii) the financial expense of the different  
30 instruments; iv) the difficulties involved with interfacing these instruments; v) the lack of  
31 understanding of the interactions between laser and material; and vi) the issue that not all samples are  
32 compatible with laser radiation to produce pyrolysis products [51,52].

33 The laser pyrolysis or micropyrolysis system (Fig. 1) consists of the laser and associated optical  
34 device; the sample chamber and cold trap; and a GC/MS for separation and detailed molecular  
35 characterisation of the pyrolysis products (i.e. molecular fingerprinting). Interfacing between the  
36 sample chamber and the cold trap inside the GC injection port has been achieved using a heated  
37 transfer tube, a sophisticated gas inlet system, or more recently using a specially designed pyrolysis  
38 valve interface which can function both on-line and off-line (CDS Analytical, model 1500). Solid  
39 polymer samples of small size are mounted in the sample chamber and then viewed through the  
40 microscope until a suitable area to be pyrolyzed is located. The laser is focussed through the  
41 microscope objective and the targeted area is pyrolyzed using either a continuous wave or a number of  
42 high-energy pulses. The size of the crater formed and thus the intensity of pyrolyzate distribution is  
43 dependent upon the degree of focussing and the time span and energy setting of the laser. During  
44 pyrolysis, a helium carrier gas sweeps the pyrolyzates from the sample cell and (ultimately) onto the  
45 cold trap via a heated transfer line. Once collected, components are desorbed onto the GC column for  
46 subsequent analysis.

47 The use of a laser and a microscope in place of a conventional pyrolyzer such as those mentioned  
48 earlier, facilitates visual observation of the sample and focusing of the laser beam onto a specific area  
49 and layer to achieve selective heating. This can therefore provide useful data on the molecular

1 compositional units of macromolecules in situ, something that traditional bulk pyrolysis methods  
2 cannot. The short duration laser beam is collimated enabling it to target the isolated components with  
3 an immense amount of thermal energy [53]. This thermal interaction between laser and material  
4 initiates a shock which in turn produces a range of pyrolysis products [11]. These extreme heating  
5 rates are characteristic of laser pyrolysis and also serve a great purpose in minimizing secondary  
6 pyrolysis reactions.

7 A variety of different lasers can be used as a fragmentation source depending on the type of material  
8 being pyrolysed. Greenwood et al. analysed various organic fossil samples, namely Sydney Basin  
9 torbanite, Green River oil shale and Tasmanite oil shale, to test the efficiency and potency of laser  
10 micropyrolysis-GC/MS equipped with a continuous wave Nd:YAG laser with a near IR output (1064  
11 nm) [51,53]. A pulsed ruby laser (694.3 nm) was used to study the in-situ pyrolysis of individual coal  
12 macerals [54]. Thomsen & Egsgaard described an instrumental set-up for the pressurized laser-induced  
13 pyrolysis of coal foils using the visible blue-green emission from an argon ion laser (458-515 nm) [55].  
14 Choi et al. performed direct chemical analysis of UV laser ablation products of organic polymers using  
15 an ArF excimer laser (193 nm) coupled to a Py-GC/MS [56]. Other applications involving all of these  
16 laser sources have been briefly reviewed by Meruva and co-workers [11,52]. They themselves  
17 designed and developed a novel instrument for rapid characterisation of synthetic polymers using UV  
18 laser pyrolysis coupled to fast GC and TOF-MS. The combined Q-switched Nd:YAG laser, frequency  
19 quadrupled to 266 nm, was used on a model polymer (polyethylene) in order to measure the production  
20 and distribution of pyrolysis products. They provide an excellent discussion evaluating the effects of  
21 experimental factors and interactions on the performance of the laser Py-GC/TOF-MS system in  
22 comparison to conventional filament pyrolysis.

23 Unlike the filament, Curie-point and furnace pyrolyzer, laser pyrolysis requires very little sample  
24 preparation or pre-treatment since analysis is performed directly on the solid polymer matter. The  
25 sample is therefore much easier to handle and consequently analysis time is greatly reduced. However,  
26 a common problem encountered with using laser radiation is that a specific laser wavelength may not  
27 be appropriate for all types of materials. The transparency of some polymers at the laser wavelength  
28 makes them more difficult to degrade thermally. To overcome this, researches have found that the  
29 sample can be indirectly pyrolysed by embedding it in a strongly absorbing matrix such as powdered  
30 carbon [57] or graphite, or by depositing the sample on an absorbing surface such as blue cobalt glass  
31 [58]. However, it has been reported that by heating the sample indirectly, both the heating rate and  
32 maximum temperature are decreased [59]. Armitage et al. discussed the difficulties in directly  
33 analyzing synthetic fibres using near IR laser radiation (1064 nm) due to their transparency at this  
34 wavelength [60]. Consequently the fibres were impregnated in a graphite matrix and then pyrolysed.  
35 They concluded that the use of additional laser sources such as UV or visible lasers may have enhanced  
36 the analytical scope of their method. Metz and co-workers reported that by using a 1064 nm Nd:YAG  
37 laser, frequency quadrupled to 266 nm, the addition of carbon or other sample supports could be  
38 avoided [52]. Since most organic compounds efficiently absorb UV energy, optically transparent  
39 polymers could be directly pyrolysed.

40 The capabilities of laser pyrolysis-GC have been assessed in many areas of research including  
41 geochemistry and petrology [61,62], natural and synthetic organic polymers [63,64], and forensic  
42 science [60] (Fig. 2). Laser energy continues to be a suitable source to generate pyrolysis for the in-situ  
43 molecular investigation of macromolecules.

### 44 45 46 *2.3.2 Non-discriminating pyrolysis-GC*

47  
48 Discrimination of high molecular weight compounds during the pyrolysis of complex mixtures is a  
49 significant problem with all types of conventional pyrolyzers [12, 65-67] as these fragments often carry



1 very significant structural information. Efforts have been made using a laser pyrolysis system to  
2 analyse both low and high molecular pyrolyzates [52]. A technique called in-column pyrolysis (Fig. 3)  
3 established in 2000 was designed to overcome this problem by enabling the pyrolysis step to be  
4 performed in-line with the GC column [9]. Samples were introduced by hand into a disposable, inert  
5 stainless steel capillary tube, which was then heated rapidly to the pyrolysis temperature using an  
6 electric current. The entire assembly was contained within the GC oven to prevent cold spots in the  
7 system. Initial experiments demonstrated no discrimination effects of high boiling point compounds  
8 and excellent pyrolysis reproducibility. However, limitations of the in-column pyrolysis system  
9 included disconnection of the column every time a new sample was analyzed and inaccurate control of  
10 sample amount, position and temperature due to manual sample introduction [68]. Beyer et al.  
11 developed and evaluated an automated in-column pyrolysis-GC/MS system which they found to offer  
12 new opportunities for quantitation of polymers or other high molecular weight materials due to high  
13 reproducibility of peak areas [12]. The system included the option to work in normal injection mode  
14 and in pyrolysis mode simultaneously, thus facilitating the analysis of compounds such as additives in  
15 polymers, and the characterisation of the non-volatile fraction in a single run.

