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1    **Disentangling Heat and Moisture Effects on**  
2    **Biopolymer Mechanics**

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14

15    **Abstract**

16 Heat and moisture are known to have important mechanical effects on polymers such as hygric  
17 swelling, thermal expansion and mechanical weakening. A common approach when  
18 investigating such effects is to assume the effects of heat and moisture to be similar – the so-  
19 called time-temperature-moisture superposition. Through molecular dynamics simulation, this  
20 study evaluates the extent of the similarity of the effects of moisture and heat on the hygric  
21 swelling, thermal expansion and mechanical weakening of a biopolymer: an uncondensed type of  
22 lignin, one of the most abundant polymers in the plant regime. We introduce as a microscopic  
23 metric the local stiffness ( $T/\langle u^2 \rangle$ ), temperature divided by the amplitude of segmental motion  
24 ( $\langle u^2 \rangle$ ), to analyze the mechanisms of mechanical effects of heat and moisture. The local stiffness  
25 of polymer skeleton and the overall stiffness of the composite material are shown to be strongly  
26 correlated, with a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.96. Under the assumptions of harmonic  
27 vibration and isotropy, an explicit equation relating bulk moduli and the local stiffness can be  
28 derived, and the theoretically predicted moduli are in good agreement with measurement. The  
29 thermal expansion and weakening are shown to be related to each other and both dependent on  
30 the local stiffness. The analysis of the potential energy further points out that heating weakens  
31 both primary and secondary bonds of the polymer skeleton, while hydration only affects the  
32 secondary bonds. This major difference is thought to be the origin of the different impacts of  
33 heat and moisture on biopolymer mechanics, offering a different view of the time-temperature-  
34 moisture superposition principle.

35

## 36 **1 Introduction**

37 The influence of heat and moisture on the mechanics of polymers is a fundamental issue with  
38 particular relevance to many industrial applications such as textiles, packaging, food science, and  
39 building materials. The systematic understanding of the coupled physics of moisture and heat is  
40 important for effective utilization of many natural and synthetic polymeric materials.

41 For a large variety of polymers establish the time-temperature superposition principle (TTSP),  
42 also named the thermo-rheologically simple postulate, meaning that an increment in temperature  
43 is equivalent to an increment of time of observation. The shapes of the elastic moduli vs. time  
44 curves under different temperature conditions assemble each other, except for a horizontal shift.  
45 In fact, in addition to temperature, a number of other shifting factors are known, such as moisture  
46 content, diluent concentration, blend ratios and etc. Varying jointly moisture content and  
47 temperature creates a “doubly shifted” master curve, based on which a number of experimental  
48 reports proposed the so-called time-temperature-moisture superposition principle (TTMSP) of  
49 polymers.<sup>1-7</sup> This master curve also suggests that the influence of heat and moisture can be  
50 treated using mathematical forms similar to the Williams-Landel-Ferry (WLF) equation,<sup>1,8,9</sup>  
51 though it is reported that the TTMSP may not hold for low moisture content.<sup>10</sup> The moisture  
52 content is sometimes referred to as “apparent temperature”, where an increment in moisture  
53 content is taken as an equivalent of the rise of temperature.<sup>11</sup> The current demonstration of the  
54 validity of TTMSP is based on macroscopic and phenomenological observations but lacks  
55 observations of the mechanisms at play at microscales. The similar effects of heat and moisture  
56 on polymers elastic behavior have yet to be analyzed and their mechanisms at origin elucidated.

57 In this paper, we discuss the heat and moisture effects in terms of their similarities and also  
58 their differences, the latter a topic rarely touched in literature. Molecular dynamics (MD), a  
59 simulation method widely used in bio-physics or materials science, is chosen as the main tool of

60 investigation. Applying proper force field parameters and potential equations, MD allows  
61 capturing the trajectories of atoms at femtosecond time resolution giving microscopic  
62 information. Based on such microscopic movements of atoms, macroscopic variables such as  
63 temperature, pressure, enthalpy can be harvested using statistical thermodynamics, making MD a  
64 powerful tool for investigating physical and mechanical aspects. Here we focus on the  
65 instantaneous elastic response of a model polymeric material.

66 This study uses the uncondensed type of lignin (uLGN) as a prototypical polymer, lignin being  
67 one of the most abundant biopolymers on Earth. We recall that uncondensed lignin is a linear  
68 polymer, not to be confused with condensed lignin also present in plants, which is randomly  
69 cross-polymerized. uLGN is known to be moderately hydrophilic thus serving as a complement  
70 to frequently studied hydrophilic polymeric materials, such as nylon (polyamide),<sup>12</sup> polyvinyl  
71 acetate (PVAc)<sup>1</sup> and polyvinyl alcohol (PVA)<sup>4</sup>. There have been several MD studies focused on  
72 various properties of lignin. Petridis et al. study the temperature-dependent structure and  
73 dynamics of randomly branched lignin, i.e. condensed type of lignin, and observed that  
74 temperature rise enhances dynamics and transits the polymer from compact to extended  
75 conformations.<sup>13,14</sup> Vural et al. combine MD and experiments, namely neutron scattering and  
76 dielectric spectroscopy, and found that a hysteresis exists where lignin shows faster dynamics  
77 and a larger size at a given temperature when being cooled than being heated.<sup>15</sup> Buehler et al.  
78 investigated the influence of lignin structure on the deformation of wood cell walls.<sup>16</sup> Beste et al.  
79 used the ReaxFF force field to investigate the thermal decomposition in oxygen environment of  
80 the most common linkages in softwood.<sup>17</sup> Despite these works, there is a lack of comprehensive  
81 study of the mechanics of lignin under various temperatures and moisture contents. In particular,

82 a better understanding of the microscopic mechanisms of the combined impact of heat and  
83 moisture could help to improve the delignification process, a common pretreatment of biomass.

84 There are few papers discussing the combined influence of heat and moisture on the  
85 mechanical behavior of polymers using MD. Xin and Han show that both heat and moisture  
86 water reduces the mechanical properties of the cross-linked epoxy.<sup>18</sup> Vural et al. find a similar  
87 effect of either heat or moisture on polymer segmental relaxation.<sup>19</sup> Suarez-Martinez et al. show  
88 that both temperature and water affect the dynamics of the polyelectrolyte chain in a similar way  
89 supporting the time–water–temperature superposition principles.<sup>7</sup> However, the occurrence of a  
90 difference in the moisture and heat influence on the mechanical properties of a polymer, be it  
91 lignin, as yet to be investigated with MD.

