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1 **Moisture-Induced Crossover in the Thermodynamic**
2 **and Mechanical Response of Hydrophilic Biopolymer**

3
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5

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14

15 **Abstract.** The use of natural sustainable resources such as wood in green industrial processes is currently limited by
16 our poor understanding of the impact of moisture on their thermodynamic and mechanical behaviors. Here, a
17 molecular dynamics approach is used to investigate the physical response of a typical hydrophilic biopolymer in
18 softwood hemicellulose – xylan – when subjected to moisture adsorption. A unique moisture-induced crossover is
19 found in the thermodynamic and mechanical properties of this prototypical biopolymer with many quantities such as
20 the heat of adsorption, heat capacity, thermal expansion and elastic moduli exhibiting a marked evolution change for
21 a moisture content about 30 wt. %. By investigating the microscopic structure of the confined water molecules and
22 the polymer-water interfacial area, the molecular mechanism responsible for this crossover is shown to correspond to
23 the formation of a double-layer adsorbed film along the amorphous polymeric chains. In addition to this moisture-
24 induced crossover, many properties of the hydrated biopolymer are found to obey simple material models.
25

26 **Keywords:** *hemicellulose, xylan, molecular dynamics simulations, moisture, mechanics,*
27 *thermodynamics.*
28

29 **Introduction**

30 Wood and its various hydrophilic cellulosic components are the most abundant polymers on
31 Earth (Arioli et al. 1998). While these compounds have been used through ages, a better
32 understanding of the physical and chemical properties of such hydrophilic polymers would allow
33 extending the range of applications of sustainable natural resources. As an important parameter to
34 be taken into consideration, moisture strongly influences the mechanical and thermodynamic
35 properties of hydrophilic biopolymers. In particular, it usually induces drastic changes of material
36 dimension, stability and durability that can present both positive and negative effects. For
37 instance, harnessed by quarry workers in ancient Egypt, the swelling pressure of wood due to
38 moisture sorption was utilized to split stone (Bechthold and Weaver 2017), However, on the
39 other hand, moisture uptake could lead to catastrophic biodegradation and failure of load-bearing
40 wooden structures. From a fundamental viewpoint, important molecular mechanisms have been
41 already unraveled such as those relevant to sorption hysteresis of deformable nanoporous
42 materials (e.g. amorphous cellulose) (Chen et al. 2018). Yet, many important features regarding
43 the role of moisture adsorption in the physical and mechanical responses of hydrophilic polymers
44 remain to be identified to facilitate their implementation in fields such as food engineering (Li et
45 al. 1998), biomedical device applications (Lyu and Untereker 2009) and architecture (Vailati et
46 al. 2018).

47
48 Moisture changes the properties of polymer systems such as their stiffness (Harper and Rao
49 1994), glass transition (St. Lawrence et al. 2001) and crystallinity (Tanner et al. 1991). Numerous
50 studies have reported strong evidence regarding the influence of moisture as a plasticization agent
51 (Tanner et al. 1991; St. Lawrence et al. 2001; Perdomo et al. 2009; Carter and Schmidt 2012;

52 Reuvers et al. 2013) that affects the dynamics of chains and the free volume in polymers
53 (Gaylord and Van Wazer 1961). Most of these studies rely on macroscopic observations or
54 limited microscopic information. To date, there is no general picture of polymer-moisture
55 relationship at the microscopic (i.e. at the molecular) level. According to Refs. (Hodge et al.
56 1996b; Li et al. 1998; Brouillet-Fourmann et al. 2002), water in materials can be in two possible
57 states. At low moisture content, water competitively establishes hydrogen bonds (HBs) with polar
58 hydroxyl groups of polymers and becomes the so-called “bound” or “unfreezable” water. At
59 higher moisture content, “free water”, also referred to as “freezable water” or “freezable bound
60 water”, is present, which further weakens the existing “bound” water-polymer interactions. This
61 terminology has been used loosely. For example, some reports define “free” water in a view of
62 phase change as the water which undergoes similar thermal phase transitions as bulk water
63 (Hodge et al. 1996b). Some other reports define “free” water in terms of diffusion, as the water
64 which is relatively free to travel through the microvoids and pores, and “bound” water as the
65 water attached to the polar groups of the polymer (Alomayri et al. 2014). Some others define
66 “free water” as the water in the wood cell lumen and “bound water” as the water held in cell wall
67 material (Skaar 1988; Gezici-Koç et al. 2017). Part of the reason for this ambiguity is the limited
68 resolution of current experimental techniques. It is important however to access the microscopic
69 information, e.g. differentiating the states of water in the material, for heterogeneous hydrated
70 polymer systems, which presently still remains an open question.