16 Considerations regarding the advantages and disadvantages of in-column pyrolysis have led to the  
17 recent development of a new system. Non-discriminating pyrolysis-GC, like in-column pyrolysis, is  
18 specifically designed to minimize the transfer losses of larger fragments from the pyrolysis unit to the  
19 GC column so that important structural information among other things can be obtained. Several  
20 designs have been developed and tested but the general configuration of a non-discriminating pyrolysis  
21 system is much like a normal Py-GC/MS in that the pyrolysis step is performed external to the GC and  
22 not in-line with the GC column in the GC oven (Fig. 4). Instead of a conventional pyrolyzer, pyrolysis  
23 occurs in an inert, Silcosteel capillary tube which is interfaced to the GC through a septumless injector  
24 in the GC injection port. The sample is secured inside the capillary tube using fused-silica wool plugs,  
25 the narrowness of the tube assuring that the temperature at the sample remains consistent with that at  
26 the heating element at all times. Pyrolysis of the sample is achieved using an electric current. The  
27 addition of a ceramic shield ensures the capillary pyrolysis temperature is not affected by external air  
28 currents. An inert gas supply to the capillary column during pyrolysis flushes the pyrolyzates out of the  
29 hot zone thus preventing secondary reactions and allowing for the recovery of higher molecular weight  
30 products through post-heating. A more detailed description of the instrumentation is available  
31 elsewhere [68]. The technique can be used for any type of material and despite its novelty, has already  
32 been used to study samples including synthetic and naturally occurring polymers [69]. In a study by  
33 Parsi et al., the performance of non-discriminating Py-GC/MS in the characterisation of natural organic  
34 matter (NOM) was assessed [70]. The results were compared to those also obtained using a filament  
35 and a Curie-point pyrolyzer. The study showed that the ambiguity caused by mass discrimination  
36 against larger fragments was dramatically reduced with non-discriminating Py-GC/MS compared to  
37 that of conventional pyrolysis approaches. Larger fragments such as traces of cholesterol in the  
38 pyrolysis of chitin were detected, which could not be observed with the commercial pyrolyzers.  
39 Furthermore, the macromolecular pyrolyzates showed a greater abundance in the pyrograms of various  
40 polyaromatic and long-chain aliphatic compounds obtained via non-discriminating Py-GC/MS. In  
41 another study, non-discriminating Py-GC/MS was used for the detection of ergosterol in various  
42 samples [70]. As the major sterol constituent in fungi, ergosterol is an essential chemical indicator of  
43 fungal contamination. Results showed that it was clearly detected in all of the samples and the authors  
44 reported that the benefits of non-discriminating pyrolysis including no sample preparation, small  
45 sample size and short analysis time, far outweighed those of other techniques. The profiling of fatty  
46 acids in bacterial biomasses using non-discriminating TMAH induced thermochemolysis Py-GC/MS  
47 has also been reported [71].

1 On the whole, not only is the performance of the modified non-discriminating pyrolysis system much  
2 better than the original in-column pyrolysis system, it is also much easier to use. It offers great  
3 potential for the future analysis of high molecular weight pyrolyzates.  
4  
5

### 6 **3. Thermal degradation**

7  
8 The kinetics of thermal degradation and structure determination of polymers and co-polymers has  
9 been covered in great detail in other reviews [2-3,72] and with little development in this area it is best  
10 to refer to those papers.  
11

#### 12 *3.1. Degradation properties*

13  
14 Degradation results from free radical reactions initiated by bond breaking within the molecules; the  
15 bond that is more easily broken will be favoured. Thermal and environmental conditions, such as  
16 temperature and additional reactants, can affect both the extent and route of degradation of a polymeric  
17 material and the nature (physical and chemical) and quantity of molecular species generated by  
18 pyrolysis. Molecular degradation of a sample will occur as soon as the temperature is high enough to  
19 initiate bond breaking, but at this point will not necessarily yield much useful product [1]. With much  
20 higher temperatures, other bonds will break simultaneously, creating very small and non-specific free  
21 radicals. Generally, the higher the temperature, the smaller the radicals and molecules produced. The  
22 optimum pyrolysis temperature, which will be different for every polymer, is the point at which  
23 degradation produces a wide array of chemically useful products. Poly  $\alpha$ -methylstyrene for example  
24 yields 100% of monomer at 500°C, 88.5% at 800°C and only 37.7% at 1200°C [73]. These products,  
25 identified using GC/MS, can provide a fingerprint of the original polymer and copolymer composition  
26 and microstructure and help determine the degradation mechanisms.

27 The chemical composition of a polymer can also affect its degradation properties. Stauffer discussed  
28 how the substitution of a hydrogen atom with a CH<sub>3</sub> group can alter the point at which the polymer  
29 chain breaks, affecting the degradation route and amount of product yielded [73].

30 Low level compounds added to a polymer, intended to alter its physical or chemical properties, are  
31 another factor which may influence its degradation properties and make the analysis of its products  
32 very challenging. Some additives can be thermally removed from the polymer before they degrade by  
33 heating the sample to a sub-pyrolysis temperature. In this instance the polymer undergoes degradation  
34 at a set pyrolysis temperature and the pyrogram should only contain peaks from the polymer itself.  
35 However, polymer additives present a problem in that they cannot be removed and must be pyrolysed  
36 along with the polymer matrix. The degradation behaviour of the original polymer and the additive  
37 will differ due to differences in their size, structure and composition therefore products generated from  
38 additives are often overshadowed by products generated from the polymer itself. More complex  
39 macromolecular additives produce even more degradation products upon pyrolysis, significantly  
40 changing the appearance of the pyrogram by reducing the size of other peaks. Recently, a multi-step  
41 approach has been used to thermally separate compound families at intervals during pyrolysis in order  
42 to simplify the pyrograms [74].  
43  
44

#### 45 *3.2 Mechanisms*

46  
47 Pyrolysis products reflect the molecular structure, free radical stability, substitution and internal  
48 rearrangements of the polymers constituting the sample material [1]. Thus, the degradation  
49 mechanisms undertaken are dependent upon the structure and bond dissociation energies of the

1 polymers. Consequently a polymer may take multiple degradation routes simultaneously. Identical  
2 molecules, heated to the same temperature will break apart and rearrange in the same characteristic  
3 way. The understanding of these mechanisms has led to improved interpretations of pyrograms. The  
4 three main mechanisms include random scission, side-group scission, and monomer reversion [73].

5 Random scission involves the random breaking of the polymer's C-C bonded backbone as all the  
6 bonds are of equal strength, resulting in the formation of products including, alkanes, alkenes and  
7 alkadienes of smaller sizes. Figure 5 shows the random scission of polyethylene. Upon pyrolysis the  
8 products formed can be seen clearly on a chromatogram as a familiar series of "triplet" peaks.

9 Side-group scission occurs when the side groups attached to the backbone are broken away resulting  
10 in the backbone becoming polyunsaturated. Its subsequent rearrangement produces aromatic  
11 compounds such as benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, styrene and naphthalene as shown in Figure 6.  
12 Polymers including styrene, vinyl and some rubbers will undergo side-group scission.