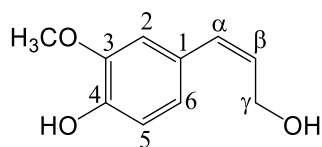
92 Our study aims at understanding the microscopic mechanisms of hygric swelling, thermal  
93 expansion and mechanical weakening under hygric and thermal loadings. To perform this study  
94 we determine the local stiffness of the polymer skeleton and the adsorbed water at the  
95 microscale. Strikingly simple equations relating the amplitude of segmental motion, sometimes  
96 referred to as the Debye-Waller factor, and the macroscopic elastic moduli are derived for the  
97 first time. We explain the similarities and differences between the effects of heat and moisture on  
98 fundamental aspects of a polymer, namely lignin, taking into account the molecular mobility and  
99 energetics. The proposed method offers a way to relate microscopic quantities to macroscopic  
100 observables. The results, and the proposed methodology, might be important to various  
101 applications such as biofuel production, paper making and hygro-thermo-treatment of wood.

102

## 103 **2 Modeling methods**

### 104 2.1 Preparation of the hydrated polymeric system

105 Uncondensed lignin (uLGN) of softwood consists of linear chain of  $\beta$ -O-C4 linked coniferyl  
106 units, as shown in Figure 1. The C2, C5 and C6 positions of the monomer are free of substitution  
107 while the C3 position is substituted with a methoxyl group.<sup>20</sup> We note that the exact structure of  
108 lignins in plants is still ongoing investigation due to its complex nature. The polymer uLGN is  
109 understood to be of rather linear type, but we note a lack of experimental characterization of pure  
110 uLGN material, caused by the difficulties of its extraction without chemical alteration. This  
111 computational study of uLGN serves as a helpful complement. The molecular model here  
112 contains five chains with a degree of polymerization 100. The degree of polymerization  
113 corresponds to experimental reports.<sup>21</sup>



114  
115 **Figure 1.** Chemical structure of the monomer of uncondensed lignin, coniferyl unit.

116 The initial chemical structure is built in Material Studio 8.0. For MD simulations, Gromacs  
117 5.0<sup>22</sup> software and Gromos 53a6<sup>23</sup> force field are applied. The Gromos 53a6 force field is chosen  
118 because of its unique feature that it is based primarily on reproducing the free enthalpies of  
119 hydration and apolar solvation for a range of compounds, which fits the investigations about  
120 biomolecule hydration, solvation and association.<sup>23</sup> The automated topology builder (ATB)  
121 server was used to carry out the parameterization and the primary geometry optimization.<sup>24-26</sup>  
122 The single chains of uLGN are energy minimized. Then, five relaxed chains are placed in one  
123 simulation box with full periodic boundary conditions. The system is further relaxed for 20 ns in  
124 the isothermal-isobaric ensemble (NPT) using a Nose-Hoover thermostat and a Parrinello-  
125 Rahman barostat with temperature and pressure being 300 K and 0 Pa, respectively. The  
126 equilibrated system attains a density of 1.33 g/cm<sup>3</sup>, which is in accordance with the experimental

127 result of  $1.36 \text{ g/cm}^3$ .<sup>27</sup> The Herman's orientation function of the equilibrated structure has a value  
128 of  $0 \pm 0.02$  verifying that the simulated material is isotropic. The hydroxyl groups of lignin are  
129 evenly distributed in space, meaning that no hydrophobic or hydrophilic pores are formed. All  
130 production simulations are carried out under NPT ensemble. In most simulations, the pressure is  
131 set to 0 bar, except for the bulk modulus measurements where the system is tested under a  
132 specific mechanical loading. The cut-off distance of both Coulombic and van der Waals  
133 interactions is set to 1 nm and the long-range Coulombic interactions are calculated by particle  
134 mesh Ewald summation. The covalent bonds with hydrogen atoms are constrained with the  
135 LINCS algorithm. The time step of integration is 1 fs.

136 Water molecules are introduced in the system through the random insertion of the single point  
137 charge (SPC) model of water, followed by energy minimization and 10 ps of equilibration. The  
138 Gromos force field is designed to work with SPC water model. This study focuses on the  
139 thermodynamic equilibrium state without the consideration of water diffusion process. The SPC  
140 model predicts well the density, heat of vaporization and isothermal compressibility of pure  
141 water. However, we note that this model yields a relatively larger value for the thermal  
142 expansion coefficient (TEC) than what is measured in experiments.<sup>28</sup> To reach the equilibrated  
143 state with less computational cost, the water molecules are initially inserted into random  
144 locations and the following equilibration steps allow attaining thermodynamically favored  
145 locations. For each moisture level, an extra 20 ns of equilibration is applied. The distribution of  
146 water molecules, quantified by the radial distribution function of the oxygen atoms of water, is  
147 seen to remain stable after 10 ns, meaning that 20 ns of equilibration time is more than sufficient  
148 to reach equilibrium statistically. The polymer carbon atoms radial distribution functions are also



149 checked in a similar way. In fact, extended simulations as long as 1000 ns are carried out and  
150 give similar radial distribution function results as the 20 ns results.

151 The studied moisture content, reported in mass of water per mass of dry polymer, and the  
152 temperature range between 0~30%, with an increment of 4%, and 283~373 K, with an increment  
153 of 10 K respectively. We note that these ranges are broader than the ranges of common ambient  
154 conditions of wood usage in order to allow a more in-depth investigation. We note that, in the  
155 temperature range of investigation, no major change of chemical or physical properties, such as  
156 pyrolysis of polymer and phase change of water, occurs. The pyrolysis temperature of lignin  
157 (~600 K)<sup>29</sup> is much higher than the maximum temperature studied here. Water molecules  
158 confined in porous media have a lower freezing point (<273 K)<sup>30</sup> and higher boiling point (>373  
159 K)<sup>31</sup> than bulk water due to the Gibbs-Thomson effect. This ensures that, in this work, water  
160 molecules do not experience phase changes, i.e. freezing or evaporation.

