

# Experimental and Modelling Studies of Water Sorption Properties of Cellulosic Derivative Fibers.

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## Research Article

**Keywords:** water vapor sorption, hysteresis, cellulosic fiber, Park model, PEK model

**Posted Date:** June 21st, 2021

**DOI:** <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-586610/v1>

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# 1 **Experimental and modelling studies of water sorption properties of cellulosic** 2 **derivative fibers.**

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5 France

## 6 **Abstract**

7 The objective of this study was to understand the chemical modification impact on interactions between water and  
8 cellulosic fiber. In that respect, cotton (C), flax (F), viscose (V) and cellulose acetate (CA) were analyzed by using  
9 a dynamic vapor sorption analysis. The sorption and desorption isotherms and kinetic curves were modelled using  
10 the Park model and the “Parallel Exponential Kinetics” (PEK) model-which allowed an accurate fitting on the  
11 whole range of water activity. The obtained sorption properties were correlated to the accessibility and the amount  
12 of sorption sites and also to the crystallinity level of the fibers. It was found that V exhibited the highest water  
13 sorption capacity due to a higher hydroxyl groups accessibility and a high amorphous fraction, followed up by F,  
14 C and CA. In contrast, higher kinetic sorption rate was obtained for CA due to a decrease of the hydroxyl groups  
15 within the fibers. Regardless the fiber, the determination of characteristic times showed that the kinetic rate was  
16 higher for sorption than desorption.

17 **Keywords: water vapor sorption, hysteresis, cellulosic fiber, Park model, PEK model**

## 18 **Introduction**

19 Cellulosic fibers have been used as structural materials since prehistoric times. More recently, interest in the use  
20 of materials derived from natural resources has increased dramatically. Environmental concerns such as global  
21 warming, energy consumption, and the desire to obtain products from renewable sources have led to a resurgence  
22 of interest in plant-derived products. Plant fibers are very attractive and are used for a wide variety of industrial  
23 applications such as textile for fabric making, automobile and building industries as reinforcement in composites  
24 materials (Ramamoorthy et al. 2015; Sanjay et al. 2019; Awais et al. 2021). They are cost-effective, renewable,  
25 available in high quantity, biodegradable, have low fossil-fuel energy requirements and can offer good mechanical  
26 properties. Natural fibers are hygroscopic materials because of high content of water sorption sites (hydroxyl  
27 groups) and deformation ability of cell wall during water exposure. Thus, physical properties such as density,  
28 shape, stiffness, crystal structure of the fibers and therefore mechanical properties (tensile modulus and breaking  
29 stress) are impacted (Célino et al. 2014). In textile industry, the hygroscopic nature allows many applications such  
30 as: absorb perspiration, transport moisture and adjust the relative humidity in the clothing microcosm.

31 Natural cellulosic fibers are obtained from various parts of the plants and generally classified based on the part of  
32 the plant from which they are extracted, such as seed, leaf and fruit. They are composed of various substances such  
33 as cellulose, lignin, hemicellulose and pectin. Cellulose, which is the primary reinforcing element of the cell wall,  
34 is made of linear chains of glucose residues aggregated into microfibrillar units (Awais et al. 2021). These units

35 possess a high crystalline content (inaccessible to water molecules) but also a paracrystalline component to which  
36 water molecules can gain access. Lignin is present in plant fibers in varying amounts; it is an amorphous  
37 crosslinked polymer composed of phenolic units. The cell wall also contains a hemicellulose and pectin  
38 component, which are predominantly amorphous polysaccharide (Hill et al. 2009). Cotton and flax fibers are the  
39 most widely used natural fibers in various fields of application. Cotton fibers are a seed fibers which are considered  
40 as the purest form of cellulose, with around 90 % cellulose content (Dunne et al. 2016). Flax fibers are a plant  
41 fiber which are composed of cellulose (80–90%), cellulosic fibrils embedded in hemicellulose (up to 7%), pectins  
42 (up to 5%) and proteins (0–1.5%). A few phenolics (1%), waxes and fats (0.5–1.0%), are also present (Kabir et al.  
43 2012). Natural fibers can be modified using chemical treatment like alkalization (Carrillo-Varela et al. 2018),  
44 mercerization, acylation, acetylation, peroxide treatment (K. Kaushik et al. 2013), salinization and benzoylation.  
45 Those treatments affect the contents of cellulose, hemicellulose, and lignin within the fibers yielding them more  
46 amorphous. Among those, cellulose based regenerated fibers like cellulose acetate fibers and viscose fibers have  
47 attracted attention due to their more ductile behavior which allow new specific applications (Manian et al. 2018).  
48 Cellulose acetate fibers are a modified polysaccharide synthesized by the reaction of acetic anhydride with cotton  
49 linters or wood pulp (Kostag et al. 2019). In that respect, the hydroxyl groups are partially substituted by acetyl  
50 function which reduces the number of primary sorption sites (which are generally assumed to be the OH groups)  
51 (Xie et al. 2010; Popescu et al. 2014). Viscose fibers are manufactured from cotton linters or wood pulp. First  
52 cellulose is mercerized with a sodium hydroxide treatment, followed by xanthation substitution. Cellulose is then  
53 regenerated with a sulfuric acid treatment which converts cellulose into a more amorphous structure (Klemm et  
54 al. 2005) leading to higher moisture content (Okubayashi et al. 2005a).

55 The determination of the water uptake at equilibrium of natural fibers by the gravimetric method at a given water  
56 activity invariably uses saturated salt solutions as a means of evaluating the water sorption properties of fibers  
57 (Hill 2006). In recent years, dynamic vapor sorption (DVS) technique has been used to investigate the sorption  
58 and desorption of natural or regenerated cellulosic materials from a thermodynamic point of view (Jonquière and  
59 Fane 1998). This technique leads to reproducible data and can provide accurate isotherms for water activities up  
60 to 0.95. Recent studies have not allowed a perfect understanding of water sorption behavior of cellulosic fibers.  
61 Two main factors can explain this issue: the complex internal geometry of the cell wall and the continuous nano-  
62 structural changes associated with the dynamic behavior of the cell wall macromolecular components. In order to  
63 understand sorption mode and possible interactions between water molecules and cellulosic fibers, sorption models  
64 have been established (Leung 1983). Those models described water sorption isotherms of cellulosic materials,  
65 nevertheless they are limited in the fitting of the experimental data for the whole range of water activities and for  
66 all types of cellulosic materials. This limitation on the fitting has been attributed by Labuza (Labuza 1980) to  
67 different mechanisms of water association with cellulosic fibers in different water activity regions. Depending on  
68 the nature of the fiber, some models are more or less relevant. The Ferro-Fontan model allows to predict sorption  
69 isotherm in 90% of cellulosic products (Chirife et al. 1980). Peleg suggests a four parameters model, which can  
70 be used for both sigmoidal and non-sigmoidal isotherms (Peleg 1993). The Smith model is convenient for sorption  
71 isotherms of biological materials, such as starch (Smith and Smith 1947). Chirife and Iglesias found that Halsey  
72 and Oswin models are also versatile for the description of polysaccharide systems (Iglesias and Chirife 1976). The  
73 well-known GAB model based on multilayers and condensed systems is considered to be one of the most versatile  
74 model for water sorption in cellulosic materials (GAB model, Guggenheim-Anderson-de Boer) but failed to fit

75 values obtained at high water activity (higher than 0.9) (Guggenheim 1966). The Park model is more convenient  
76 to fit the water sorption isotherms in the whole range of water activity. This model corresponds to a multi-sorption  
77 mode, which can be dividing in three steps: (1) Langmuir sorption, (2) Henry's law, and (3) water clustering (Park  
78 1986).