13 During monomer reversion, the polymer simply unzips and reverts back to its original monomeric  
14 version otherwise referred to as depolymerisation. Usually only one predictable compound is  
15 produced. Polymers known to undergo this mechanism include polymethylmethacrylate (Fig. 7),  
16 polytetrafluoroethylene, poly  $\alpha$ -methylstyrene and polyoxymethylene.

17 Other mechanisms do exist but are not as common as those mentioned above; cross-linking and char  
18 formation is one of them. The occurrence of more cross-linking within the polymer molecules during  
19 pyrolysis ultimately strengthens the product, creating only a small number of volatiles. Typical  
20 polymers undergoing this route include polyacrylonitriles or phenolic resins. The thermal behaviour  
21 and degradation mechanisms, or rearrangements, in the pyrolysis of natural and synthetic polymeric  
22 materials, as well as other organic compounds, are continually being investigated.

23 It has been noted how, under various temperatures for the pyrolysis of polymers, traditional Py-  
24 GC/MS is unable to distinguish the main degradation mechanism and evolved product distribution at  
25 specific temperature regions [75]. Whilst studying the pyrolysis of poly(aryl-ether-ether-ketone) and  
26 poly(arylene sulfone)s, Perng and co-workers overcame this issue by using stepwise pyrolysis-GC/MS.  
27 The method facilitated consecutive heating of the sample at fixed temperature intervals, thus achieving  
28 narrow temperature pyrolysis conditions and enabling the dominant pyrolysis mechanisms to be  
29 obtained [76,77]. A similar study of the thermal degradation mechanism of poly(ether imide) has also  
30 been reported [75]. The major mechanisms determined were two-stage pyrolysis, involving main-chain  
31 random scission and carbonization. Guo et al. identified the thermal degradation behaviour of a novel  
32 phosphorous-containing aromatic poly(ester amide) (ODOP-PEA) compound using Py-GC/MS [78].  
33 Results suggested that bond cleavage of the pendant phosphorous groups occurred initially but  
34 maximum decomposition was attributed to the main chain scission at higher temperatures. High  
35 resolution Py-GC/MS was applied to analyse the degradation products of benzocyclobutene-terminated  
36 imide polymers, a kind of thermoset polymer [79]. Degradation mechanisms including, thermal  
37 cleavage, chain transfer, isomerization and cyclizations, were suggested and the relationship between  
38 polymer structure and pyrolyzates was discussed.

39 It is important to recognize that the dominant degradation mechanisms or pathways undertaken  
40 during pyrolysis of a sample might not necessarily be the same for each type of material. Most  
41 examples given above relate to the analysis of synthetic polymers however a significant number of  
42 samples analyzed by Py-GC are of natural origin. For example, Sun and co-workers used a  
43 microfurnace Py-GC/MS to analyse the thermal behaviour of vitamin D<sub>3</sub> [80]. The study was focussed  
44 on understanding what products were formed during the pyrolysis process in an attempt to identify the  
45 ingredient variation of the vitamin D<sub>3</sub> that exists as crude and/or additive forms in foods under high  
46 temperatures. Furthermore, a number of studies on the analysis of natural organic matter using Py-GC  
47 methods have reported the formation of carbonaceous residue through charring as one of the major  
48 degradation processes [9].

1 Pyrolysis-GC has also been used to study the influence of additives on the thermal degradation  
2 pathways of polymers. Ishikawa et al. studied the thermal degradation and flame retardancy of  
3 polycarbonate with the addition of a variety of different flame retardant chemicals using Py-GC/MS  
4 [81]. Different mechanisms were observed including hydrolysis, bond cleavage and cross-linking.  
5 Another study focused on the thermal degradation of a polycarbonate containing methylphenyl-silicone  
6 additive [82]. With the use of Py-GC/MS they deduced the addition of silicone could promote cross-  
7 linking and char formation as the mass loss rate of PC in the major degradation step was decreased.  
8 Bond scission was another proposed degradation route, thought to have produced the main volatile  
9 decomposition products of the PC-silicone blends. Bertini and Zuev investigated the influence of  
10 fullerene C60 additives on the thermal behaviour and degradation mechanism of fully aromatic regular  
11 polyesters using Py-GC/MS [83]. The presence of fullerene, being an efficient radical acceptor, was  
12 found to alter the decomposition from a radical pathway to a non-radical pathway. Jakab and  
13 Omastova studied the thermal decomposition of carbon black composites, used as a reinforcing agent  
14 and filler, with polyethylene (PE), polypropylene (PP) and polyisobutylene (PIB) [84]. Results of Py-  
15 GC/MS experiments determined that the product distribution of polymers was dependent upon the level  
16 of volatility of the carbon black. The product distribution of both PE/carbon black composites and  
17 PP/carbon black composites indicated that carbon black participated in a hydrogenation process.  
18 Moreover, the formation of several other isomers during the degradation of PP composites also  
19 indicated that carbon black promoted other mechanisms including, chain scission and radical transfer  
20 reactions. Depolymerisation was observed in the decomposition of PIB composites in the presence of  
21 carbon black.

## 22 23 24 **4. Applications**

### 25 26 *4.1 Art materials*

27  
28 The chemical, physical and structural characterization of materials such as glues, paints, pigments,  
29 binders and varnishes used to create artistic masterpieces, continues to provide art historians and  
30 conservators with precious information. This knowledge enables restoration and conservation work to  
31 be carried out properly without causing any damage to the original artifacts [85] and also helps to  
32 understand the techniques adopted by the artists. The organic materials used as binders in art media  
33 have received considerable attention. A review by Colombini and Modugno discusses the application  
34 of chromatographic techniques including Py-GC for the characterisation of proteinaceous binders such  
35 as animal skins or bones, egg and milk, or casein in artistic paintings [86]. Ling et al. attempted to  
36 characterize the natural binding media used in ancient Chinese artworks including non-proteinaceous  
37 materials such as Chinese lacquer, tung oil, deer glue, and peach gum using Py-GC/MS [87]. The  
38 kinds of natural resins used as the main ingredients in varnishes and binding media have also been  
39 assayed [88], including terpenoid resins [89,90] and triterpenic resins from the *Burseraceae* family  
40 [91]. Several studies have focused on the analysis of different artists' paints. Chiavari et al. analysed  
41 lipid materials used in paint layers using an in-situ pyrolysis and silylation method [92]. A paper by  
42 Bruck & Willard discusses the process of de formulation of paints in order to obtain ingredient and  
43 compositional information [93], and a paper by Scalarone & Chiantore reviews separation techniques  
44 for the analysis of acrylic emulsion paints [94]. Natural dyes used in works of art, namely madder,  
45 curcuma, saffron and indigo, have also been analysed by Py-GC/MS [95], and finally an interesting  
46 study by Bonaduce and Colombini used Py-GC/MS to characterize beeswax from a sculpture called  
47 "The Plague" (1691-1694) by Gaetano Zumbo [96].