161 Three repetition systems are prepared following the same modeling process above. They differ  
162 by their polymer orientations and initial water insertion locations. All the repetition systems are  
163 then tested under the same protocol described below, and the obtained results are averaged with  
164 standard deviations indicated.

## 165 2.2 Evaluation of the free strain due to changes in moisture content and temperature

166 The volume of the system, denoted as  $V(m, T)$ , is measured as the time average volume over a  
167 0.5 ns production run that followed a 1.5 ns equilibration run in the NPT ensemble ( $P = 0$  Pa).  
168 The volume is measured under a series of different moisture content and temperature conditions  
169 allowing deforming freely. The system reaches its stable state within the first 0.1 ns of the  
170 equilibration run. The volumetric strain  $\epsilon_V(m, T)$  due to changes in moisture content and  
171 temperature is defined as relative difference with respect to the volume at  $m = 0\%$  and  $T = 283$  K:

$$\epsilon_V(m, T) = \frac{V(m, T) - V(0\%, 283 \text{ K})}{V(0\%, 283 \text{ K})} \quad (1)$$

172 We refer to this volumetric strain as swelling strain when the moisture content is increased, or  
 173 as thermal expansion strain when the temperature is increased. In general, we will refer to the  
 174 volumetric strain as free strain.

### 175 2.3 Evaluation of the bulk modulus

176 The system is equilibrated in NPT ( $P = 0$  bar) for 20 ns to obtain the equilibrium volume  
 177  $V(m, T)$  in the free stress state. Then equal pressure on x, y and z directions is applied, where the  
 178 system is simulated in NPT ( $P = \sigma = 500$  bar) for 2 ns to obtain the equilibrium volume in the  
 179 loaded state  $V^\sigma(m, T)$ . The system equilibrium is reached within the first 0.1 ns of the run,  
 180 which is much shorter than the total relaxation time given to the system of  $\sim 2$  ns. The bulk  
 181 modulus is expressed as:<sup>32</sup>

$$K(m, T) = -V \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial V} = \sigma \left| \frac{V(m, T)}{V^\sigma(m, T) - V(m, T)} \right| \quad (2)$$

182 The load value  $\sigma$  is chosen to be 500 bar, which is large enough to suppress sufficiently the  
 183 fluctuation of system volume, and the resulting strain ranges from 2% to 4%.

### 184 2.4 Density of the polymer-polymer hydrogen bonds

185 The criteria for hydrogen bond are defined by the configuration of the donor-hydrogen-  
 186 acceptor triplet:

$$r \leq 0.35 \text{ nm and } \alpha \leq 30^\circ \quad (3)$$

187 where  $r$  is the distance between the donor oxygen atom and the acceptor oxygen atom, and  $\alpha$   
 188 is the angle of acceptor oxygen atom – donor oxygen atom – donor hydrogen atom. The  
 189 interoxygen distance criterion of 0.35 nm refers to the first minimum of the radial distribution  
 190 function of SPC water.<sup>33,34</sup> The angle of  $30^\circ$  is approximately the amplitude of vibrations that

191 break hydrogen bonds.<sup>35</sup> In this paper, we only discuss polymer-polymer hydrogen bonds. The  
192 number of hydrogen bonds is normalized by the volume at  $m = 0\%$  and  $T = 283$  K, to eliminate  
193 its size dependency, resulting in a Lagrangian density of polymer-polymer hydrogen bonds with  
194 a unit of  $\text{nm}^{-3}$ .

## 195 2.5 Evaluation of the local stiffness $T/\langle u^2 \rangle$

196 In this paper, we use the local stiffness as a metric at the microscopic scale. The local stiffness  
197 is defined as the quotient of temperature  $T$  and the  $\langle u^2 \rangle$  factor. The  $\langle u^2 \rangle$  factor indicates the  
198 average displacement of atoms at picosecond time scales and is generally assumed to be related  
199 to the mechanical properties, i.e. an inverse proportionality is frequently assumed between the  
200  $\langle u^2 \rangle$  factor and the local elastic properties, e.g. high-frequency modulus  $G_\infty$ ,<sup>36</sup> derived on the  
201 basis of simple Maxwell model of liquids.<sup>37</sup> The  $\langle u^2 \rangle$  is also referred to as the Debye-Waller  
202 factor,<sup>38,39</sup> a property of material that can be measured by neutron scattering experiments<sup>40</sup> and  
203 molecular simulations.<sup>41</sup> On the molecular level, a chain segment displaces itself within a  
204 temporary cage formed by its surrounding segments. The MSD of the chain segment keeps  
205 increasing until the movement of the segment is restrained by the boundary of the cage and  
206 bounces back. A plateau in the MSD-time plot emerges when such rebound happens, where the  
207 corresponding time scale is called the caging time and the corresponding MSD,  $\langle u^2 \rangle$ , indicates  
208 the size of the molecular cage. Beyond the caging time, the chain segments will show diffusive  
209 behavior and escape from the cage.