79 The ability of the DVS technique to collect experimental data in real time, allows the sorption analysis of the fibers  
80 in a kinetic point of view. Different authors have shown that the water sorption kinetics in cellulosic fibers was  
81 not Fickian (Van Der Wel and Adan 1999; Krabbenhoft and Damkilde 2004). Fickian models are based on two  
82 assumptions. First, transfer of water molecules is governed by a Fickian type gradient law. Secondly, for natural  
83 fibers, there exists an equilibrium state such that the water content is at all times a unique function of the  
84 corresponding water activity as given by the sorption isotherm. The first assumption that the flux of some quantity  
85 can be taken as being proportional to the gradient of this quantity by some scalar diffusion coefficient is probably  
86 reasonable when dealing with a relatively slow transfer under isothermal conditions. However, the second  
87 assumption that there is instantaneous equilibrium between the bound water and the water vapor at all times is  
88 harder to justify. Kohler *et al.* (Kohler *et al.* 2003, 2006) have reported that water exchange of cellulosic fibers, can  
89 be modelled by two parallel independent first order processes, which was defined by the "Parallel Exponential  
90 Kinetics" (PEK) model. This model assumes two different mechanisms for the exchange of water vapor relating  
91 to different sorption sites. Several assumptions have been established to describe the two-basis behavior of PEK  
92 model. Kohler *et al.* (Kohler *et al.* 2003, 2006) suggested that the fast kinetic process is associated with the  
93 formation of the monolayer or "bound" water and the slow kinetic process is assigned to the multilayer or "free"  
94 water. Okubayashi *et al.* (Okubayashi *et al.* 2004, 2005a, b) connected these two processes to water sorption sites  
95 accessibility. Thus, the fast-kinetic process is related to the sorption of "amorphous" regions and accessible internal  
96 surfaces, whereas the slow kinetic process is attributed to "inner" surfaces and "crystallites" sorption. Hill (Hill *et al.*  
97 *et al.* 2010a, b, c) and Xie (Xie *et al.* 2010, 2011c, b; Hill and Xie 2011) connected the fast sorption process to readily  
98 accessible sorption sites in the cell wall internal surface, whilst the slow process is linked to the production of new  
99 sites as the cell wall expands or the loss of these sites as the cell wall contracts. Guo *et al.* (Guo *et al.* 2017)  
100 confirmed this hypothesis. Besides an excellent fit to the experimental data, it provides a set of easily interpretable,  
101 physically meaningful parameters.

102 In this present work, a comparative study of water sorption and desorption of two natural cellulosic fibers, cotton  
103 and flax, and two regenerated cellulosic fibers, cellulose acetate and viscose is presented and discussed. The  
104 obtained isotherms were modelled using the Park model in order to have information about the sorption mode and  
105 the interactions between water molecules and cellulosic fibers at different water activity. The sorption and  
106 desorption kinetic curves were analyzed using the PEK model. A discussion of the physical interpretation from  
107 the fast and slow sorption processes of the PEK model is also presented. The obtained sorption properties results  
108 were correlated to the accessibility and the amount of sorption sites and also to the crystallinity level of the fibers.

## 109 Experimental

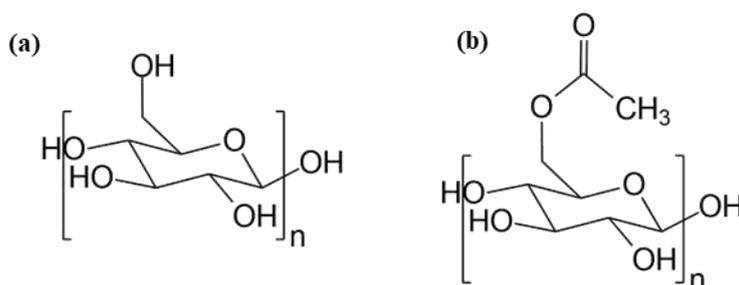
### 110 Materials

111 Four cellulosic materials, cotton (C), flax (F), viscose staple (V) and cellulose acetate (CA) supplied by *Les*  
112 *Tissages de Charlieu* (Charlieu, France), were used in the experiments. Degree of substitution (DS) of CA was  
113 determined using the procedure described by Rodrigues et al. (Rodrigues Filho et al. 2008). The characteristics of  
114 the fibers are given in Error! Reference source not found., and the chemical structure of cellulose and CA are in  
115 **Fig. 1**.

116 **Table 1** Mass percentage of the various constituents of various cellulosic and derivative fibers

Material	Mass composition (%)				Function	DS	Ref
	Cellulose	Hemicellulose	Pectin	Lignin			
C	82-99	3-6	0-5.7	-	-	-	(Bledzki and Gassan 1999; Olesen and Placket 1999; Lilholt and Lawther 2000; Mohanty et al. 2000)
F	64-85	10-20.6	2.3-12	0-5	-	-	(Klemm et al. 2005)
V	100	-	-	-	-	-	(Rodrigues Filho et al. 2008)
CA	100	-	-	-	Acetate	2,1 <sup>a</sup>	(Rodrigues Filho et al. 2008)

117 a: obtained by titration according to previously published procedures (Rodrigues Filho et al. 2008)



119 **Fig. 1** Chemical structure (a) cellulose (French 2017), (b) cellulose acetate in cellulosic fibers

### 120 Optical microscopy

121 Microscopy images were obtained using a Leica M205A stereomicroscope with greater sample depth, Planapo1.0x  
122 objective and magnification x150.

### 123 Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR)

124 FTIR spectra were recorded on a Nicolet iS10 infrared spectrometer from Thermo Fischer Scientific in attenuated  
125 total reflectance (ATR) mode with a diamond crystal. The scanning was conducted in the wave number range of  
126 4000-400  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  with a 64 repetition scans for each sample. The resolution was set at 4  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  during the measurement.

### 127 Wide-angle X-ray scattering (WAXS)

128 WAXS analyses in reflection (Bragg-Brentano) mode were carried out at room temperature using a Cu tube ( $\lambda =$   
129 1,54 Å, 40 kV, 40 mA) and a nickel filter in order to remove the  $K\beta$  line and a Bruker D8 Advance diffractometer

130 with a Bragg-Brentano configuration. The diffraction patterns were obtained in a  $2\theta$  range between  $5^\circ$  and  $50^\circ$  by  
131 step of  $0.02^\circ$ . Fibers were deposited on corundum substrate with a thin transfer adhesive of low scattering response.

132 Crystallinity index ( $X_c$ ) was determined by deconvolution method.  $X_c$  which is defined as the ratio of the sum of  
133 area of cellulose crystalline peaks ( $A_{cr}$ ) to the sum of the area of the total peaks of sample material including  
134 amorphous part ( $A_{am}$ ) as defined by the following equation (**Eq. 1**):

$$X_c(\%) = \frac{A_{cr}}{A_{cr} + A_{am}} \times 100 \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

### 135 Vapor water sorption

136 Water sorption isotherms of the different fibers were determined at  $25^\circ\text{C}$  by using the dynamic vapor sorption  
137 analyzer (DVS Advantage, London, United Kingdom). The vapor partial pressure was controlled by mixing dry  
138 and saturated nitrogen, using electronic mass flow controllers. The initial mass of the samples was between 15 to  
139 40 mg. Each sample was pre-dried by exposure to dry nitrogen until the dry mass was obtained ( $m_0$ ). A partial  
140 pressure of vapor ( $p$ ) was then established within the apparatus and the mass of the sample ( $m_t$ ) was followed as  
141 a function of time. The mass of the sample at equilibrium ( $m_{eq}$ ) was considered to be reached when changes in  
142 mass with time ( $dm/dt$ ) were lower than  $2 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ \%} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$  for at least 10 consecutive minutes. Then, the samples  
143 were exposed to the following water activity (0.05, 0.10, 0.20, 0.30, 0.40, 0.50, 0.60, 0.70, 0.80, 0.90 and 0.95),  
144 before decreasing to 0 in the reverse order. The value of the mass gain at equilibrium ( $M$ ) defined as  
145  $(m_t - m_0)/m_0$  for each water activity ( $a_w$ ) allowed plotting the water sorption and desorption isotherms for each  
146 sample.