71
72 In this study, we follow up on the idea of different states of water but do not follow the
73 ambiguous terminology. Here, we use molecular dynamics (MD) as to investigate the role of
74 molecular interactions, e.g. HBs, which are critical to explaining the microscopic mechanisms

75 leading to the coupling between the polymer properties and water adsorption. MD has shown its
76 capability of simulating cellulosic material, such as cellulose and xylan, in agreement with
77 existing experimental studies (Zhao et al. 2014; Kulasinski et al. 2016). Here the
78 arabinoglucuronoxylan (AGX), one of the most abundant hemicelluloses of softwood (Reid
79 1997), is chosen as a prototypical model of hydrophilic biopolymers in wood. This specific yet
80 representative compound is involved in numerous applications, such as packaging (Escalante et
81 al. 2012), biomedical products (Li et al. 2011), plastic additives (Ünlü et al. 2009), and etc, as
82 summarized by Sedlmeyer (Sedlmeyer 2011). Through the investigation of various mechanical
83 and thermodynamic properties of AGX, we show that all material properties undergo a clear
84 transition (later in the microscopic sorption analysis referred to as a crossover) in moisture
85 sensitivity at the same transition (crossover) point of ~30 wt. % moisture content. Analysis of
86 water microscopic structure shows that, when the first adsorbed layer saturates, bulk-like water
87 clusters start to grow at the transition point. This differentiation between water adsorbed in the
88 first layer and beyond enables us to establish material models which show that the mechanical
89 and thermodynamic properties of the hydrated biopolymer depend in a simple fashion on the
90 different adsorption populations.

91

92 **Materials and Methods**

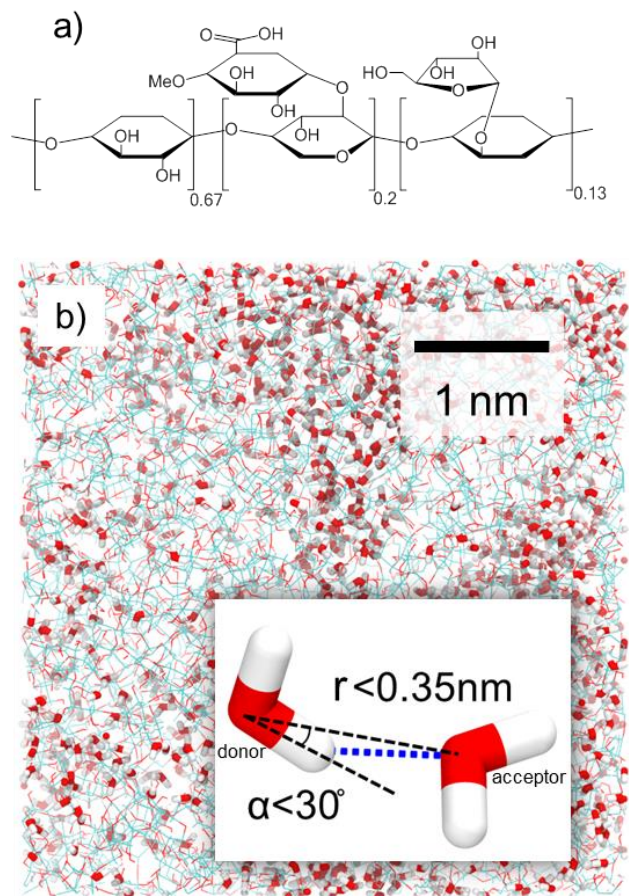
93 **Modeling of Xylan**

94 AGX is formed by a backbone of β -1,4-linked β -D-xylopyranose units, partially substituted at O-
95 2 by 4-O-methyl- α -D-glucopyranosyluronic acid and at O-3 by α -L-arabinofuranose(Reid 1997)
96 (with the degree of substitution depending on botanic sources and extraction methods(Den Haan

97 and Van Zyl 2003)). In the present work, a polymer made up of 67% xylose, 20% glucuronoacid-
98 xylose and 13% arabinoxylose is used (chemical structure shown in Fig. 1a).

99 In MD, molecular interactions are numerically modeled by a force field, i.e. mathematical
100 functions fitted from experimental measurements with necessary simplifications and
101 assumptions. In this study, the force field parameters as well as the geometry of AGX monomers
102 are obtained from the automated topology builder (Malde et al. 2011) with Gromos 53a6 force
103 field (Oostenbrink et al. 2004). Multistep quantum mechanics calculations are carried out to
104 optimize the geometry of the monomers and harvesting the force field parameters such as
105 equilibrium bond length, angles and etc. For the detailed work flow of the automated topology
106 builder, we refer to Ref. (Malde et al. 2011). The three types of monomers are constructed using
107 Material Studio 8.0 and randomly polymerized into chains with a degree of polymerization of
108 100 (Gorshkova et al. 2012). Gromacs 2016 software (Berendsen et al. 1995; Abraham et al.
109 2015) is used for simulation. Five chains of AGX are inserted randomly into a periodic box, with
110 periodic boundary conditions in the three principal directions to avoid finite size effects. The dry
111 system finally reaches a size of about $5\times 5\times 5$ nm³ and a density of 1.3 g/cm³. The density is in
112 accordance with the literature, as measured for a xylan powder extracted from corn cobs
113 (Verbeek 2012). Following the same procedure, two additional systems are prepared and then
114 investigated to improve the statistics and obtain data more representative of disorder in real
115 systems. The three replicas differ by their orientation and arrangement of chains. A more detailed
116 description of modeling methods, validation and investigation are included in the supporting
117 information.