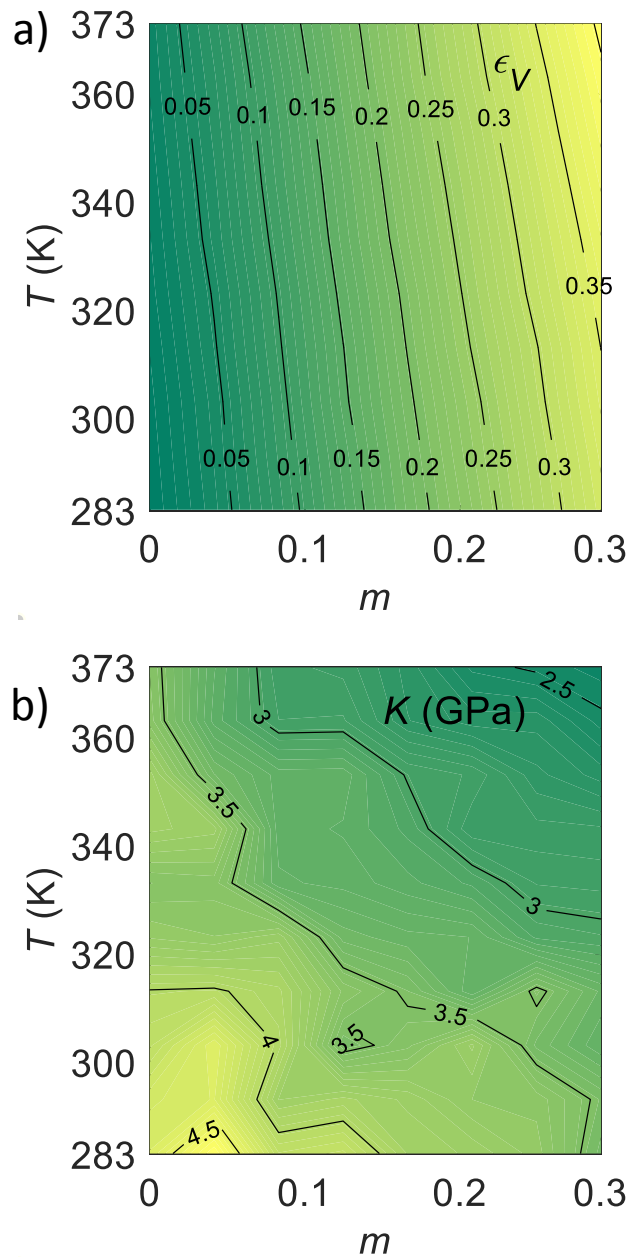
210 If we assume that the chain segment is confined to its equilibrium location by a harmonic  
211 spring, the energy of the chain segment movement can be expressed as  $k\langle u^2 \rangle$ , where  $k$  stands for  
212 an assumed local spring constant. In this paper, each monomer is taken as a polymer segment  
213 and the MSD of its center of mass is measured. Comparing with the MSD of single atoms, the

214 MSD of the center of mass of the monomer eliminates the contribution of rotation of this  
215 monomer to MSD. Within the moisture content and temperature ranges of investigation, the  
216 MSD of uLGN polymer plateaus at  $\sim 10$  ps, due to the confinement of the cage formed by the  
217 surrounding atoms of the chain segment. Similar to Xia et al.<sup>41</sup> the  $\langle u^2 \rangle$  factor in this study is  
218 defined as the average mean square displacement (MSD) of polymer segments at 10 ps, the  
219 caging time of uLGN. The  $\langle u^2 \rangle$  factor for water is measured similarly, by assessing the average  
220 MSD of the center of mass of water molecules.

### 221 **3 Results and discussion**

#### 222 3.1 Macroscopic results: heat and moisture-induced free strain and mechanical weakening

223 Figure 2a shows the free strain as a function of both temperature and moisture content, using a  
224 green to yellow scale in addition to contour lines. As moisture content and temperature increases,  
225 the free strain increases from 0 at  $T=283$  K and  $m=0$  %, to more than 0.4 at  $T=373$  K and  $m=30$   
226 %.



227

228 **Figure 2.** a) Free strain as a function of temperature and moisture content. b) Bulk modulus as a  
 229 function of temperature and moisture content, contour line units are in GPa.

230

231

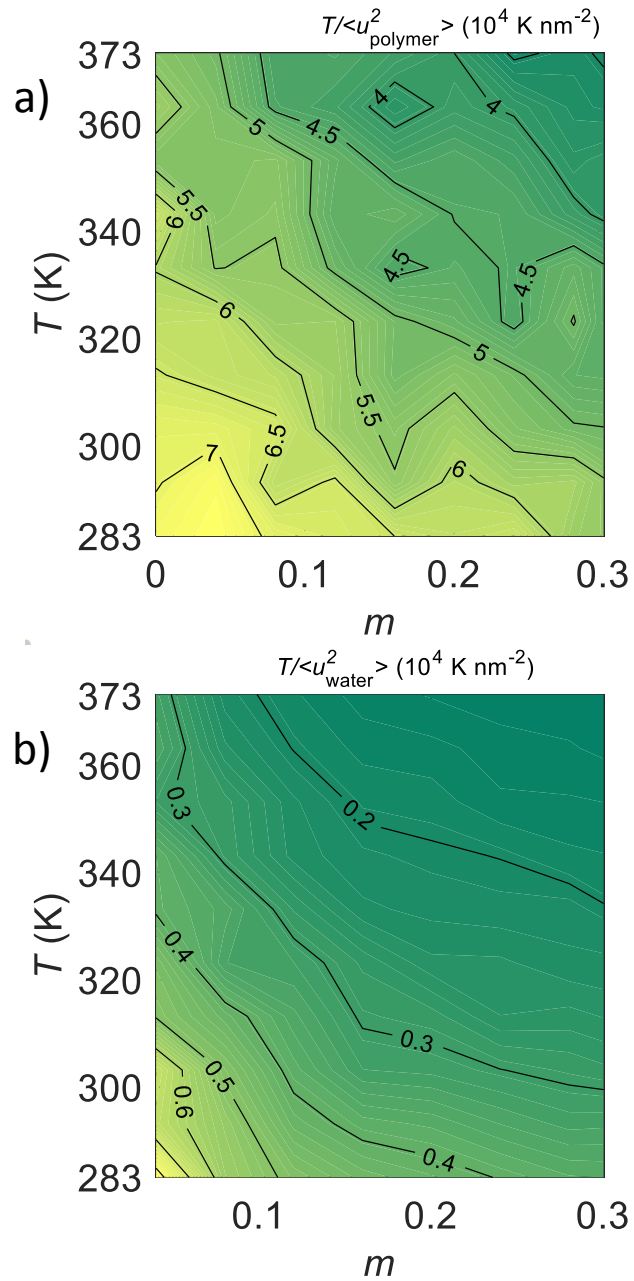
232

The bulk modulus of uLGN as a function of temperature and moisture content is shown in Figure 2b. The higher moduli are denoted by yellow and the lower by green color. As temperature and moisture content increases, the bulk modulus decreases from more than 4.5 GPa

233 to less than 2.5 GPa indicating a mechanical weakening of the material. Due to scattering, the  
234 contour lines are not as smooth as those for the free strain shown in Figure 2a. The rather  
235 diagonal lines indicate that the increase of temperature and moisture content both induce  
236 weakening.