## 147 Theory

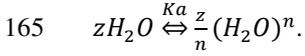
### 148 Thermodynamic analysis

149 The mathematical description of the sorption isotherms can bring useful information concerning the sorption mode  
150 and the interactions involved in the sorption process (Leung 1983; Farahnaky et al. 2009). Several models have  
151 already been used to describe sigmoidal type isotherms. These models are classified into three different  
152 groups (Iglesias and Chirife 1976): (i) empirical models (like Smith, Oswin and Peleg models), (ii) semi-empirical  
153 models (like Ferro-Fontan, Henderson and Halsey models) and (iii) models based on a multi-layer approach  
154 (Modified-Brunauer, Emmett, Teller (BET) model and GAB model) (Al-Muhtaseb et al. 2004). Park has proposed  
155 a model which offers a detailed description of sorption phenomena by expressing  $M$  versus  $a_w$  (Park 1986). This  
156 model comprises three terms, (**Eq. 2**):

$$M = \frac{A_L b_L a_w}{1 + b_L a_w} + k_H a_w + K_a a_w^n \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

157 The first term describes Langmuir sorption which leads to a plateau of concentration when water activity increases,  
158 corresponding to the saturation of the specific sites of sorption. Langmuir's terms,  $A_L$ , (Langmuir capacity  
159 constant) and  $b_L$  (Langmuir affinity constant) have an influence in the first step of water sorption, at low water  
160 activity. The second term defines a linear evolution of the mass gain when the water activity increases (Henry's  
161 law). Henry's solubility coefficient,  $k_H$ , defines the slope of the isotherm in the second zone. The third term is a

162 power function which represents the water aggregation phenomenon. The two last parameters,  $K_a$ , the equilibrium  
 163 constant for the clustering reaction and,  $n$ , the mean number of water molecules per cluster can be linked to the  
 164 equilibrium state corresponding to the aggregate formation in the last zone at high water activity:



166 with  $z$ , the total number of water molecules sorbed. However, it should be noted that the  $n$  value represents a  
 167 fitting parameter related to the mathematical calculation of the Park model and thus may be different of the real  
 168 mean cluster size which was determined at different activity using Zimm and Lundberg theory.

169 To evaluate the accuracy of Park model to describe the experimental water sorption isotherms of the different  
 170 fibers, the coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) and the standard error of estimate ( $SE$ ) were used.  $SE$  is defined by the  
 171 following equation (Eq. 3):

$$SE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (m_i - m_{pi})^2}{N}} \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

172 where  $m_i$  is the experimental value,  $m_{pi}$  is the predicted value, and  $N$  is the number of experimental data.  $R^2$   
 173 values close to unity and low values of  $SE$  mean that the model is able to explain the variation in the experimental  
 174 data. The parameters of Park equation were determined by fitting using the software Origin 9.1.

#### 175 Kinetics analysis

176 A change of water vapor activity around the sample (from  $a_{wi}$  to  $a_{w(i+1)}$ ) induced its water content to change with  
 177 time until a new equilibrium is reached. Diffusion is a process by which water molecules are transported from one  
 178 part of a system to another one as a result of random molecular motions. The molecules first dissolve in the polymer  
 179 and subsequently diffuse through the polymer. It has been shown that the water vapor sorption kinetics of cellulosic  
 180 fibers is not Fickian (Van Der Wel and Adan 1999; Krabbenhoft and Damkilde 2004). Kohler *et al.* (Kohler *et al.*  
 181 2003, 2006) have reported that water exchange of cellulosic fibers, can be modelled by two parallel independent  
 182 first order processes constituting the “Parallel Exponential Kinetics” (PEK) model. This model assumes two  
 183 different mechanisms for the exchange of water vapor relating to different sorption sites. Besides an excellent fit  
 184 to the experimental data, it provides a set of easily interpretable.

185 According to their method, experimental moisture content is simulated as a function of time as described in the  
 186 equation below (Eq. 4):

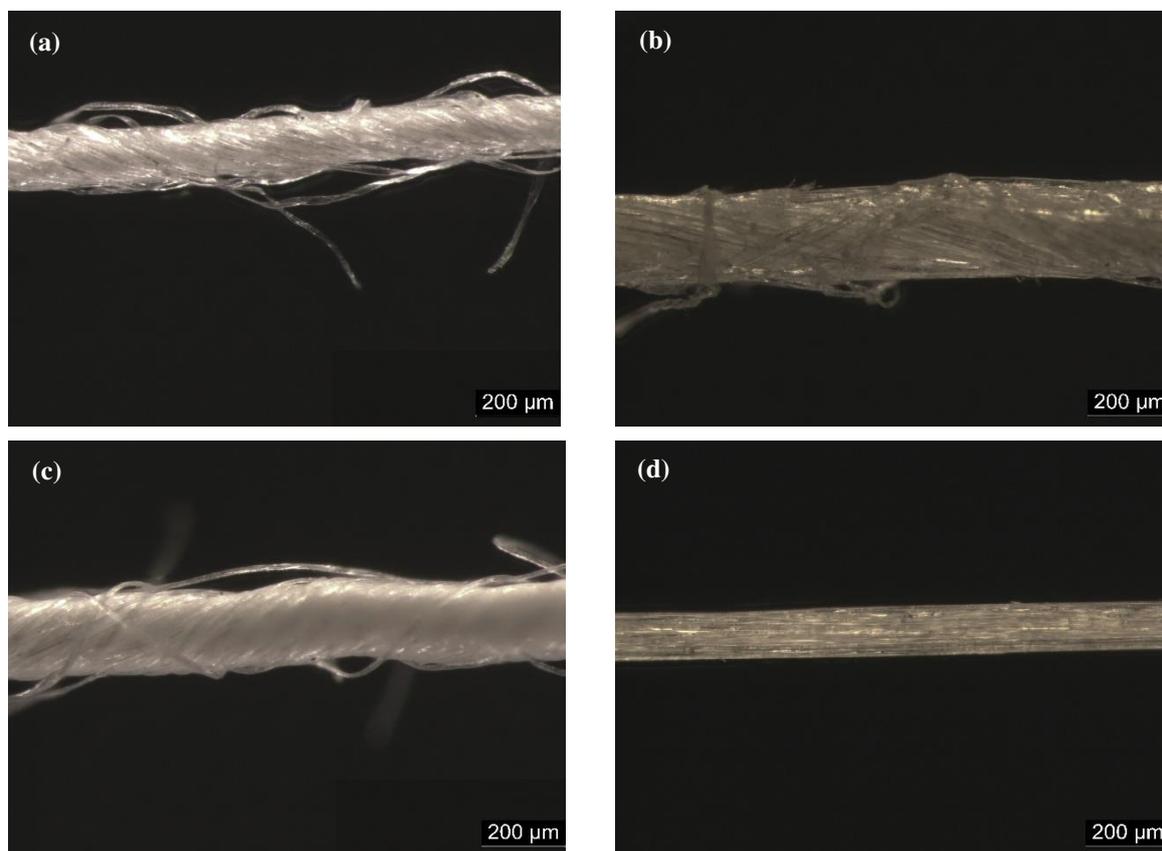
$$M_t = M_{fast} (1 - e^{-t/t_{fast}}) + M_{slow} (1 - e^{-t/t_{slow}}) \quad \text{Eq. 4}$$

187 Where,  $M_t$  is the water content at time  $t$ ,  $M_{fast}$   $M_{slow}$  are water contents at infinite time and  $t_{fast}$   $t_{slow}$  are  
 188 characteristic times for the two kinetic process. Subscripts 1 et 2 indicate the two kinetic processes defined as fast  
 189 and slow, corresponding to slow and fast sorption sites. The fast-kinetic process has been proposed to be related  
 190 to the fast moisture sorption at the sites of “external” surfaces and “amorphous” regions, whereas the slow-kinetic  
 191 process has been related to the sorption of “inner” surfaces and “crystallites” (Okubayashi *et al.* 2005b).

192 **Results and discussion**

193 **Optical microscopy**

194 The morphology of derivatives cellulosic fibers obtained by optical microscopy are seen in **Fig. 2**. The V, F, C  
195 fibers consist of multifilament twisted. CA fibers are oriented. Similar images have been found in the literature by  
196 Arbelaz et al. and Mozdyniewicz et al. 2016.(Arbelaz et al. 2005; Mozdyniewicz et al. 2016).