118



119

120 **Fig. 1. a)** Chemical structure of AGX consisting of 67% xylose, 20% glucuronoacid-xylose and

121 13% arabinoxylose. **b)** Typical molecular configuration of hydrated polymer system at a moisture

122 content $m = 18\%$ with carbon atoms in cyan, oxygen atoms in red and hydrogen atoms in white.

123 The inset illustrates the criteria to define hydrogen bonds, $r < 0.35 \text{ nm}$ and $\alpha < 30^\circ$.

124

125 **Adsorption Process and Measurements of Material Properties**

126 Starting with the dry system, single point charge (SPC) (Berendsen et al. 1987) water molecules

127 are inserted randomly one after another into the simulation box. Special attention is paid to avoid

128 overlap with the polymer and previously inserted water molecules. Each insertion is followed by

129 energy minimization and a relaxation run of 100 ps. Besides the aforementioned density, the

130 atomistic models are subject to validation through the comparison with available experimental
131 results, i.e. sorption isotherm, isotropy and swelling strain, where good agreement was found,
132 justifying the validity of the preparation of initial structure and adsorption process. Due to
133 computational costs, we choose to report results at 20 moisture content levels. Fig. 1b shows a
134 typical molecular configuration of the hydrated system at $m = 18\%$, where carbon atoms in cyan,
135 oxygen atoms in red and hydrogen atoms in white. Polymer and water molecules are shown in
136 thin lines and thick sticks, respectively. The moisture content in this study is defined as the mass
137 of water divided by the mass of dry material: $m = m_w/m_p$. Integral heat of adsorption, thermal
138 expansion coefficient, heat capacity, elastic constants and Poisson's ratio are then measured as a
139 function of moisture content using the method documented in the supporting information. Similar
140 to experimental studies where each physical property is derived from an independent
141 measurement, most of the properties in this study are measured with separate simulations, as they
142 require different loading conditions, resulting separate trajectories for post-processing. Thermal
143 expansion coefficient and heat capacity are measured with the same trajectory, however, three
144 repetitions are employed. As will be shown below, all these properties show a transition
145 happening at $m \sim 30\%$ which, to the best of our knowledge, has not yet been reported.

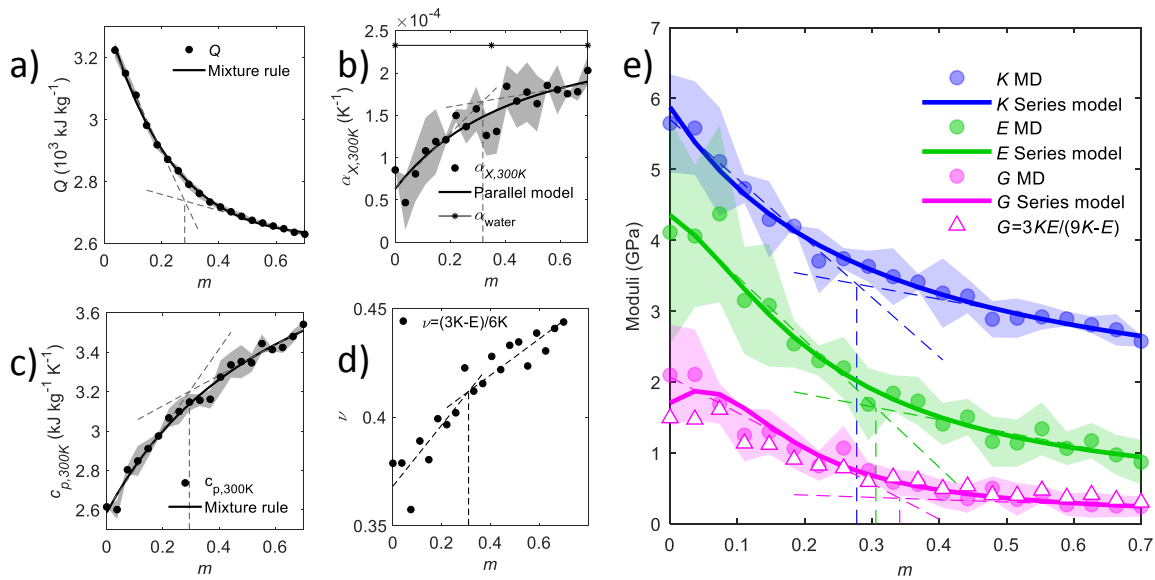
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147 **Results and Discussions**

148 **Properties as a Function of Moisture Content and Occurrence of Moisture-Induced** 149 **Crossover**