1 *4.2 Biological samples*

2  
3 Much work continues to be done in an effort to identify and differentiate biological materials such as  
4 microorganisms. A flash Py-GC/MS method was reported for the rapid screening of bacterial species  
5 in order to detect the presence of bacteriohopanepolyols [97] and more recently, Py-GC/FID was  
6 employed for the quantitative pyrolysis of three different bacterial strains [32]. Goodacre et al. [98]  
7 detected a simple biomarker for the rapid detection of Bacillus spores using curie-point Py-GC/MS,  
8 whilst Schwarzingler [99] identified specific marker compounds characteristic of fungi type. The  
9 development of a miniaturized Py-GC system for the rapid detection and identification of bacteria and  
10 other pathogens has also been proposed [100]. Furthermore, the use of analytical pyrolysis in bio-  
11 terrorism studies has been evaluated [101]. In an interesting application, Buckley et al. used Py-  
12 GC/MS to analyse the complex organic balms on tissues and wrappings from pharaonic animal  
13 mummies in an effort to understand the mechanism of preservation in comparison to that observed with  
14 human mummies [102]. Other applications of Py-GC in biological studies include the compositional  
15 analysis of Copoly(DL-Lactic/Glycolic Acid) used in the medical and pharmaceutical fields when  
16 applied to devices for wound closure, orthopedics and controlled drug release [103], and structural  
17 investigations of neuromelanin from the human substantia nigra in the brain in an attempt to determine  
18 if neuromelanin is involved in cell death in Parkinson's disease [104,105].  
19  
20

21 *4.3 Environmental*

22  
23 Applications of Py-GC in environmental science continue to grow, as the benefits of the analytical  
24 technique are still being discovered. This is demonstrated in a paper by White et al. which describes  
25 four recent applications of Py-GC/MS fingerprinting of environmental samples [106]. Several studies  
26 on the analyses of particulate organic matter (POM) suspended in water have been reported, such as a  
27 paper by Yildiz et al. who used Py-GC/MS to investigate suspended POM in open and coastal waters of  
28 the southern Black Sea and found evidence in the pyrograms of 23 marker compounds characteristic of  
29 chlorophylls, lipids, carbohydrates and proteins formed during pyrolysis [107]. Volkman and Tanoue  
30 have reviewed the chemical and biological research carried out on POM in oceans across the globe and  
31 in doing so have discussed Py-GC/MS as a new approach [108]. In addition to the characterisation of  
32 particulate organic matter, research has been done on the organic matter in marine sediments. Fabbri et  
33 al. compared pyrolytic and lipid markers in the Adriatic Sea using semi-quantitative Py-GC/MS and  
34 classical GC/MS [109]. Much work has also been published on the analysis of soil [110,111]. A  
35 recent review on soil health discusses the progress that has been made in the development of molecular  
36 and analytical methods, including Py-GC/MS, and the application of these techniques in determining  
37 soil health status [112]. In another application, a Py-GC/MS method for the analysis of the UV-B-  
38 absorbing compounds in small numbers of pollen, spores and other microscopic entities was developed  
39 in order to allow research toward the effect of increased UV-B radiation on plants [113].  
40  
41

42 *4.4 Food and agriculture*

43  
44 Foodstuffs have been routinely analyzed by Py-GC for decades because of its ability to analyse  
45 complex molecules such as proteins, polysaccharides and lipids. Halket and Schulten studied several  
46 whole foodstuffs namely ground roast coffee, rosehip tea, wheatmeal biscuit, chocolate drink powder  
47 and milk chocolate, and were able to differentiate them all by examining the molecular weight  
48 distributions of released volatiles and pyrolysis products in their spectra [114]. The identification and  
49 quantification of soy protein in ground beef has also been reported [115]. Several papers have

1 described rapid Py-GC/MS derivatization methods for profiling of fatty acids in vegetable oils and  
2 animal fats [116], including a study by Fabbri et al. who used dimethyl carbonate and titanium silicate  
3 as non-toxic derivatising agents to analyse soybean, coconut, linseed, walnut and olive oil [117].

4 Agricultural applications of analytical pyrolysis are mostly focused on soil chemistry, more  
5 specifically soil structure and soil organic matter (SOM) dynamics and composition. Nierop et al.  
6 investigated the differences in the chemical composition of SOM within one soil series from three  
7 differently managed fields in The Netherlands [118]. Results using a combination of Py-GC/MS and  
8 thermally assisted hydrolysis and methylation with TMAH determined that SOM composition is hardly  
9 affected by organic farming compared to conventional management i.e. high tillage intensity and  
10 intensive fertilization. Similarly, Marinari and co-workers used carbon fraction pools and pyrolytic  
11 indices as an indication of SOM quality under organic and conventional management in central Italy  
12 [119]. Furthermore, Rodriguez et al. evaluated chemical-structural properties of SOM under different  
13 agronomical practices of the Venezuelan central plains by measuring the relative abundance of volatile  
14 organic products produced by pyrolysis [120], and the chemical composition of organic matter in  
15 various fresh and composted wastes has been characterized by Dignac et al. [121]. A comparison  
16 between organic and mineral fertilization in the investigation of chemical and biochemical changes in  
17 SOM has also been reported, in which the detection of high levels of water soluble organic carbon and  
18 aliphatic pyrolytic products confirmed that mineral fertilization caused greater alteration of native SOM  
19 than the organic amendments [122].

#### 20 21 22 *4.5 Geochemistry and fuel sources* 23

24 Investigations involving petrochemical related materials, of which there are several categories, are  
25 not a new phenomenon in Py-GC studies. The structural characterisation and differentiation of  
26 kerogens for example has received much attention in previous years but despite great progress, some  
27 knowledge of their chemical structure and the mechanism by which they form and change in time on  
28 Earth is still limited. González-Vila and co-workers analysed a set of kerogen concentrates using Py-  
29 GC/MS both in the presence and absence of TMAH so as to study their structural characteristics [123].  
30 Results indicated that considerable amounts of functionalized compounds are bound to the  
31 macromolecular structure via ester and ether linkages. Petsch et al. analysed the weathering profiles of  
32 organic carbon-rich black shales in order to determine the loss and degradation of organic matter  
33 during weathering and its role in the geochemical carbon cycle [124]. A model for kerogen weathering  
34 was suggested involving non-selective oxidation and hydration followed by cleavage/dissolution of  
35 oxidized kerogen fragments. The chemical structure, source(s), and formation pathway(s) of kerogen-  
36 like organic matter in sediments from the northwestern Black Sea has also been investigated [125], as  
37 well as the molecular structure of kerogens from source rocks of the Tarim Basin [126]. A review of  
38 pyrolysis techniques in the molecular characterisation of environmental kerogen and humic substances  
39 and their application to geochemistry has been published by Yamamoto et al. [127].

40 Another area of geochemical research which has been greatly explored includes the compositional  
41 analysis of coal materials. The release behaviour of hydrocarbon components of pulverized coal has  
42 been investigated using Py-GC [128], as have the pyrolyzates of raw vitrinites and their residues from  
43 selected coal samples following a novel binary solvent extraction procedure [129]. The co-pyrolysis of  
44 coal and petroleum residues has been studied by Suelves et al. in an attempt to examine the synergetic  
45 effects on the yield of the main petrochemical pyrolysis products [130], and the structural  
46 characterisation of oil and coal tars using pyrolysis techniques have also been reported [131,132].  
47 Other studies include the analysis of byproducts resulting from the combustion of coal, such as flyash  
48 [133].