197 Fig. 2. Optical microscopy picture of (a) cotton, (b) flax, (c) viscose staple and (d) cellulose acetate fibers (Gx150)

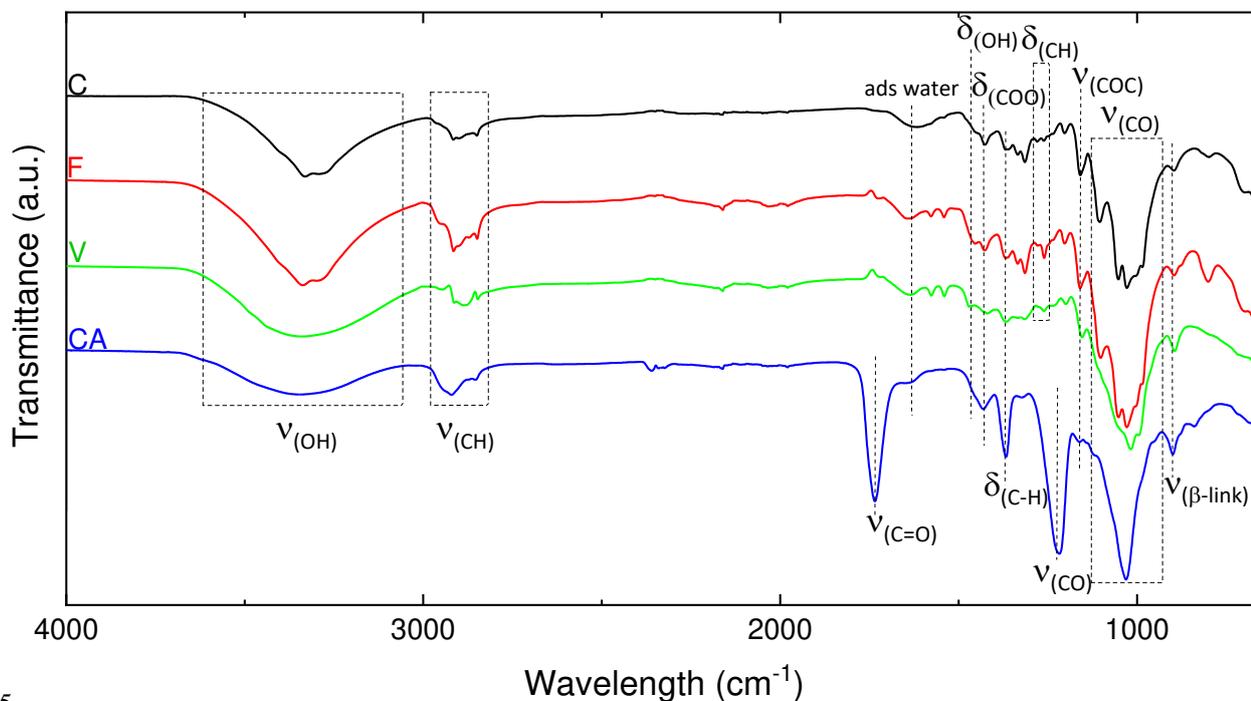
198

199 **Chemical structure**

200 The chemical composition of C, F, V and CA fibers was analyzed using FTIR-ATR. The interesting peaks are  
201 identified in **Fig. 3**. C, V and F fibers have a similar chemical footprint (Alix et al. 2009; Céline et al. 2013; Abidi  
202 et al. 2014). The broad absorption band between  $3600$  and  $3000\text{ cm}^{-1}$  is the characteristic of the O-H stretching  
203 vibration and hydrogen bond of the hydroxyl groups. The band at  $1630\text{ cm}^{-1}$  was assigned to bending mode of the  
204 adsorbed water. The peak at  $1460\text{ cm}^{-1}$  corresponds to the OH bending and that at  $1160\text{ cm}^{-1}$  related to the C-O  
205 antisymmetric bridge stretching (Das et al. 2014). The absorption band at  $1311\text{ cm}^{-1}$  was assigned to  $\text{CH}_2$   
206 stretching. In addition, the non-cellulosic polysaccharides were almost completely eliminated, as indicated by the  
207 absence of a peak at  $1210\text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

208 The spectrum of CA fibers provides strong evidence of acetylation by showing the presence of three important  
209 ester bonds at  $1730\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C=O ester),  $1367\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C-H bond in -O-CO-CH<sub>3</sub> group) and C-O stretching band of

210 acetyl group at  $1220\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (Das et al. 2014). The intensity of the broad band at  $3400\text{ cm}^{-1}$  assigned to the stretching  
 211 of the hydroxyl group decreased for CA compared with natural cellulose. A strong band at  $1051\text{ cm}^{-1}$  was due to  
 212 the C-O-C pyranose ring skeletal vibration. Another important aspect observed in the CA spectrum was the  
 213 decreasing absorption intensity of the band located at around  $3400\text{ cm}^{-1}$  assigned to the stretching of the hydroxyl  
 214 group when compared with C or F.



215  
 216 **Fig. 3** FTIR spectra of C, F, V, CA fibers

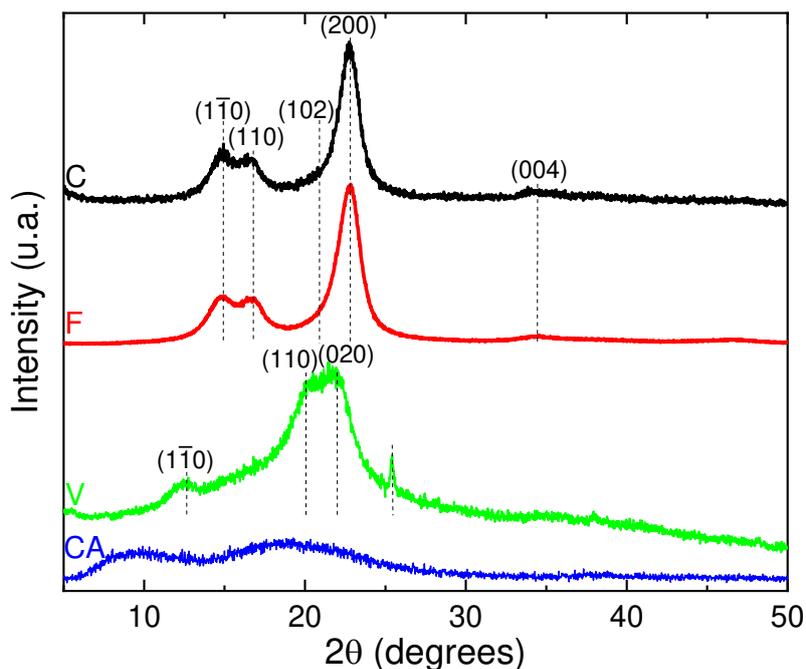
217  
 218 **XRD measurements**

219 XRD analyzes were performed in reflection mode. The obtained XRD patterns are presented in **Fig. 4**. The  
 220 diffraction diagrams of C and F fibers are consistent with the description of natural cellulose provide by French  
 221 (French 2014). The diffraction peaks show five diffractions peaks at  $2\theta = 14.9^\circ, 16.7^\circ, 21.0^\circ, 22.7^\circ$  and  $34.7^\circ$  and  
 222 were assigned to the diffraction planes  $(1\bar{1}0)$ ,  $(110)$ ,  $(102)$ ,  $(200)$  and  $(004)$  respectively (Park et al. 2010;  
 223 Duchemin et al. 2012; French 2014; Kafle et al. 2014). These peaks belong to cellulose  $I_\beta$  crystalline structure.

224 The diffraction diagram of V fiber show three peaks at  $2\theta = 12.5^\circ, 21.0^\circ$  and  $22.2^\circ$  assigned to the  $(1\bar{1}0)$ ,  $(110)$ ,  
 225  $(020)$  planes respectively (Hindeleh and Johnson 1974; Ibbett et al. 2008; Karacan and Soy 2013; French 2014;  
 226 Kafle et al. 2014; Kale et al. 2020) and were related to the cellulose II crystalline structure after  
 227 mercerization (Kafle et al. 2014). An additional peak is observed at  $2\theta = 25.4^\circ$  and was assigned to the anatase  
 228 phase of titanium dioxide ( $\text{TiO}_2$ ) which gives a white coloration to the V fiber (Reddy et al. 2003).