### 237 3.2 Microscopic results: weakening and straining explained by local stiffness $T/\langle u^2 \rangle$

238 Figure 3 gives the local stiffness  $T/\langle u^2 \rangle$  of polymer skeleton and water as a function of  
239 temperature and moisture content, respectively.



240  
 241 **Figure 3.** a) Local stiffness  $T/\langle u^2 \rangle$  of the polymer skeleton as a function of moisture content  $m$   
 242 and temperature  $T$ . b) Local stiffness  $T/\langle u^2 \rangle$  of water as a function of moisture content  $m$  and  
 243 temperature  $T$ . The unit of the contour lines is  $10^4 \text{ K nm}^{-2}$ .

244 As shown in Figure 3,  $T/\langle u^2 \rangle$  for the polymer skeleton and water decrease with increasing  
 245 temperature and moisture content. In terms of absolute value, the local stiffness of polymer,

246 ranging from  $3.0\sim 7.4 \cdot 10^4 \text{ K nm}^{-2}$ , is around 10 times higher than that of water, ranging from  
 247  $0.13\sim 0.83 \cdot 10^4 \text{ K nm}^{-2}$ . This indicates that the stiffness of the hydrated uLGN system is  
 248 dominated by the stiffness of the polymer chains rather than by the stiffness of the adsorbed  
 249 water. In fact, the local stiffness of the polymer skeleton (Figure 3a) resembles the overall  
 250 stiffness of the composite material (Figure 2b), which will be further supported by the correlation  
 251 analysis in the following sections.

### 252 3.3 Link between microscopic and macroscopic results

253 In this section, we derive a relationship between the local stiffness  $T/\langle u^2 \rangle$  at the microscale  
 254 and the macroscopic bulk modulus  $K$ . The bulk modulus  $K$  refers to the isothermal bulk modulus  
 255  $K_T$  unless otherwise stated. The time scale studied in this section is in the order of several pico-  
 256 seconds, therefore the material is assumed to behave elastically (no time effects). The thermal  
 257 energy, i.e. the translational kinetic energy, of a chain segment equals  $\frac{3}{2}k_B T$ . If we assume that  
 258 this chain segment is confined to its equilibrium location by a harmonic spring, the energy of the  
 259 chain segment movement can be expressed as  $k\langle u^2 \rangle$ , where  $k$  stands for an assumed local spring  
 260 constant. The maximum potential energy stored in the spring should equal the kinetic energy of  
 261 the segment:

$$\frac{1}{2}k\langle u^2 \rangle \cong \frac{3}{2}k_B T \quad (4)$$

262 The intrinsic vibration frequency of a harmonic spring is  $\omega_0 = \sqrt{k/a\lambda}$ , where  $a$  is the size of  
 263 the segment and  $\lambda$  the line density of the polymer chain. Therefore, the wave speed in the  
 264 material is  $c = \omega_0 a$  and we have:

$$c = \omega_0 a = \sqrt{ka/\lambda} \quad (5)$$



265 The longitudinal wave speed in the material is related to the adiabatic bulk modulus  $K_s$  (here  
 266 we assume  $K_s \cong K_T$ , which holds for a number of solid materials<sup>42</sup>), the shear modulus  $G$  and the  
 267 density of the material  $\rho = \lambda a/a^3$ :

$$c = \sqrt{\frac{K_s + \frac{4}{3}G}{\rho}} \quad (6)$$

268 For an isotropic material, the bulk and shear moduli are related by Poisson's ratio through:

$$G = \frac{3K(1-2\nu)}{2(1+\nu)} \quad (7)$$

269 Combining all these equations we find that the bulk modulus of the dry polymer can be  
 270 predicted from the local stiffness  $T/\langle u^2 \rangle$  by:

$$K = \frac{1+\nu}{1-\nu} \frac{k_B T}{a\langle u^2 \rangle} \quad (8)$$

271 This equation shows that the bulk modulus at the macroscale is directly related to the  
 272 amplitude of segmental motion  $\langle u^2 \rangle$  or local stiffness  $T/\langle u^2 \rangle$  at microscale.

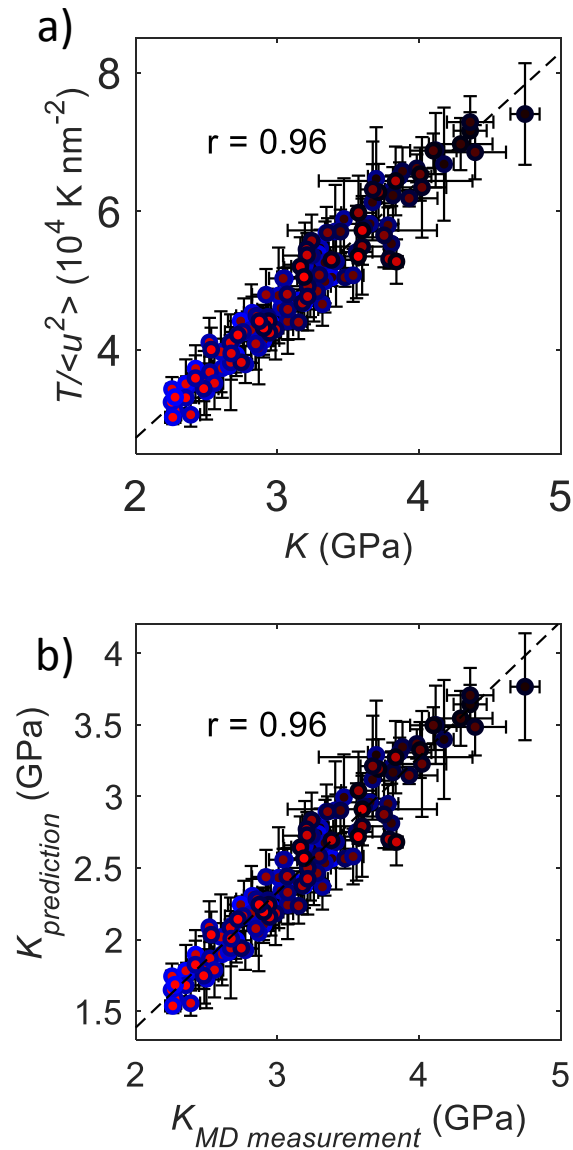
273 Further, the Young's and shear moduli can be derived for an isotropic material from bulk  
 274 modulus and Poisson's ratio:

$$E = \frac{3(1+\nu)(1-2\nu)}{1-\nu} \frac{k_B T}{a\langle u^2 \rangle} \quad \text{and} \quad G = \frac{3}{2} \frac{1-2\nu}{1-\nu} \frac{k_B T}{a\langle u^2 \rangle} \quad (9)$$