1 Additional research using Py-GC includes the study of both volatile and involatile organic  
2 compounds in extraterrestrial environments during planetary missions [134], and the examination of  
3 cuticles from fossil arthropods [135].  
4  
5

#### 6 *4.6 Synthetic polymers*

7

8 Py-GC has developed considerably to become a routine tool for the identification and differentiation  
9 of synthetic polymers as well as the quantitative determination of monomers in copolymers. A great  
10 deal of research is now focused on the detection of low level chemical compounds in the polymers.  
11 There are many publications on this application of Py-GC however here only a brief overview is  
12 presented. Many examples have already been provided throughout the scope of this review, but the  
13 most frequently analysed synthetic products include plastics, rubbers, coatings and composites. The  
14 developments in analytical techniques for the analysis of polyolefins with respect to molar mass and  
15 chemical composition distribution have been addressed by Pasch [136]. A very recent study on the  
16 composition and microstructure of ethylene and propylene copolymers using Py-GC found it to be a  
17 very reliable and reproducible method [137]. Future developments regarding the technique were  
18 suggested, including the development of a novel pyrolysis and two-dimensional GC system (Py-GC ×  
19 GC) which would further improve accuracy by facilitating enhanced separation of pyrolyzates and thus  
20 greatly reducing detection interferences. Wampler et al. have demonstrated a Py-GC/MS method from  
21 which monomer ratios in random and block copolymers of polyolefins, especially polyethylene and  
22 polypropylene can be obtained [138], and Evans et al. report an approach for the structural analysis of  
23 polyester thermosets [139]. The chemical composition of multicomponent acrylic resins, including  
24 ethyl acrylate-butyl methacrylate copolymers and ethyl acrylate-styrene-ethyl methacrylate terpolymers  
25 has been assayed [140], as well as the quantitative determination of poly(ethylacrylate-  
26 methylmethacrylate) layers on drug granules for pharmaceutical use [141]. The compositional and  
27 microstructural determination of water-based synthetic polymers in a latex system using a pre-pyrolysis  
28 derivatization step has also been described [142]. Furthermore, Learner analyzed the synthetic  
29 polymers used in the formulation of paints such as alkyd, polyvinyl acetate and nitrocellulose [143],  
30 and many authors have studied the pyrolysis patterns of rubbers using Py-GC [144], including Choi  
31 who assayed styrene-butadiene rubbers with differing microstructures [145].  
32  
33

##### 34 *4.6.1 Detection of additives and contaminants*

35

36 Compounds added to polymeric materials in order to alter their physical or chemical properties in  
37 some way consist of fillers, pigments, antioxidants, stabilizers, flame retardants, plasticisers, lubricants,  
38 preservatives and other modifiers [74]. The effect additives have on the thermal degradation properties  
39 of a polymer has already been addressed. The determination of low level polymer additives in complex  
40 pyrograms is a subject briefly discussed by Wang in his earlier review on Py-GC [2], and despite  
41 several studies published since then, analytical development in this area has been slow. The key to the  
42 successful analysis of additives is to understand the properties they possess and to have knowledge of  
43 the polymers and their applications. Volatile and semi-volatile additives can usually be extracted from  
44 the matrix and analysed independently using GC methods. A fast Py-GC method has been described  
45 for the qualitative identification of plastic additives from samples of recycled and pure acrylonitrile-  
46 butadiene-styrene (ABS) originating from electronic waste [146]. The method combines the  
47 advantages of thermal desorption and flash pyrolysis by using a novel double-shot pyrolyzer; the low  
48 molecular weight additives are desorbed before the polymer chain undergoes decomposition.

1 More complex additives however cannot be extracted, and so pyrolysis of both the additive and the  
2 polymer must occur simultaneously. Identification of the pure additive is dependent upon careful  
3 interpretation of the intricate array of peaks present on the pyrogram and making distinctions between  
4 peaks which are chemically or chromatographically different. Recent investigations have found the  
5 selective ion monitoring mode of MS detectors to be the most informative approach in this case as it  
6 immediately simplifies the identification process [74]. Wang has published a series of papers  
7 analyzing several types of polymer additives, namely plasticizers, flame retardants, lubricants and  
8 antioxidants, in order to demonstrate the utility of Py-GC as a good tool for the characterisation of such  
9 polymeric systems [147-150]. The advantages of using Py-GC in each case have been discussed.  
10 Yang et al. investigated the effects of different inorganic fillers on the natural photo-oxidation  
11 degradation of high-density polyethylene (HDPE) using Py-GC/MS [151]. Results showed that whilst  
12 some fillers, e.g. CaCO<sub>3</sub> and wollastonite, stabilized HDPE a little, other inorganic fillers including  
13 kaolin, diatomite and mica, accelerated the degradation. In an interesting application Py-GC was used  
14 to analyse the ABS plastic material used to make faulty Takata press release buttons in automobile seat  
15 belts, to determine if a UV stabilizer had been added [152]. A UV stabilizer was detected and validated  
16 using mass spectrometry.

17 Additives are also incorporated into natural polymers for the same reasons as they are added to  
18 synthetic polymers and they can be detected using the same methods. Techniques for applying internal  
19 standards for the quantification of typical chemical paper additives using Py-GC with mass selective  
20 detection have been suggested and demonstrated by Odermatt et al [153]. Zhu and co-workers studied  
21 the pyrolysis products of cotton and flame retardant cotton fabrics in an attempt to understand their  
22 thermal degradation mechanisms and thus the fire-resisting functions of the materials [154].

#### 25 4.7 Forensic

27 Pyrolysis-GC is a well established technique in forensic analysis often used by forensic chemists to  
28 analyse a vast array of polymeric materials. The literature available is therefore extensive and it  
29 includes many different applications. Certainly one of the most investigated areas is document  
30 analysis, including the classification and differentiation of photocopy toners and the analysis of inks.  
31 Studies on the examination of machine copier toners using Py-GC date back to the 1980's.  
32 Zimmerman et al. analysed thirty-five different photocopy toners and respective machine copied  
33 documents in an attempt to establish a library of spectra from which an unknown toner extracted from a  
34 questioned document may be matched [155]. Levy and Wampler used Py-GC/MS to analyze a variety  
35 of photocopies produced by different manufacturers of copying instruments and found specific  
36 chemical differences in the toner materials used in each make of copier [156]. Similarly, Munson  
37 separated photocopy toner material from photocopies from 62 different machines into 18 classes  
38 depending on the presence or absence of peaks in the pyrograms [157] and Chang et al. described a Py-  
39 GC/FID method for the differentiation of photocopier toners using a Curie-point pyrolyzer and a  
40 computer-assisted library search method [158]. A less damaging technique for the identification of  
41 black toner material using Py-GC with mass selective detection has also been reported involving the  
42 heat transfer of the toner from the paper to a medium [159]. More recent work includes the forensic  
43 discrimination of photocopy and printer toners using multivariate statistics [160], and a study of  
44 solvents in inkjet printings which found varying proportions of different solvents in different inks  
45 [161]. A review on chromatographic and electrophoretic applications in ink analysis and the  
46 components of different types of inks has been published [162].