229 The XRD pattern of CA show a diffraction peak around  $9.1^\circ$  attributed to the crystalline peaks of CA II (Deus et  
 230 al. 1991). In addition, a diffraction peak at around  $19.7^\circ$ , which was commonly assigned to the less ordered or  
 231 amorphous region of the cellulose chains (Freire et al. 2006).

232 A deconvolution procedure was applied on the XRD patterns according to the position of the different peaks  
 233 defined previously, using the open software Fityk. The diffraction pattern can be decomposed into a broad  
 234 amorphous halo centered at  $2\theta = 19.5^\circ$  and Gaussian functions for each crystalline peak (Ibbett et al. 2008; Terinte  
 235 et al. 2011; Wu et al. 2014). The curves resulting from the deconvolution are presented in Supporting information,  
 236 section **SI1** and allow quantifying the degree of crystallinity ( $X_c$ ). Cellulosic fibers from various plants and  
 237 different treatments differ considerably in their crystallinity index, as evidenced by a large number of investigative  
 238 methods (Thygesen et al. 2005; Park et al. 2010; Terinte et al. 2011). Consequently,  $X_c$  values were calculated for  
 239 each fiber and the data are listed in **Table 2**.



240  
 241 **Fig. 4** WAXS patterns of C, F, V and CA fibers

242 **Table 2** Crystallinity index of the fibers

Material	$X_c$ (%)
C	$61 \pm 3$
F	$67 \pm 2$
V	$34 \pm 1$
CA	< 15

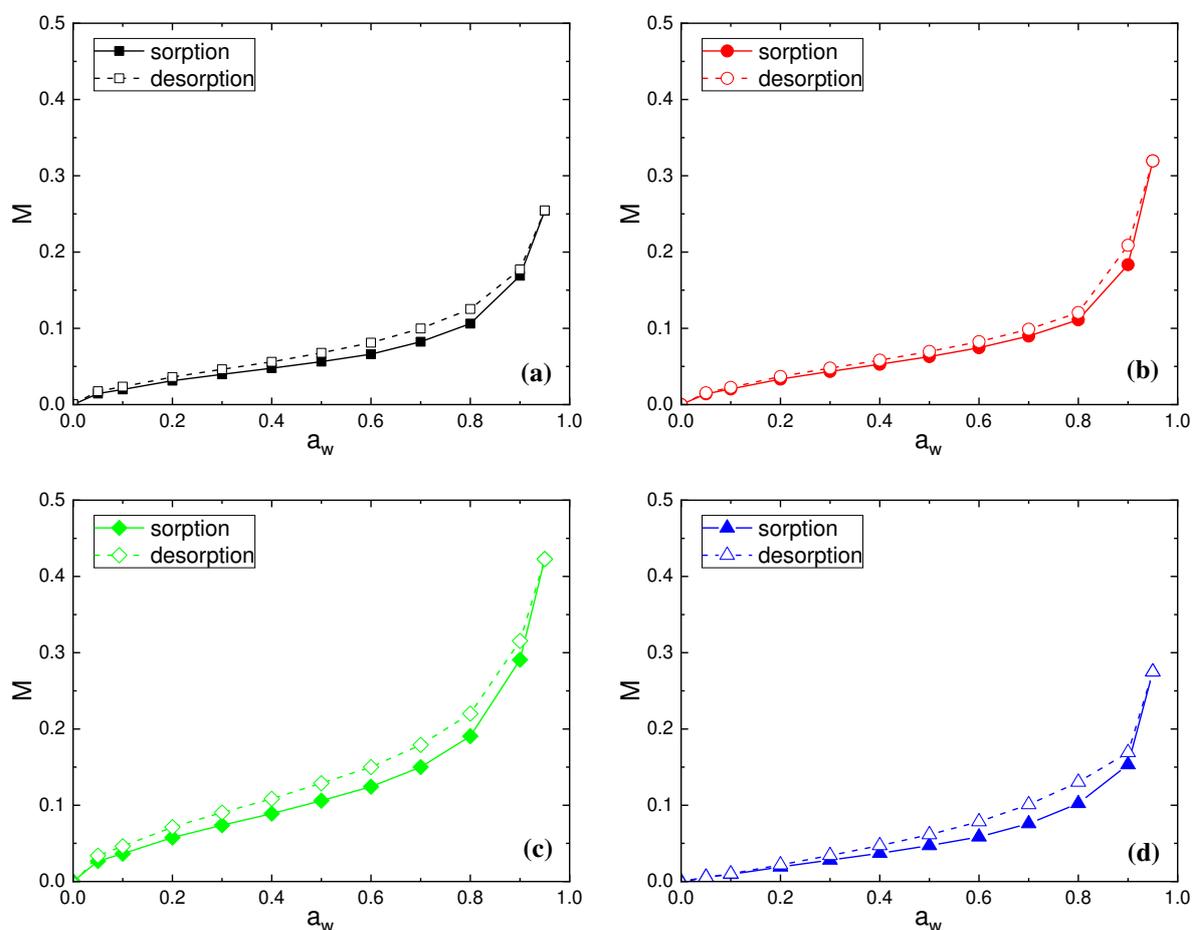
243  
 244 C and F fibers had a crystallinity index up to 60 %, with 61 and 67 % respectively. The obtained values of  $X_c$  were  
 245 in good agreement to those obtained by Yueping et al. and Mikhalovska et al. (Yueping et al. 2010; Mikhalovska  
 246 et al. 2012). The cellulosic derivatives display a low crystallinity index compared to the native cellulose ( $X_c = 34$  %  
 247 and less than 15 % for V and CA, respectively). The decrease of crystallinity of CA has been explained by the fact  
 248 that the substitution of the hydroxyl groups by acetyl with greater volume, break the inter- and intra-molecular  
 249 hydrogen bonds of cellulose (Hu et al. 2011; Das et al. 2014) and the decrease of crystallinity of V was attributed  
 250 to the mercerization treatment as explained by Kafle *et al.* (Kafle et al. 2014). Variations in the crystallinity of  
 251 fibers can influence their textural characteristics, especially during interactions with water resulting in swelling.

252 Water vapor sorption

253 Sorption isotherms

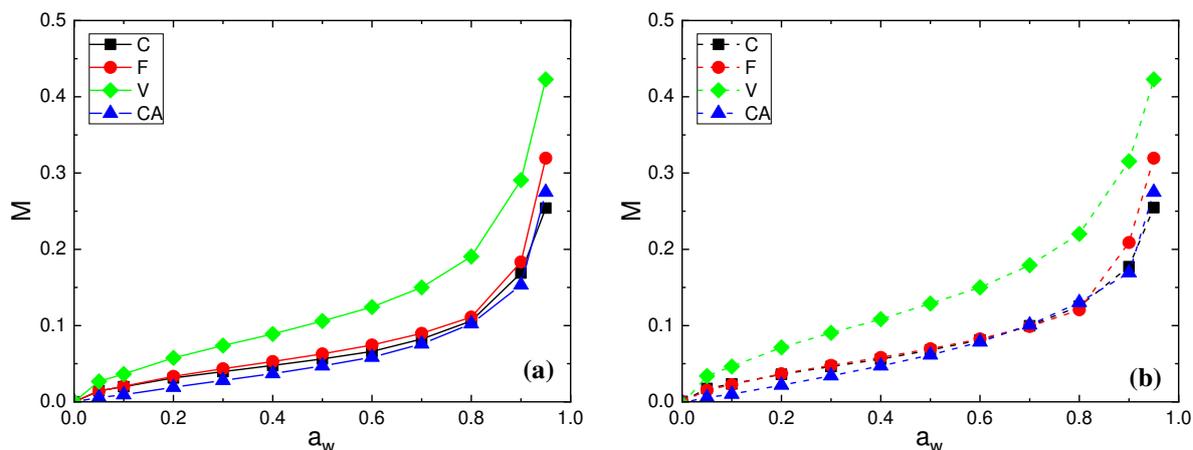
254 The hydrophilic behavior of cellulosic materials depends on their composition and their structural properties  
255 (Célineo et al. 2014). Cellulosic derivatives have hydroxyl groups on cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin which are  
256 able to establish hydrogen bond with water molecules. Moreover, a water vapor sorption occurs on non-crystalline  
257 areas and crystalline surfaces (Okubayashi et al. 2004). It has already been demonstrated that the crystallinity and  
258 the amount of hydrophilic sites could play a significant role on the water sorption behavior of fibers (Mihrianyan  
259 et al. 2004).