150 The integral heat of adsorption $Q(m)$ is shown in Fig. 2a. The dots are the arithmetical average of
151 the three different models while the shaded areas denote the standard deviation (similar
152 representation is used for Fig. 2b, Fig. 2c and Fig. 2e). At low moisture content, the heat of

153 adsorption is close to that measured using MD for amorphous cellulose (AC), ~ 3620 kJ/kg
 154 (Kulasinski 2015). At high moisture content, the heat of adsorption gradually approaches the
 155 value of bulk water, ~ 2260 kJ/kg (Murphy and Koop 2005). Interestingly, two different linear
 156 regimes can be identified, one for low moisture content and another for high moisture content.
 157 The transition separating the two regimes occurs around $m \sim 30\%$.
 158



159
 160 **Fig. 2.** Material properties of AGX as a function of moisture content at room temperature 300 K.
 161 The vertical dashed lines denote the transition at around $m \sim 30\%$. **a)** Heat of adsorption $Q(m)$.
 162 **b)** The uniaxial thermal expansion coefficient $\alpha_{X,300K}(m)$. **c)** Heat capacity $C_{p,300K}(m)$. **d)**
 163 Poisson's ratio with the transition at around $m \sim 30\%$. **e)** The elastic constants, i.e. bulk, Young's
 164 and shear moduli

165
 166 The uniaxial thermal expansion coefficient of AGX is shown in Fig. 2b. As moisture increases,
 167 the thermal expansion coefficient of AGX approaches the value of pure SPC water indicated by
 168 the solid line with asterisks. At 300 K, the uniaxial thermal expansion coefficient of SPC water is

169 $\alpha_{X,300K,SPC} = 2.3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ K}^{-1}$, which is larger than the experimental value $\sim 7.9 \times 10^{-5} \text{ K}^{-1}$ (a known
170 imperfection of the SPC water model (Jorgensen and Jenson 1998)). Like for the heat of
171 adsorption, a transition occurs around 30% moisture content. The heat capacity of AGX is shown
172 in Fig. 2c. With increasing moisture content, the heat capacity approaches the value of pure SPC
173 water. At 300 K, the heat capacity of SPC water is $C_{p,300K} = 4.594 \text{ kJ/kg/K}$, which agrees well
174 with the experimental value of 4.186 kJ/kg/K (Chase Jr. 1998). Once more, we note a transition
175 occurring around 30% moisture content. The bulk, Young's and shear moduli and Poisson's ratio
176 of AGX are shown as solid dots in Fig. 2e and Fig. 2d. The bulk and shear moduli are difficult to
177 measure experimentally, as samples are usually prepared in the form of thin films (Chang et al.
178 2018). Available reports, mostly about Young's moduli at 27°C and 50% RH, agree well with our
179 simulation which is about 2.5 GPa under similar temperature and moisture level (Gröndahl et al.
180 2004; Höije et al. 2005; Escalante et al. 2012). For all these mechanical properties, there is also a
181 transition happening around $m \sim 30\%$.

182
183 For a homogeneous isotropic material, like AGX, shear moduli can be predicted from bulk and
184 Young's moduli using (1). It is important to note that the dry material is found to be isotropic (see
185 the supporting information), while the hydrated material may show some deviations of isotropy.
186 However, we can assume that the materials remain mainly isotropic and (1) is assumed to be
187 valid. The predicted values represented by white triangles in Fig. 2e agree well with the shear
188 moduli measured by MD (pink dots in Fig. 2e).

$$G = \frac{3KE}{9K - E} \quad (1)$$

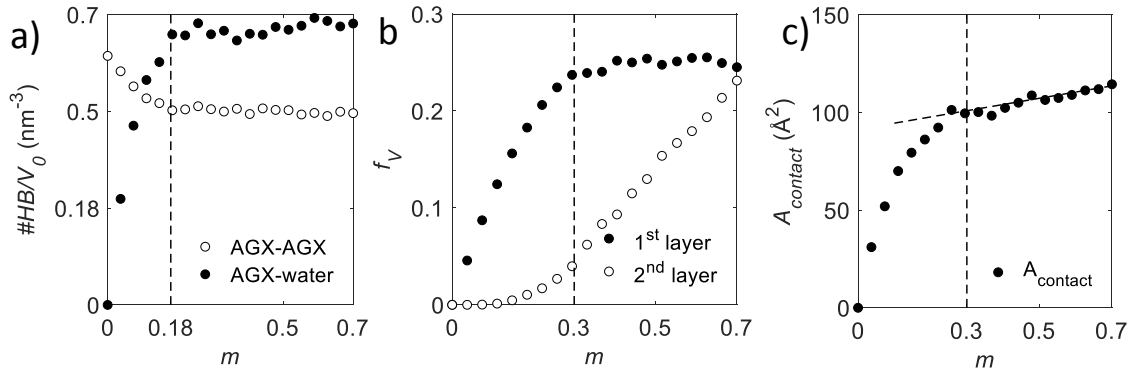
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191 **Mechanisms of Moisture-Induced Crossover**