47 Besides photocopy toners and ink, the forensic analysis of packaging tapes and the adhesives is  
48 another area in which literature is readily available. The identification of trace amounts of synthetic  
49 adhesives has been achieved by Li et al. who incorporated simultaneous methylation in order to



1 measure the polar compounds [163]. Sakayanagi et al. used Py-GC/MS to identify 20 different  
2 products of colourless, transparent, pressure-sensitive adhesive polypropylene tapes, the results of  
3 which proved it to be such an effective method that it was applied to the analysis of a real forensic  
4 sample [164]. Furthermore, the deteriorated rubber-based pressure sensitive adhesives of three  
5 packaging tapes were analysed by Kumooka who determined that tackifiers including Coumarone  
6 resins, aromatic petroleum resins and  $\beta$ -pinene resins have higher resistance to oxidation than natural  
7 rubbers and aliphatic petroleum resins, and can still be identified by Py-GC/MS even after the  
8 deterioration [165]. A multi-step analysis of packaging tape has also been reported by using a  
9 Pyroprobe 5150 model which can be programmed to take the same sample material to a variety of  
10 temperatures automatically [166].

11 Py-GC has long been recognized as a standard method for the forensic analysis of other materials as  
12 well. Several papers have described methods for the identification and differentiation of automotive  
13 paint samples [167,168], and for the analysis of fibers [169]. Drugs and their metabolites have also  
14 been investigated, including a study by Takayasu and Ohshima who devised a Py-GC/MS method for  
15 the rapid analysis of methamphetamine and its analogs [170]. Another study proposed a protocol for  
16 the forensic detection and analysis of condom and personal lubricants in sexual assault cases [171,172].  
17 Further applications of Py-GC in the field of forensic medicine and toxicology include the postmortem  
18 alcohol analysis of the synovial fluid and its availability as a biological specimen for the prediction of  
19 blood alcohol concentration and urine alcohol concentration in medico-legal cases [173], and the rapid  
20 analysis of pesticide components in blood and urine [174].

## 23 5. Miscellaneous

25 Future developments regarding Py-GC as a technique have been suggested. In their work on the  
26 composition and microstructure of synthetic copolymers, Wang et al. discussed the development of a  
27 novel pyrolysis and comprehensive two-dimensional GC system (GC  $\times$  GC) designed to further  
28 improve the accuracy achieved using conventional GC methods by facilitating enhanced separation of  
29 pyrolyzates [137]. Based on orthogonal separation principles, comprehensive GC  $\times$  GC relies on a  
30 configuration comprising of two columns displaying different separation characteristics. The entire  
31 sample is first separated on a normal-bore capillary column under programmed temperature conditions.  
32 The effluent is then modulated and each subsequent small portion of eluate is refocused and re-injected  
33 onto the second column for further separation. As a result, the resolving power of the chromatograph is  
34 increased by over a factor of ten and the probability of coeluting compounds or detection interferences  
35 is greatly reduced. Comprehensive GC  $\times$  GC not only simplifies sample preparation procedures but  
36 also provides higher sensitivity making it extremely well suited for the analysis of complex  
37 pyrolyzates. The advantages of this system have been demonstrated in a study by Parsi et al. who used  
38 non-discriminating pyrolysis combined with conventional GC/MS and comprehensive GC  $\times$  GC/TOF-  
39 MS to analyse the organic fraction of airborne particulate matter (PM) [69]. Whilst results obtained  
40 using conventional GC/MS provided insufficient chromatographic resolution to enable identification of  
41 PM volatiles and semi-volatiles due to many coelutions, those obtained using comprehensive GC  $\times$   
42 GC/TOF-MS showed a dramatic improvement in analyte separation and thus identification.

43 Other instrumental techniques involving pyrolysis without the GC separation step also exist but are  
44 beyond the scope of this review. Both direct pyrolysis mass spectrometry (DPMS) and direct pyrolysis  
45 fourier transform infrared spectrometry (DP/FTIR) involve the direct interfacing of the pyrolysis device  
46 to the detector. In both cases, the technique has been used in polymer analysis as a quick way of  
47 identifying primary degradation products which avoid secondary pyrolysis reactions, with minimal  
48 sample preparation. With DPMS, pyrolysis occurs under high vacuum and the readily volatilised  
49 pyrolyzates are immediately ionised and detected, preventing further thermal degradation. This

1 technique has been used in a number of studies in order to obtain characteristic information much faster  
2 and to study the primary degradation pathways of polymers [175-181]. With DP/FTIR, the pyrolysis  
3 instrument (usually a platinum coil Pyroprobe) is designed to fit into the sample compartment of a  
4 standard FTIR detector with the use of a specially designed interface. The filament of the Pyroprobe is  
5 placed directly in the light path so that upon pyrolysis, the volatile pyrolyzates diffuse immediately into  
6 the beam where they are detected. Rapid analysis in the beam eliminates any chance of condensation.  
7 DP/FTIR is therefore a fast and easy method of obtaining a wide range of information on polymeric  
8 materials. Several studies have demonstrated its potential [182-184].  
9

## 10 **6. Conclusion**

13 Py-GC has evolved to become a routine analytical tool for the characterisation and differentiation of  
14 polymers, both natural and synthetic. Since 1999, several types of thermal analysis equipment have  
15 been developed to improve the analytical scope of Py-GC. Besides conventional pyrolyzers, the  
16 introduction of laser pyrolysis has become a new phenomenon for Py-GC. Laser energy used as a  
17 fragmentation source has facilitated controlled pyrolysis of specific regions on a sample, providing  
18 useful data on the molecular compositional units of macromolecules in situ. The very recent  
19 development of a non-discriminating Py-GC system has been designed to overcome the problems  
20 associated with traditional pyrolyzers relating to sample losses and discrimination of high-molecular  
21 weight compounds. Having already been used in a range of applications it offers great potential for the  
22 future analysis of macromolecular structures. Furthermore, the development of a novel double-shot  
23 pyrolyzer incorporating both thermal desorption and flash pyrolysis, has become a useful instrument  
24 for the fast identification of low molecular weight polymer additives. Future developments in Py-GC  
25 technology have also been suggested, which include the use of comprehensive GC  $\times$  GC for the  
26 enhanced separation and detection of pyrolyzates.  
27

## 28 **7. Acknowledgments**

29  
30 The authors want to thank those who granted permission for the inclusion of the figures shown in this  
31 review.  
32

## 33 **8. References**

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1 **Figure legends**

2  
3 Figure 1. Schematic diagram of a laser pyrolysis-GC system (from ref [11])

4 Figure 2. Pyrograms of blue paint (a) from the laser microprobe pyrolysis GC/MS and (b) from the pyroprobe

5 pyrolysis GC/MS (from ref [60])