275 The eq. (8 and eq. (9) are strikingly simple, considering that only two assumptions, i.e.  
 276 harmonic vibration and isotropy, are introduced. The relation between the amplitude of  
 277 segmental motion  $\langle u^2 \rangle$  and shear or Young's moduli was shown in,<sup>43</sup> but in this study explicit  
 278 equations are provided for bulk, Young's and shear moduli as functions of  $\langle u^2 \rangle$ .

279 Using eq. (8), the bulk modulus of the dry polymer as a function of temperature can be  
 280 predicted knowing the local stiffness  $T/\langle u^2 \rangle$  at microscale. Here the chain segment is defined as  
 281 a lignin monomer. As 500 monomers occupy a volume of around  $104 \text{ nm}^3$ , and given that  $500 *$

282  $a^3 = 104 \text{ nm}^3$ , therefore the size of the chain segment is on average  $a \sim 0.59 \text{ nm}$ . We remark  
283 that there is no strict definition of chain segments and other definitions may give different values  
284 of chain segment size. For most of the polymers, the Poisson ratio varies between  $0.35 < \nu <$   
285  $0.45$ . A standalone MD test shows that, at 300 K and  $m=0\%$ , the Poisson's ratio of pure uLGN is  
286  $\sim 0.37$ , in accordance with experimental estimation.<sup>44</sup> Figure 4a is the correlation plot of the  
287 measured bulk moduli and the local stiffness of the polymer skeleton. The circles denote the  
288 average values of the three repetition tests, and the error bars denote the standard deviation. The  
289 color of the circles gradually changes from black to red denoting the increase in temperature. The  
290 color of the edges of the circles changes from black to blue denoting the increase in moisture  
291 content. The Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.96 indicates that  $T/\langle u^2 \rangle$  can serve as an  
292 indicator for the macroscopic stiffness of the material. We note again that the  $\langle u^2 \rangle$  can be  
293 measured by neutron scattering experiments,<sup>40</sup> meaning that eq. (8) and eq. (9) might be  
294 examined by future experimental studies. Though it is known that MD does not reproduce a  
295 heating rate equivalent to the experimental one, the correlation between local stiffness and  
296 macroscopic stiffness of material is sound because the  $\langle u^2 \rangle$  and bulk moduli are measured using  
297 the same heating protocol.



298

299 **Figure 4. a)** Correlation plot of local stiffness and the measured bulk moduli. The error bar  
 300 indicates the standard deviation of the repetition samples. The Pearson correlation coefficient is  
 301 0.96. **b)** Comparison of the bulk moduli by MD measurement and predicted through the eq. (8).  
 302 In both figures, marker face color changes from black to red denoting the rise of temperature,  
 303 and the marker edge color changes from black to blue denoting the rise of moisture content.

304 The local stiffness can be used to predict the stiffness of material using eq. (8). As shown in  
 305 Figure 4b, the prediction agrees well with MD measurement though the absolute values of

306 prediction are lower than the measurement. The difference between the MD measurement and  
307 the prediction may be attributed to the simplifications made in the derivation of eq. (8), such as  
308 assuming elasticity, isotropy and homogeneity, the validity of harmonic confinement  
309 assumption, the definition of the chain segment size and the accuracy of the method of bulk  
310 moduli measurement. To what extent the idealization assumptions affect the predicting power of  
311 eq. (8) might be the topic of future investigations.

312 As suggested by the form of local stiffness, i.e.  $T/\langle u^2 \rangle$ , moisture content and temperature  
313 influence this mechanical property in different ways. Temperature influencing both  $T$  and  $\langle u^2 \rangle$ ,  
314 however, moisture content altering only  $\langle u^2 \rangle$ . Though phenomenologically heat and moisture  
315 both induce the macroscopic weakening of material, they impact the molecular mechanics  
316 differently.

317 We can also derive a relation between thermal expansion and local stiffness of the material. In  
318 Gruneisen theory,<sup>45,46</sup> based on the existence of an asymmetrical potential energy curve in terms  
319 of the distance between atoms, a simple relationship between thermal expansion coefficient and  
320 bulk modulus at the macroscale is derived:

$$\alpha = \frac{\gamma_G C_V}{VK} \quad (10)$$

321 where  $\alpha$ ,  $\gamma_G$ ,  $C_V$ ,  $V$ ,  $K$  are the volumetric thermal expansion coefficient, Gruneisen parameter  
322 (defined as the rate of change of vibrational frequency with expansion), specific heat under  
323 constant volume, volume and isothermal bulk modulus, respectively. The Gruneisen theory was  
324 originally developed for crystals, however, since we see our systems as chain segments moving  
325 around their equilibrated location, it is reasonable to extend the theory to our material. The  
326 thermal expansion coefficient  $\alpha$  is related to thermal strain  $\varepsilon_V = \alpha dT$ . Combining eq. (8) and eq.  
327 (10), we find a relation between volumetric thermal strain  $\varepsilon_V$  and the local stiffness  $T/\langle u^2 \rangle$ :

$$\varepsilon_V = \frac{1 - \nu \gamma_G C_V a(u^2)}{1 + \nu} \frac{1}{V k_B T} \quad (11)$$

328 This equation shows that the thermal strain increases with the decrease of local stiffness of the  
 329 material, which depends on both temperature and moisture content. eq. (11 also shows that  
 330 several other material properties, including Poisson's ratio, Gruneisen parameter, heat capacity,  
 331 and temperature, determine the thermal expansion of the material. How these material properties  
 332 are related to each other and a further deduction of eq. (11 into a simpler form can be a future  
 333 research topic.