192 *Density of Polymer-Polymer and Polymer-Water Hydrogen Bonds*

193 To explain the transition behavior observed around $m \sim 30\%$, the hydrogen bond network and
194 water distribution in the hydrated AGX are now discussed. The HBs between polymer chains
195 play a central role for the moisture-induced effects of hydrophilic polymeric material, such as
196 weakening (Kulasinski et al. 2015) and hysteresis (Chen et al. 2018). The establishment of HBs is
197 judged by applying the criteria referred to in Refs. (Soper and Phillips 1986; Teixeira and
198 Bellissent-Funel 1990; Luzar and Chandler 1993) and shown in the illustration in the inset of Fig.
199 1b, i.e. $r < 0.35$ nm and $\alpha < 30^\circ$, where r is the distance between the donor oxygen atom and
200 the acceptor oxygen atom and α is the angle of acceptor oxygen atom – donor oxygen atom –
201 donor hydrogen atom. The number of HBs is normalized by the initial dry material volume V_0 to
202 obtain the density of polymer-polymer HBs ($\#HB/V_0$). Both $\#HB/V_0$ for AGX-AGX and AGX-
203 water – shown in black and white dots respectively in Fig. 3a – remain constant after $m > 18\%$,
204 which is below the transition point of $m \sim 30\%$. The number of HBs cannot explain the transition
205 observed for the material properties in Fig. 2.

206



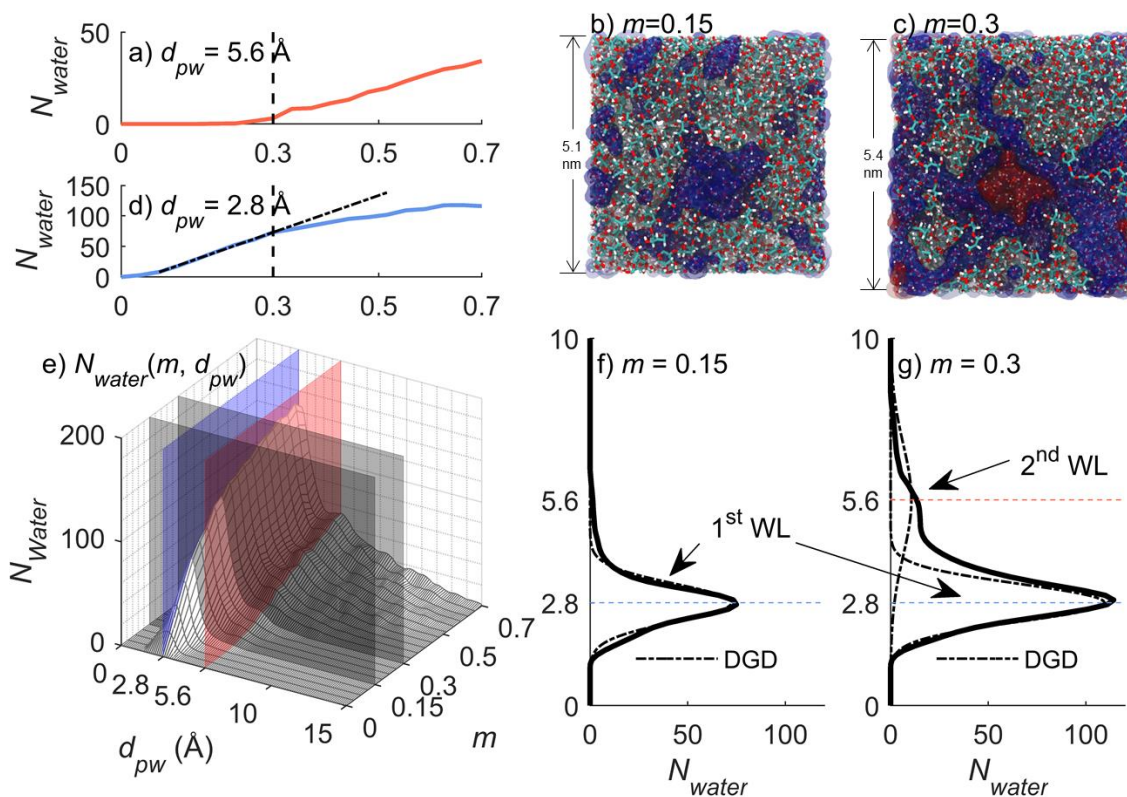
207
 208 **Fig. 3.** **a)** Density of hydrogen bonds between AGX-AGX (white) and AGX-water (black). **b)**
 209 Volume fraction of 1st (black) and 2nd (white) layers of water. At $m = 0.3$, the 1st layer saturates
 210 while the 2nd layer starts to quickly grow. **c)** Contact area between polymer and water

211
 212 In previous work, for another wood polymer, amorphous cellulose (AC), a linear relationship
 213 between the number of polymer-polymer HBs and the mechanical moduli was found. The
 214 breakage of HBs was then understood to be the main mechanism of the mechanical weakening of
 215 AC (Kulasinski et al. 2015). In the present study, within the range of 0~18% moisture content,
 216 moduli also scale linearly with the HBs breakage. However, for higher moisture contents, i.e. $m >$
 217 18%, further decrease of moduli is seen to occur without further breaking of HBs. This indicates
 218 that there must be another mechanism explaining the mechanical weakening behavior of AGX for
 219 $m > 18\%$, and the crossover happening around $m \sim 30\%$. It is abnormal to find that hydrogen
 220 bond is not dominating such important behaviors of the hydrophilic polymer.