260 Individual moisture sorption/desorption isotherms are shown in **Fig. 5** for the following fibers: C [**Fig. 5(a)**], F  
261 [**Fig. 5(b)**], V [**Fig. 5(c)**] and CA [**Fig. 5(d)**]. The sorption and desorption isotherm curves for all fibers have a  
262 sigmoid or S-shape, which corresponds to the type II in the classification of BET. This behavior is very typical of  
263 cellulosic-based materials (Hill et al. 2009; Célineo et al. 2014) and can be generalized to many hydrophilic  
264 materials (Sabard et al. 2012; Ormondroyd et al. 2017). The sorption and desorption isotherms of CA fiber had a  
265 less pronounced sigmoid shape compared to the others fibers. This can be explained by a decrease of the amount  
266 of sorption sites because hydroxyl groups are substituted by acetyl groups leading to a decrease of available  
267 sorption sites (Gocho et al. 2000; Beever and Valentine 2007; Masclaux et al. 2010; Cunha et al. 2014; Himmel  
268 and Mai 2016).



269 **Fig. 5** Water isotherms of (a) C, (b) F, (c) V and (d) CA fibers

270 The differences in sorption and desorption behavior are more clearly illustrated when the curves are overlaid in  
 271 **Fig. 6(a)** (sorption) and **Fig. 6(b)** (desorption).



272 **Fig. 6** Water (a) sorption and (b) desorption of C, F, V and CA fibers

273 V exhibited higher water sorption and desorption capacities because of large number of free hydroxyl groups  
 274 presented in regenerative cellulose and a relatively low crystallinity index ( $X_c = 34\%$ ). Then, F and C fibers had  
 275 close water sorption and desorption uptakes in the whole range of water activity. Despite a higher crystallinity  
 276 index, F fiber had a slightly higher level of water uptake compared to C fiber. This result is in agreement with this  
 277 obtained by Mikhalovska *et al.* (Mikhalovska et al. 2012) and was explained by the presence of lignin in F fiber  
 278 which was able to participate to the water sorption process. According to Hill *et al.*, the reason why more highly  
 279 lignified fibers show a higher water uptake may be related to the ability of the lignin network to accommodate  
 280 water within the cell wall. The hydroxyl groups content to unit mass ratio is lower than with cellulose, thus OH  
 281 accessibility would be higher in lignin compared with cellulose (Hill et al. 2009). Cellulose acetate, due to the  
 282 hydroxyl substitution into acetyl groups, exhibited the lowest water concentration despite its low crystallinity.  
 283 Therefore, it appears that not only the crystallinity but also swelling and sorption sites amount affected water  
 284 sorption capacity of cellulosic fibers.

285 To further understand the sorption and desorption mechanisms, Park's model was used according to **Eq. 2**. The  
 286 Park's model is consistent with a multistep sorption mode, usually observed for hydrophilic polymers and can be  
 287 divided into three terms. The Langmuir-type sorption relates to the sorption of the first water molecules on specific  
 288 sorption sites within fibers. The Henry type law sorption describes the random dissolution of sorbed water  
 289 molecules in the polymer for an intermediate water activity range. The third term corresponds to the water  
 290 aggregation displayed by an exponential change in water mass gain. The values of the Park parameters for the all  
 291 the fibers are summarized in **Table 3**. The examination of **SE** and  
 292 **R<sup>2</sup>**, indicates that the Park's model can be used to describe the experimental sorption and desorption isotherms  
 293 with a good accuracy.

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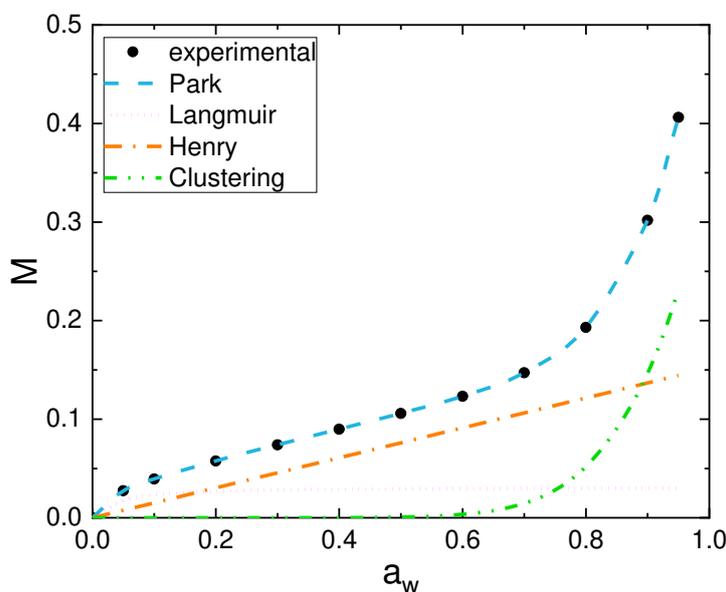
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297 **Table 3** Sorption and desorption parameters of Park determined from water sorption isotherm of the fibers

Material		$A_L$	$b_L$	$k_H$	$K_a$	$n$	$SE$	$R^2$
C	S	0.0100	60	0.090	0.290	13	$1.8 \times 10^{-3}$	0.987
	D	0.0100	60	0.120	0.260	14	$1.3 \times 10^{-3}$	0.996
F	S	0.0102	81	0.107	0.516	18	$1.7 \times 10^{-3}$	0.999
	D	0.0106	70	0.126	0.504	18	$1.1 \times 10^{-3}$	0.997
V	S	0.0311	35	0.152	0.387	10	$2.3 \times 10^{-3}$	0.997
	D	0.0317	38	0.202	0.377	12	$1.7 \times 10^{-3}$	0.999
CA	S	0.0000	0	0.104	0.456	19	$4.7 \times 10^{-3}$	0.996
	D	0.0000	0	0.125	0.447	18	$6.0 \times 10^{-3}$	0.982

298

299 An example of plotting of isotherm sorption curve showing the three mode contributions is reported in **Fig. 7** for  
 300 the V fiber.



301

302 **Fig. 7** Experimental results and Park fit to experimental sorption isotherms for V staple fibers

303 Regarding the analysis of the Park model parameters, the chemical composition and the crystallinity index of  
 304 cellulose have an influence on the three sorption modes. About the Langmuir mode, the evolutions of mass gain  
 305 for all the fibers are shown in Supporting information, section **SI2a**. The parameter  $A_L$  which defines the Langmuir  
 306 capacity corresponds to the value at the plateau whereas the Langmuir affinity constant  $b_L$  governs the water  
 307 activity where the plateau is reached.  $A_L$  and  $b_L$  values of CA are close to zero due to a low amount of Langmuir  
 308 sorption sites and the presence of acetyl groups. F and C exhibit close values of  $A_L$  and  $b_L$  respectively due to the  
 309 same amount of hydroxyl groups in both fibers and the same water affinity for the specific groups. The activity to  
 310 reach the plateau for these fibers was around 0.2. V exhibits the highest value  $A_L$  because of the presence of a large  
 311 accessible number of free hydroxyl groups presented in regenerative cellulose and  $b_L$  value is lower compared to  
 312 those obtained for F and C with a water activity to reach the plateau around 0.4.