6 Figure 3. Schematic diagram of an in-column pyrolysis-GC system (from ref [68])

7 Figure 4. Schematic diagram of a non-discriminating pyrolysis-GC system (from ref [68])

8 Figure 5. Schematic diagram of random scission mechanism (example of polyethylene) (from ref [73])

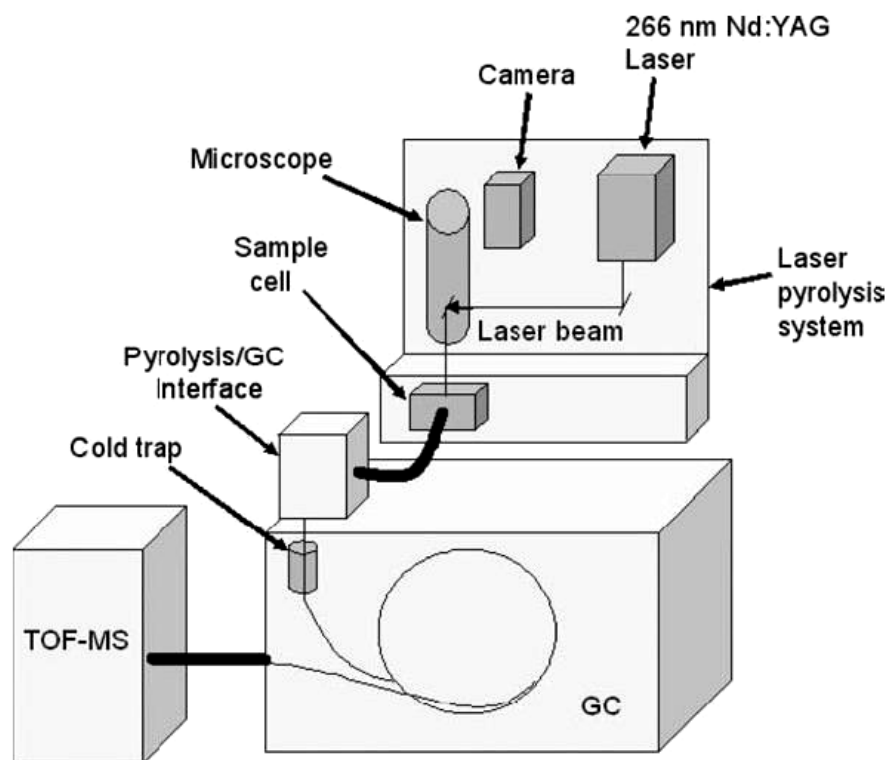
9 Figure 6. Schematic diagram of side group scission mechanism (example of polyvinyl chloride) (from

10 ref [73])

11 Figure 7. Schematic diagram of monomer reversion mechanism (example of polymethylmethacrylate)

12 (from ref [73])

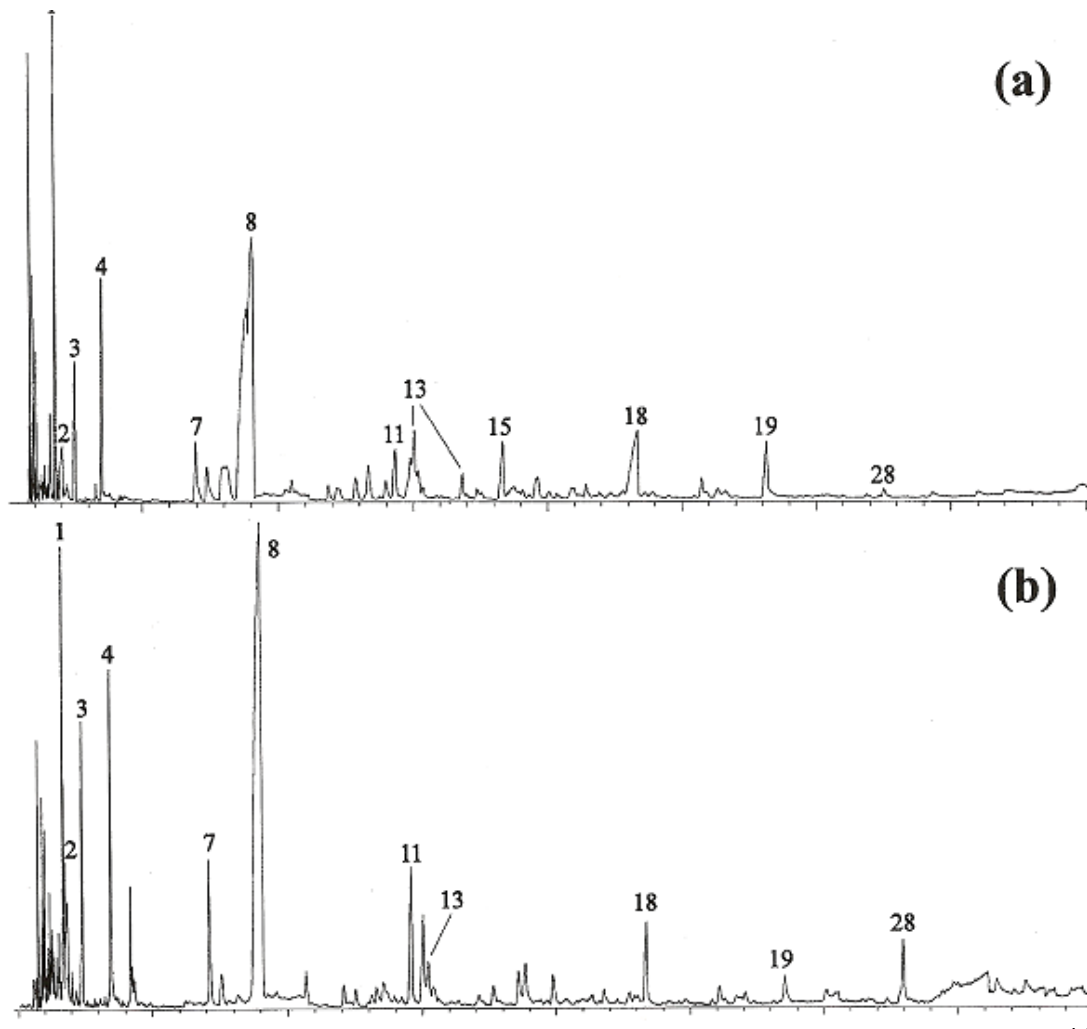
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15 **Figure 1**