221
 222 *Double Layer Adsorption*

223 We explore another possible mechanism, inspired by the observation that further moisture-
 224 induced mechanical weakening occurs at the appearance of “free water”. As formerly mentioned,

225 water in the material can be in two possible states (Hodge et al. 1996b; Li et al. 1998; Brouillet-
226 Fourmann et al. 2002), i.e. “bound” or “unfreezable” and “free” or “freezable”. Thanks to MD,
227 the trajectories of individual water molecules can be tracked. We propose a statistical description
228 of adsorption layers, where the distance between a water molecule and the nearest polymer atom
229 (d_{pw}) is used. The water population along the polymer chains is given as a function of the
230 polymer-water distance and moisture content (the surface plot in Fig. 4e). The polymer-water
231 distance d_{pw} is defined as the distance between the oxygen atom of water and its nearest polymer
232 neighbor atom. The water population $N_{Water}(m, d_{pw})$ is the time average of the number of water
233 molecules at a specific m and d_{pw} . From Fig. 4e, we observe that, at lower moisture content, there
234 is only one peak centered at 2.8 Å. At higher moisture content and practically for $m > 30\%$, at
235 least two major peaks, centered at 2.8 Å and 5.6 Å, can be identified. Between the two peaks,
236 there is a “valley”, i.e. a local minimum, at 4.5 Å. Water population is practically zero for $d_{pw} >$
237 15 Å. We define the water that resides within 4.5 Å of the polymer chains as the 1st adsorbed
238 water layer and water from 4.5 to 20 Å as the 2nd adsorbed water layer. The occurrence of
239 double-layer adsorption is also supported by the sigmoidal shape of the AGX sorption isotherm
240 (type II isotherm) (Ergun et al. 2010). The double-layer adsorption starts from around $m \sim 30\%$.
241



242

243 **Fig. 4.** a) Water population as a function of moisture content $N_{water}(m)$ at the polymer-water
 244 distance of 5.6 Å. b) and c) Juxtaposing snapshots of hydrated polymer system at $m = 0.15$ and
 245 0.3, respectively. The polymer chains, the 1st and 2nd layer of water are shown in color thick
 246 sticks, blue and red surfaces, respectively. d) Water population $N_{water}(m)$ as a function of
 247 moisture content m at $d_{pw} = 2.8$ Å. e) Water population as a function of moisture content and
 248 polymer-water distance $N_{water}(m, d_{pw})$ shown as a 3D surface. The four cut planes, i.e. $d_{pw} = 5.6$ Å
 249 and 2.8 Å, $m = 0.15$ and 0.3, refer to the coordinate planes of subplot a), d), f) and g)
 250 respectively. f) and g) Water population as a function of polymer-water distance at $m = 0.15$ and
 251 0.3, respectively. The black dashed curves are double Gaussian decomposition (DGD) of water
 252 population
 253

254 The blue and red cut planes in Fig. 4e denote the center location of the 1st and 2nd adsorbed water
 255 layers, respectively. The solid curves in Fig. 4a and Fig. 4d are the water population at $d_{pw} = 5.6$
 256 Å and 2.8 Å, which refers to the intersection between the cut planes and the surface in Fig. 4e. As
 257 shown in Fig. 4a, the water population starts to grow from $m = 0.3$. As shown in Fig. 4d, the
 258 linear growth of water population slows down from $m = 0.3$, indicated by the divergence of the
 259 solid blue curve below the dashed line fitted from the range of low moisture content. The surface
 260 in Fig. 4e can also be cut by the planes of $m = 0.15$ and 0.3, for which we get the solid water
 261 population curves in Fig. 4f and Fig. 4g. For $m = 0.15$, as shown in Fig. 4f, the water population
 262 only has one single peak around 2.8 Å. However, for $m = 0.3$, shown in Fig. 4g, two peaks (2.8 Å
 263 and 5.6 Å) can be identified. The water population can be described by the summation of two
 264 Gaussian distributions, as shown by the dashed lines calculated from double Gaussian
 265 decomposition (DGD). Fig. 4b and c are juxtaposing snapshots of hydrated polymer system at m
 266 = 0.15 and 0.3, respectively. The polymer chains, the 1st and 2nd layer of water are shown in
 267 color thick sticks, blue and red surfaces, respectively. The average side length of the system
 268 increases from 5.1 nm for $m = 0.15$ to 5.4 nm for $m = 0.3$ indicating swelling of the system.
 269
 270 Fig. 3b shows the volume fraction of the 1st and 2nd water layers as a function of moisture
 271 content. At $m \sim 30\%$, the 1st layer saturates. The 2nd water layer starts to grow quickly from $m \sim$
 272 30%, though it already started to emerge before this moisture level. The saturation of the 1st water
 273 layer is supported by the analysis of the contact area between polymer and water shown in Fig.
 274 3c. The water-polymer contact area is defined as $A_{contact} = A^{polymer} + A^{water} - A^{system}$,
 275 where $A^{polymer}$, A^{water} and A^{system} are the surface areas of the polymer, water and full system.
 276 These surface areas are measured by the so-called rolling ball algorithm (Shrake and Rupley