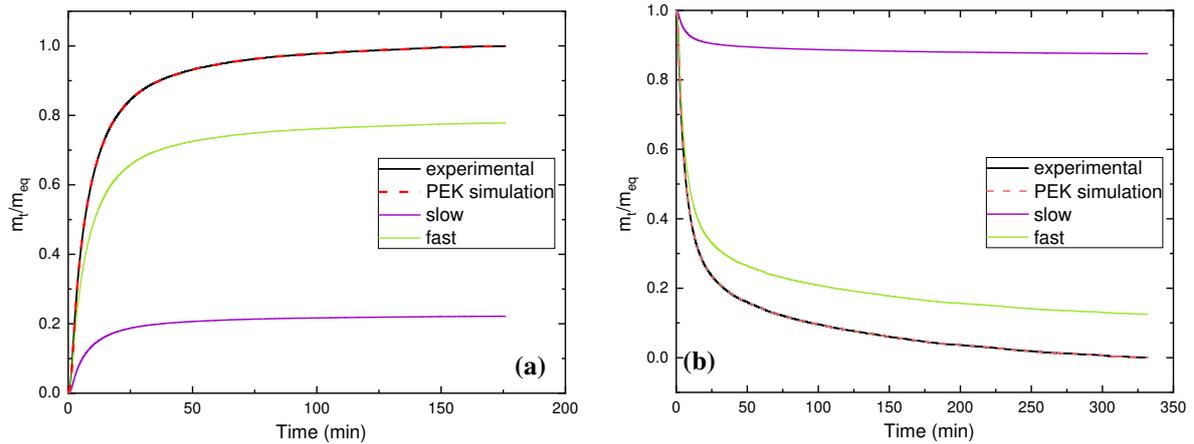
313 The evolutions of the mass gain of the Henry sorption mode as a function of the water activity for all fibers are  
314 shown in Supporting information, section **S2b**. The curves show a linear increase and the slope value is the Henry's  
315 solubility coefficient  $k_H$ . The  $k_H$  values exhibit an ascending sequence for C, CA, F and V, respectively. The  $k_H$   
316 parameter value defined as the random sorption of the water molecules in the fibers can be related to the level of  
317 amorphous phase, the presence of lignin and the amount of free volume of the fiber (Gouanvé et al. 2006).

318 The third term corresponding to the water aggregation phenomenon, displayed by an exponential change in water  
319 mass gain as a function of the water activity, as seen in Supporting information, section **S2c**. The  $K_a$  values  
320 (equilibrium constant for the clustering mechanism) and  $n$  (mean number of water molecules per cluster) can be  
321 linked to the equilibrium state corresponding to the formation of water molecules aggregate at high water activity.  
322 V fibers exhibit the highest water sorbed molecules in an aggregation state. For the other fibers, close values were  
323 obtained up to  $a_w = 0.9$  and differed at  $a_w = 0.95$  with a descending sequence for F, CA and C.

324 Park's parameters were compared for the sorption and desorption isotherms for each fiber. Regardless the fiber,  
325 differences were obtained only for the Henry sorption mode where a higher value of  $k_H$  was obtained for the  
326 desorption isotherms. No significant differences were observed for the  $A_L$ ,  $b_L$ ,  $K_a$  and  $n$  meaning that Langmuir  
327 and water aggregation modes were not depended on the sorption or desorption mode.

### 328 *Sorption kinetics*

329 The sorption and desorption kinetic behavior of the different fibers was also studied using the "Parallel Exponential  
330 Kinetics" model (PEK-model). The interpretation of this model, is the existence of two distinct sorbent sites, with  
331 different accessibilities for water vapor, according to the different characteristic times  $t_{Fast}$ ,  $t_{Slow}$  and with  
332 different sorption capacity given by the equilibrium masses  $M_{\infty Fast}$  and  $M_{\infty Slow}$ . According to Xie *et al.* (Xie et al.  
333 2011a), the fast kinetic process has been related to the sorption at the sites of the readily accessible internal surfaces  
334 and 'amorphous' regions, while the slow kinetic process has been related to sorption onto the 'inner' surfaces and  
335 'crystallites' (Okubayashi et al. 2004). This hypothesis has been tested and reported upon previously and it was  
336 concluded that there is little evidence supporting this idea (Bessadok et al. 2009; Xie et al. 2010; Belbekhouche et  
337 al. 2011; Hill and Xie 2011). For illustration, examples of fitting, exhibiting the contributions of slow and fast  
338 processes, is reported in **Fig. 8** for C in the activity range from 0.2 to 0.3 and 0.4 to 0.3 for sorption and desorption  
339 respectively. The model is suitable to describe the experimental sorption and desorption kinetic curves considering  
340 both contributions. The values of the parameters of the PEK model for sorption and desorption were determined  
341 at each water activity for the whole fibers. A comparison of the characteristic time coefficients extracted from the  
342 modelling in all the range of activity are shown in **Fig. 9**. For C, F and V,  $t_{Fast}$  and  $t_{Slow}$  for sorption and  
343 desorption showed a similar trend. The times decreased at low water activity (0.05 to 0.2), remained relatively  
344 constant in the medium range activity (0.2 to 0.6) and then increased at high water activity (0.6 to 0.95).



345 **Fig. 8** PEK simulations of experimental data of  $m_t/m_{eq}$  with contribution of slow and fast process for **(a)** sorption (from  $a_w=$   
 346 0.2 to 0.3) and **(b)** desorption (from  $a_w= 0.3$  to 0.2) for C at 25 °C

347 The obtained characteristic times are the inverse of kinetic rate constants and are certainly related to diffusion  
 348 coefficients (Kohler et al. 2006), so a high characteristic time means a low process rate. Thus, kinetic rates increase,  
 349 then stay constant and finally decrease. This trend has already been reported in the literature for hydrophilic  
 350 materials (Gouanvé et al. 2006; Alix et al. 2009; Bessadok et al. 2009; Belbekhouche et al. 2011) and it is in  
 351 agreement with the three consecutive steps of a BET type II sorption mechanism (Langmuir, Henry and  
 352 aggregation). The increase of the kinetic rate for a low water content can be explained by the double sorption mode  
 353 (Langmuir + Henry). Water molecules predominately were sorbed in Langmuir's sites (specific sites of  
 354 interactions) in which they were partially or totally immobilized. Then, Henry's type adsorption becomes dominant  
 355 and the sorption rate increases until a constant value. The decrease of sorption rate has been explained in 1947 by  
 356 Rouse (Barrie and Platt; Rouse 1940) as the consequence of aggregation of water molecules. This can be assigned  
 357 to the increase of cluster size of the diffuse species which become less mobile. This trend has already been observed  
 358 by Gouanvé et al. (Gouanvé et al. 2007).