### 334 3.4 Discussion: Beyond the similarity of heat and moisture

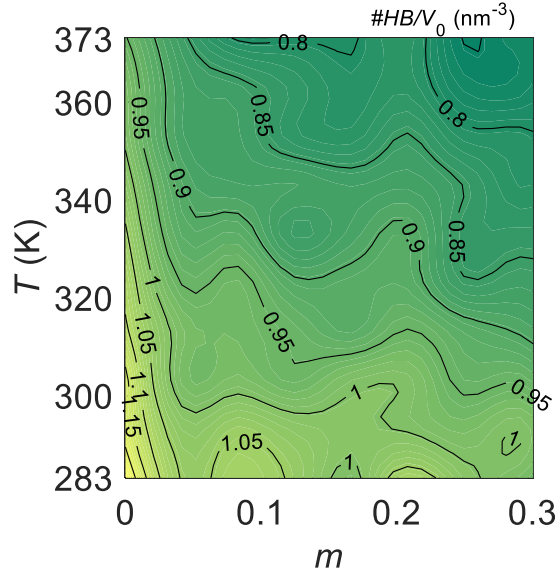
335 We have shown above that both heat and moisture have a similar effect of expanding/swelling  
 336 and weakening the material. We also showed that the hygric swelling, thermal expansion and  
 337 mechanical weakening are all related to the increase of the amplitude of segmental motion on the  
 338 microscale. In this section, we discuss however the differences between the effects of heat and  
 339 moisture, beyond their similarity.

#### 340 3.4.1 Free straining - the difference between the impacts of moisture and heat

341 We use the data of the free strain  $\varepsilon_V(m, T)$  dependent on temperature  $T$  and moisture content  $m$   
 342 in Figure 2a to study the combined effect of heat and moisture. To do so, we introduce three  
 343 different models, and the results of these models are shown in Table 1, where we used the sum of  
 344 squared errors (SSE) to evaluate the quality of the model. A first model, called the “first-order  
 345 independent model” assumes that the free strain is linearly correlated with temperature and  
 346 moisture content, where independent refers to the fact that the contributions of heat and moisture  
 347 are additive. In a second model, second-order terms in temperature and moisture content are  
 348 added, called the “second-order independent model”. Finally, in the coupled model a coupling  
 349 term in temperature and moisture content  $m*T$  is added to the first-order independent model.

350 Comparing the SSE of the different models, we observe that the coupling model provides by far  
351 the best results, indicating that the coupling between temperature and moisture content is  
352 essential in describing the heat-moisture dependence of free strain. This coupling effect between  
353 heat and moisture is a first indication that both factors are not just additive, but that there is an  
354 interaction between the two factors.

355 We already have shown that heat facilitates the segmental motions of the polymer chains.  
356 Moisture is known to reside as water molecules in between the polymer chains and to interact  
357 with the intermolecular interactions between the polymer chains leading to a weakening of the  
358 material. As an example of such intermolecular actions, Figure 5 gives the density of the  
359 polymer-polymer hydrogen bonds as a function of temperature and moisture content. We  
360 observe at the low moisture content ( $m < 0.1$ ) a sharp decrease in the number of hydrogen bonds  
361 indicating the breakage of hydrogen bonds between the chains, which are replaced by water-  
362 polymer hydrogen bonds, leading to a weakening of the material. This weakening of the material  
363 by intermolecular interactions of the water molecules in between the polymer chains (breaking of  
364 polymer-polymer hydrogen bonds) will, in turn, facilitate lowering the local stiffness and, as  
365 such, water molecules in between the chains may be seen as an activator of segmental motions of  
366 the chains. This means that the fundamental mechanisms of heat and moisture are different,  
367 where moisture has to be seen as an activator, while heat is a direct cause for the segmental  
368 motions. This will be further elaborated in the next section.



369  
 370 **Figure 5.** Density of polymer-polymer hydrogen bonds as a function of temperature and  
 371 moisture content. Units are in  $\text{nm}^{-3}$ .

Type of model	Fitting of $\epsilon_V(m, T)$	SSE
First order independent model	$1.2m - 7.6E^{-4}T - 0.24$	0.0075
2 <sup>nd</sup> order independent model	$1.2m - 4.3E^{-4}T + 0.055m^2 + 1.8E^{-6}T^2 - 0.048$	0.0071
coupling model	$0.72m + 3.7E^{-4}T + 1.4E^{-3}mT - 0.12$	0.0011

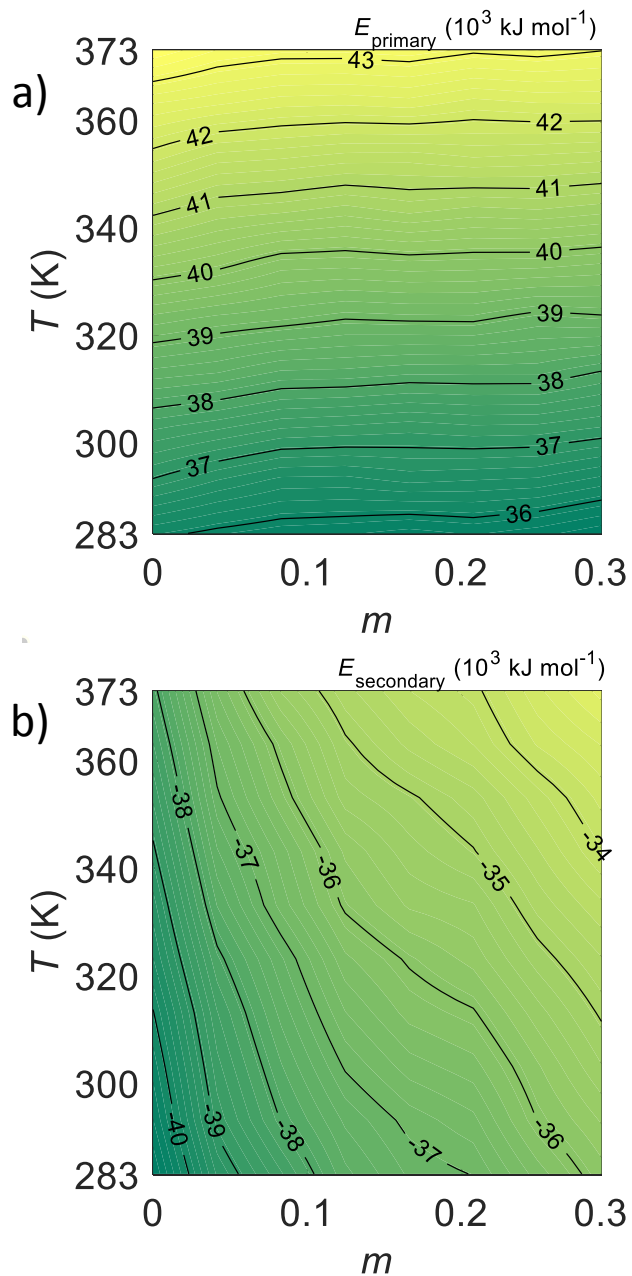
372 **Table 1.** Different models for free strain as a function of temperature and moisture content.