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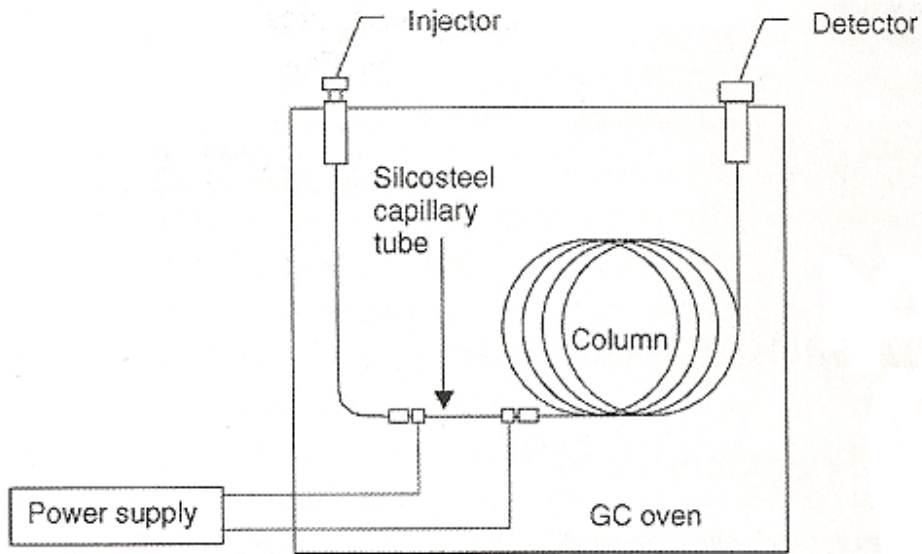
**Figure 2**



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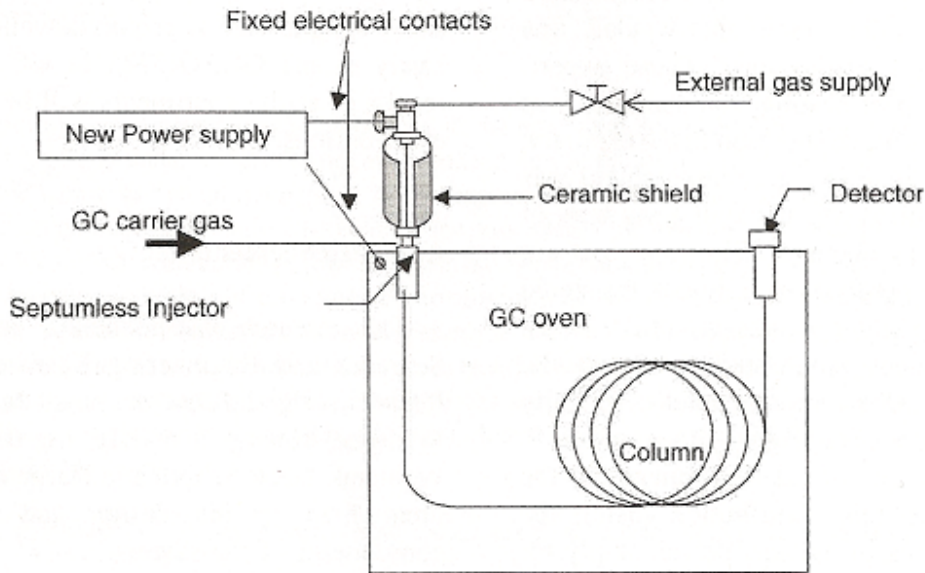
**Figure 3**



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**Figure 4**



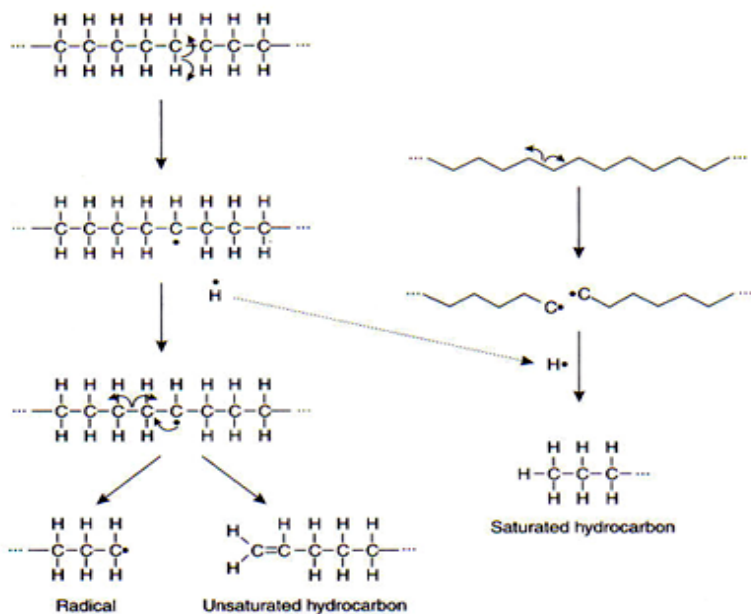
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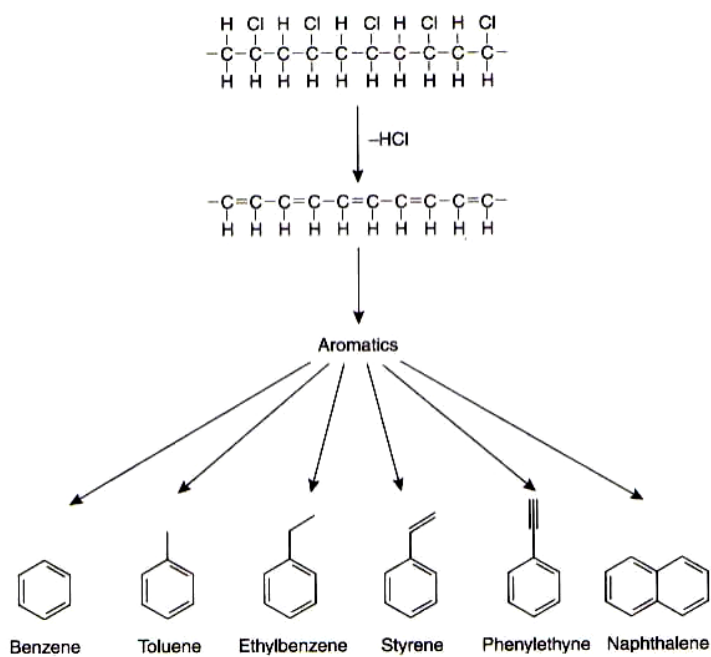
**Figure 5**

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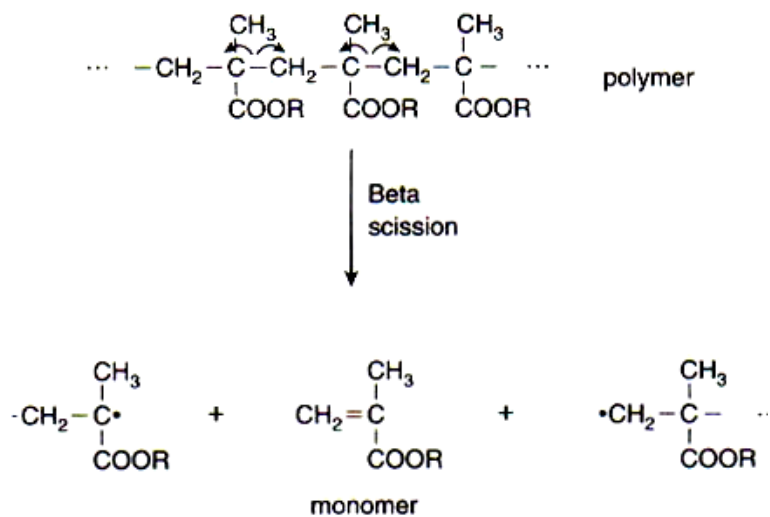
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**Figure 6**



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