277 1973), using a ball of specific radius (here being 1 Å) to probe the surface of interest. To measure
278 the surface area of water (or polymer), the polymer (or water) are removed from the trajectory to
279 expose the area that is hidden by contact between water and polymer. As shown in Fig. 3c, within
280 the moisture range of 0-30%, water adsorption generates new contact surface. This means that the
281 newly adsorbed water molecules bind to the polymer. However, for $m > 30\%$, the contact area
282 saturates, which means that the newly adsorbed water molecules attach themselves to the
283 formerly adsorbed water rather than to the polymer.

284
285 As the 1st and 2nd water layers are located at a different distance from the polymer chain, their
286 interactions with the polymer are also different. This induces different dynamics and mobility for
287 these two populations (Li et al. 1998; Zhao et al. 2019). The crossover from one to two layers of
288 water is likely to influence the properties of the hydrated polymer and to induce a transition, i.e.
289 crossover, in thermodynamic and mechanical properties of the polymer. This new insight
290 provides a long-time missing piece of information for the full understanding of the structure-
291 property relationship of polymers, which may interest many research fields and industries. For
292 example, in the plastic, adhesive, hydrogel and food industries, the states and molecular
293 structures of the water within polymers matrix have an important impact (Hodge et al. 1996a; Li
294 et al. 1998; Brouillet-Fourmann et al. 2002) on the material properties where crossover might
295 come into play. Another example is that, in classic linear poromechanics (Coussy 2003), the
296 coupling energy term is written as the linear summation of the external variables, meaning that
297 the poroelastic properties, e.g. bulk modulus, are constants, which might lead to wrong
298 predictions. This study shows that two modes, separated by the crossover point, exist in the
299 moisture-material interactions. This physics could provide guidance on the proper modeling of

300 thermodynamic and mechanical properties of polymeric porous media thus facilitating the
301 improvement of existing poromechanical models.

302
303 Interestingly, in experiments, similar saturations around $m \sim 30\%$ have been also found for other
304 materials. Li et al. (Li et al. 1998) were able to differentiate “unfreezable” water, which creates
305 strong interaction with polymer either energetically bounded or kinetically retarded, to
306 “freezable” water by using differential scanning calorimetry (DSC). They found that the
307 saturation of “unfreezable” water happens at 30% moisture content. Brouillet-Fourmann et al.
308 (Brouillet-Fourmann et al. 2002) revealed a similar saturation of bound water at 30% moisture
309 content in a hydrated starch system also by DSC. Hodge et al. (Hodge et al. 1996a) found a
310 saturation of “nonfreezing water” for water concentration greater than 30% in polyvinyl alcohol.

311
312 *Properties of Polymer, First and Second Layers of Water Predicted by Material Models*
313 As shown in Fig. 2a, the adsorption of the first water molecules releases more heat than
314 adsorption of those of the 2nd layer. After $m > 30\%$, the 2nd layer of water quickly grows and
315 starts to dominate the heat of adsorption. The heat of adsorption approaches the latent heat of
316 liquid water as moisture increases, indicating that the fast-growing 2nd water layer resembles bulk
317 water. Similarly in the case of heat capacity, thermal expansion coefficient, elastic constants and
318 Poisson’s ratio, the saturation of the 1st layer of water and the quick growth of the 2nd layer of
319 water induces the crossover. The differentiation of two layers of water enables us to decompose
320 properties into the contributions of different types of water. Here we adopt three simple material
321 models, i.e. mixture rule, parallel and series models, to predict the mechanical and
322 thermodynamic properties measured, which are seen as the summation of the contributions of

323 three major types of materials involved: polymer, 1st and 2nd layers of water. The constitutive
324 equations for these models read:

$$\text{Mixture rule/Parallel} \quad X_c = f_{v,p}X_p + f_{v,w1}X_{w1} + f_{v,w2}X_{w2} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{Series} \quad 1/X_c = f_{v,p}/X_p + f_{v,w1}/X_{w1} + f_{v,w2}/X_{w2} \quad (3)$$

325 where X_c , X_p , X_{w1} , X_{w2} , $f_{v,p}$, $f_{v,w1}$ and $f_{v,w2}$ are the properties of composite, polymer, 1st and 2nd
326 water, the volume fraction of polymer, 1st and 2nd layer of water respectively. From simulations,
327 X_c , $f_{v,p}$, $f_{v,w1}$ and $f_{v,w2}$ can be directly extracted, however X_p , X_{w1} and X_{w2} are parameters to be
328 determined through fitting analysis. The mixture rule and the parallel model share the same
329 mathematical equations, but they differ in their interpretation. The mixture rule represents the
330 composite behavior of scalar properties such as heat of adsorption and heat capacity, while
331 mechanical properties, such as Young's, bulk, shear moduli and thermal expansion coefficient are
332 tensorial properties represented by a parallel or series models.