### 373 3.4.2 Primary and secondary bond energy – different impacts of moisture and heat

374 As shown in Figure 2a, uLGN shows an increasing free strain upon increasing temperature,  
 375 indicating the important role of energetic aspects in the material when being heated. Moreover,  
 376 as shown in the last sections, the polymer dominates the stiffness of the composite material.  
 377 Therefore, it is important to analyze the energetic aspects of the uLGN polymer skeleton when  
 378 the temperature and moisture content increases. The energy terms are obtained through the  
 379 calculation of potential energy of the polymer skeleton, where the systems consist only of  
 380 polymer chains after removing all the water molecules from the MD trajectories.

381 The potential energy of the polymer skeleton consists of two parts: the primary and the  
382 secondary bond energy. The primary bond energy includes all the chemical-bond related  
383 energies or the so-called “bonded interaction energy” in MD, i.e. bond energy, angle energy,  
384 dihedral energy. The secondary bond energy includes all the intermolecular interaction energies  
385 or the so-called “non-bonded interaction energy” in MD, i.e. vdW and Coulombic interaction  
386 energy. The primary and secondary bond energies of polymer skeleton are shown in Figure 6a  
387 and Figure 6b, respectively, where higher and lower values are denoted by yellow and green  
388 colors. We note that an increase in potential energy indicates a weakening of the interactions. As  
389 shown in Figure 6a, the primary bond energy of polymer skeleton increases mainly with  
390 temperature. The contour lines are almost horizontal, indicating an almost negligible influence of  
391 moisture content on primary bond energy.





392  
 393 **Figure 6.** Potential energy of polymer skeleton: **a)** primary bond energy; **b)** secondary bond  
 394 energy. The unit of the numbers on the contour lines is  $10^3 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ .

395 Figure 6b shows the secondary bond energy. We observe that moisture strongly influences the  
 396 secondary bond energy. The density contour lines of secondary bond energy get looser when  
 397 moisture content increases, indicating that the influence of moisture is getting weaker as

398 hydration proceeds. This means that the first adsorbed water molecules have a more important  
399 impact on the potential energy, as indicated with the smaller spacing between the counter lines.  
400 The temperature also influences the secondary bond energy, but to a less extent than the moisture  
401 content, while moisture has only a negligible effect on primary bond energy. This implies that  
402 water molecules intervene only with intermolecular interactions, e.g. hydrogen bonds, and can  
403 hardly affect chemical bond interactions. This agrees with the former report that water relaxes  
404 the charged assemblies by interrupting the attraction between oppositely charged groups of the  
405 polymers.<sup>47</sup>

406 Although some similarities between the impact of heat and moisture on free strain and stiffness  
407 are observed, in line with the time-temperature-moisture superposition principle proposed by  
408 various experimental studies,<sup>1-6</sup> the effects of heat and moisture have different origins. Heat  
409 affects both primary and secondary bonds, while moisture only alters secondary bonds, which is  
410 the fundamental difference between heat and moisture effects. Considering the important role of  
411 primary and secondary bonds on the stiffness of material,<sup>48</sup> our findings may have important  
412 implications. To mention one example, for thermosetting polymers, where chains are cross-  
413 linked into networks and primary bonds play the dominant role, excessive heat will cause the  
414 severance of the primary bonds and consequently weakening,<sup>49</sup> however, the impact of moisture  
415 might be limited, which is to be confirmed by future studies.

#### 416 **4. Conclusion**

417 To address the fundamental issue of heat and moisture effects on polymers, this study  
418 investigates the prototypical lignin polymer at various temperature and moisture levels using  
419 molecular dynamics simulations. In line with previous reports, thermal expansion, hygric  
420 swelling and weakening of material occur concomitantly with the increment of temperature and  
421 moisture content. The detailed analysis suggests the important role of the coupling between heat

422 and moisture for the hygric swelling of lignin polymer. To explain the weakening effect, a  
423 quantity called local stiffness  $T/\langle u^2 \rangle$  is introduced. Under the assumptions of harmonic vibration  
424 and isotropy, an equation relating microscopic segmental motions  $\langle u^2 \rangle$  to macroscopic modulus  
425 is proposed. This equation allows one to theoretically predict the bulk moduli of material, which  
426 are in good agreement with the measurement, supporting that the local stiffness is a good  
427 indicator for macroscopic local stiffness. Combined with Gruneisen theory, the thermal  
428 expansion is shown to be also related to the local stiffness. The energetic analysis of polymer  
429 skeleton shows that, while secondary bonds are influenced by both heat and moisture, the  
430 primary bonds are affected by heat alone. This indicates the fundamental difference between  
431 moisture and heat, the influences of which have long been assumed to be similar, offering a  
432 different view of the so-called time-temperature-moisture superposition principle, based on the  
433 molecular level inspection.

434

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443

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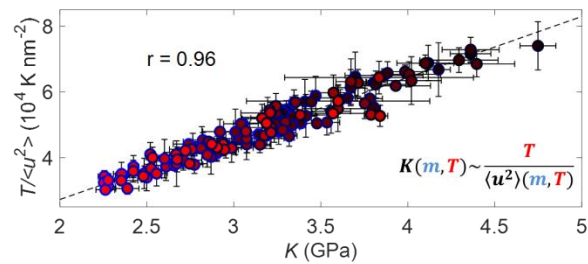
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589 Disentangling Heat and Moisture Effects on

590 Biopolymer Mechanics

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