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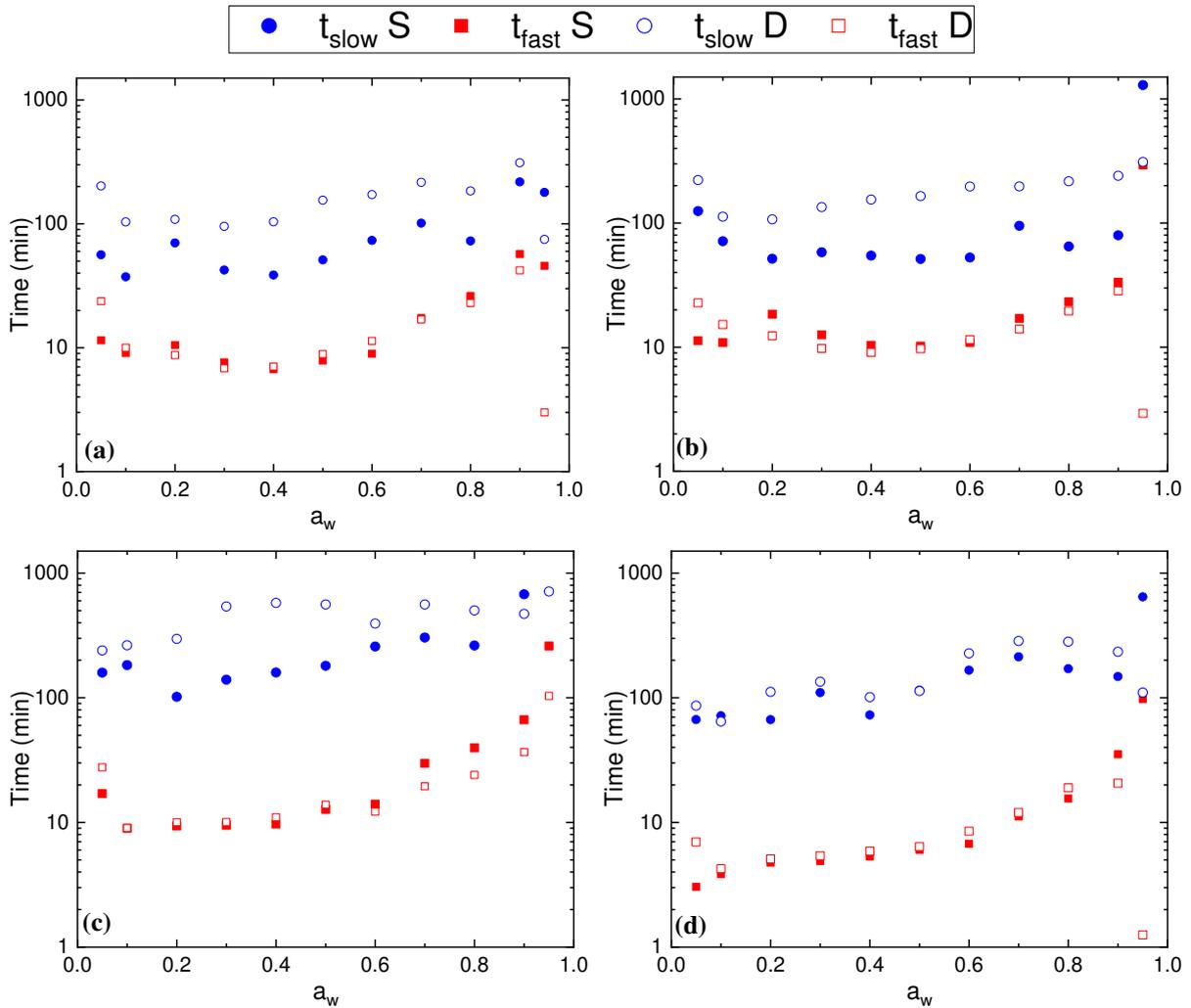
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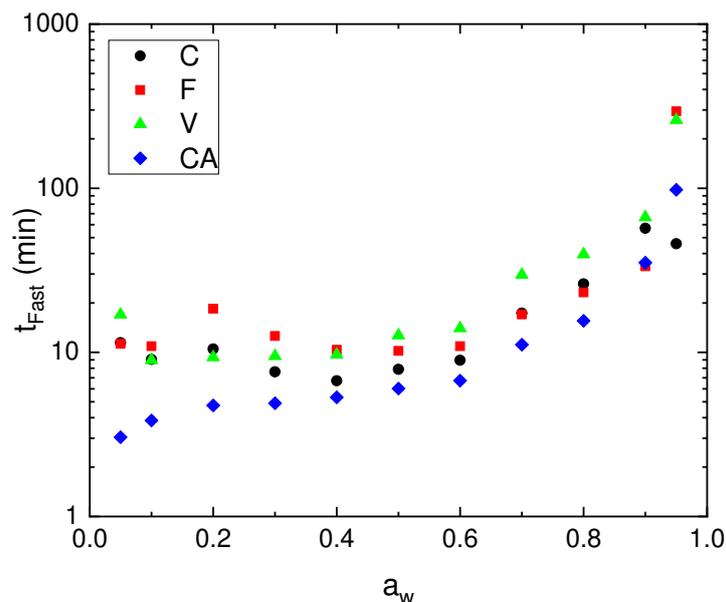
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369 **Fig. 9** Variation of characteristics times for the fast and slow adsorption and desorption processes versus RH for (a) C, (b) F,  
 370 (c) V and (d) CA fibers

371 For CA,  $t_{Fast}$ .and  $t_{Slow}$  for sorption and desorption are relatively constant until  $a_w = 0.6$  and then increase at  
 372 high water activity (0.6 to 0.95). The non-occurrence of the decrease of characteristic times at low water activity  
 373 was due to the low amount of sorption sites of CA fibers because hydroxyl groups are substituted by acetyl groups  
 374 (Popescu et al. 2014).

375 Characteristic times were compared for the sorption and desorption to determine the effect on the kinetic rate. For  
 376 C, F and V,  $t_{Fast}$  for sorption ( $t_{Fast}$  S) and desorption ( $t_{Fast}$  D) are almost constant meaning that the fast process  
 377 is similar. For the slow process, in the whole range of water activity,  $t_{Slow}$  D are always higher than  $t_{Slow}$  S  
 378 meaning that the kinetic rate was higher for sorption than desorption. This trend has already been observed by  
 379 Kohler et al. (Kohler et al. 2003) and Hill et al.(Xie et al. 2011b).



380 **Fig. 10** Variation of characteristics times for fast sorption processes versus  $a_w$  for C, F, V and CA fibers

381 The differences among cellulosic fibers in the fast process behavior are more clearly illustrated when the curves  
 382 are overlaid in **Fig. 10**. The characteristic times are close to each other for C, F and V, in the whole range of water  
 383 activity meaning that the fast sorption process is similar. Lower values of  $t_{Fast}$  were obtained for CA meaning that  
 384 the kinetic sorption rate is higher. This result can be explained by a lower affinity of water molecules due to the  
 385 decrease of the hydroxyl groups within the fibers.

## 386 **Conclusions**

387 This study has shown that there are considerable differences in the sorption/desorption behavior between cellulosic  
 388 derivatives. Hydrophilic behavior of cellulosic materials depends on their composition and their structural  
 389 properties. More specifically, it depends on the amount of sorption sites (hydroxyl groups) and the amorphous  
 390 fraction. To understand the sorption mechanisms from the thermodynamic and kinetic point of view, Park and  
 391 PEK model were used respectively.

392 V fibers isotherms shown the highest water sorption capacity allowed by the greatest hydroxyl groups accessibility  
 393 and the large fraction of amorphous phase, followed by flax and cotton which have a more crystalline structure.  
 394 Cellulose acetate, due to the hydroxyl substitution into acetyl groups, exhibited the lowest water content despite  
 395 its low crystallinity. The Park model provides extremely good fits to the experimental data over the entire range  
 396 of water activity for the all cellulosic fibers. The Park's model parameters were compared for the sorption and  
 397 desorption isotherms for each fiber. Regardless the fiber nature, differences were obtained only for the Henry  
 398 sorption.

399 The sorption and desorption kinetic curves were analyzed by using the PEK model which has provided excellent  
 400 fits for the all cellulosic fibers. Regarding characteristic times, similar trend was noticed for sorption and  
 401 desorption which agree with the BET isotherm. Similar characteristic times  $t_{Fast}$  were found in sorption and  
 402 desorption but different behaviors were observed in sorption and desorption for the slow process. This difference  
 403 is linked to the presence of sorption sites and their accessibility.

## 404 **Acknowledgment**

405 The authors gratefully acknowledge Ruben Vera and the Centre de Diffractométrie Henri Longchambon of  
406 Univeristy of Lyon 1 for the reflection XRD experiments.

## 407 **Funding**

408 This work was supported by FUI (*Fonds Unique Interministériel*) of the French government and the European  
409 Regional Development Fund (FEDER) of Region aura through the PLUG&WET project led by “Les Tissages de  
410 Charlieu”

## 411 **Conflicts of interest/Competing interests**

412 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

## 413 **Compliance with Ethical Standards**

414 No animal studies or human participants involvement in the study

## 415 **Availability of data and material (data transparency)**

416 All data and materials as well as software application or custom code support published claims and comply with  
417 field standards.

## 418 **Authors' contributions**

419 Conceptualization: [René Fulchiron], [Fabrice Gouanvé]; Methodology: [Mathilde Simon], [René Fulchiron],  
420 [Fabrice Gouanvé]; Formal analysis and investigation: [Mathilde Simon]; Writing - original draft preparation:  
421 [Mathilde Simon], [René Fulchiron], [Fabrice Gouanvé]; Funding acquisition: [René Fulchiron], [Fabrice  
422 Gouanvé]; Resources: [René Fulchiron] [Fabrice Gouanvé]; Supervision: [René Fulchiron] [Fabrice Gouanvé]

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