333
334 The mechanical moduli, i.e. bulk, Young's and shear moduli, are found to correspond to a series
335 model, the heat of adsorption and heat capacity correspond to the mixture rule, and the thermal
336 expansion coefficient corresponds to a parallel model. Fig. 2 gives the data obtained by MD and
337 the fitted models (solid curves). Moreover, it is found that X_p and X_{w2} correspond relatively
338 well with the value of dry polymer and bulk water. Under the same context, it is reasonable to
339 speculate that X_{w1} represents the properties of the 1st layer of water, which are difficult to
340 measure both numerically and experimentally. A list of values for X_p , X_{w1} and X_{w2} are
341 summarized in Table 1.

342

343 Finding that material properties like the heat of adsorption and the heat capacity follow a mixture
 344 rule model is logical, since these are scalar properties. Our findings show that the polymer
 345 material, first and second adsorbed water layer act as a layered composite material loaded mainly
 346 normally to the layers as in a series model. The parallel model shows that the polymers, as well
 347 as layers of water, mainly expand along their longest direction which is along the layer direction
 348 as in a parallel model. According to all these analyses, we conclude that the saturation of the 1st
 349 water layer and the development of the 2nd water layer is the mechanism inducing the crossover
 350 occurring around $m \sim 30\%$ (as seen in heat of adsorption, thermal expansion coefficient, heat
 351 capacity, elastic moduli and Poisson's ratio).

352

353

Table 1. Predicted properties of the polymer, first and second layers of water*

	Polymer	First layer of water	Second layer of water	Bulk water	Unit
Bulk moduli K	5.9	1.9	1.5	1.7	GPa
Young's moduli E	4.6	1.1	0.32	0	GPa
Shear moduli G	1.9	0.6	0.068	0	GPa
Adsorption heat Q	3340	1110	2660	2260	kJ/kg
Thermal expansion coefficient α	6.4×10^{-5}	3.7×10^{-4}	2.9×10^{-4}	2.33×10^{-4}	1/K
Heat capacity C_p	2.6	4.6	4.4	4.594	kJ/kg/K

354 *Bulk, Young's and shear moduli are inferred by the series model. Adsorption heat and heat
 355 capacity are inferred by the mixture rule. Thermal expansion coefficient is inferred by the parallel
 356 model. The properties of bulk water are also included to be compared with those of the second
 357 layer of water.

358

359 **Conclusions**

360 There is considerable interest in understanding the thermodynamic and mechanical responses of
361 hydrophilic plant biopolymers upon moisture adsorption. In particular, this could allow better
362 utilizing plant-based sustainable resources. In this study, molecular dynamics simulation is used
363 to investigate the influence of moisture on the properties of a prototypical hydrophilic polymer:
364 softwood xylan. The heat of adsorption, heat capacity, thermal expansion, elastic moduli and
365 Poisson's ratio are yielded as a function of moisture content. All these mechanical and
366 thermodynamic properties show a crossover occurring around 30 wt. % moisture content, which
367 cannot be explained by the alteration of the hydrogen bond network which plateaus at 18 w.t. %.

368 A study of water population distribution and polymer-water contact area leads to the
369 identification of a double-layer adsorption. The saturation of the first adsorption layer and the
370 growth of the second adsorption layer of water are identified as the main mechanism of the
371 moisture-induced crossover. This decomposition of two types of water also enables a further
372 material model study, where properties of the composite can be attributed to the contributions of
373 the three major components, i.e. polymer, first and second layer of water. **The universality and**
374 **diversity of the observed crossover in the current study still require further investigation.**
375 **Nevertheless, the simulation framework and the statistical analysis of the layering structure of**
376 **water could be extended to other material systems potentially explaining phenomenon associated**
377 **with it. (delete)This numerical framework could be extended to other material systems**
378 **complementing experimental information. (delete)** These new insights provide an important
379 missing piece of information for the full understanding of the structure-property relationship of
380 polymers, which may interest many research fields and industries. **(delete)Moreover, these**
381 **findings open doors for future studies, such as whether crossovers are ubiquitous for all types of**

382 polymers or not, and how does the crossover fit into traditional theoretical frameworks of
383 polymer science, such as free volume and relaxation dynamics.(delete)

384

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387

388 **Supporting Information.** The detailed description of modeling and measurement methods.

389

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