



**HAL**  
open science

## Qualitative and quantitative assessment of water sorption in natural fibres using ATR-FTIR spectroscopy

Amandine Céline, Olivier Gonçalves, Frédéric Jacquemin, Sylvain Fréour

### ► To cite this version:

Amandine Céline, Olivier Gonçalves, Frédéric Jacquemin, Sylvain Fréour. Qualitative and quantitative assessment of water sorption in natural fibres using ATR-FTIR spectroscopy. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 2014, 101, pp.163-170. 10.1016/j.carbpol.2013.09.023 . hal-01007227

**HAL Id: hal-01007227**

**<https://hal.science/hal-01007227v1>**

Submitted on 13 Mar 2018

**HAL** is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

# Qualitative and quantitative assessment of water sorption in natural fibres using ATR-FTIR spectroscopy

A. Céline<sup>1\*</sup>, O. Gonçalves<sup>2</sup>, F. Jacquemin<sup>1</sup>, S. Fréour<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Institut de Recherche en Génie Civil et Mécanique, UMR CNRS 6183, 37 Boulevard de l'Université, 44602 Saint-Nazaire Cedex, France,

<sup>2</sup> GEPEA, UMR CNRS 6144, 37 Boulevard de l'Université, 44602 Saint-Nazaire Cedex, France

\*Corresponding author: Amandine Céline

GeM, UMR CNRS 6183

37 Boulevard de l'Université, BP 406

44602 Saint-Nazaire Cedex

Telephone number: +33240172625

Fax number: +33240172618

E-mail address: amandine.celino@univ-nantes.fr

## Abstract

In the field of composite materials, natural fibres appear to be a viable replacement for glass fibres. However, in humid conditions, strong hydrophilic behavior of such materials can lead to their structural modification. Then, understanding moisture sorption mechanisms in these materials is an important issue for their efficient use. In this work, the water sorption on three natural fibres (flax, hemp and sisal) was studied using Fourier Transformed InfraRed spectroscopy. The spectral informations allowed both qualitative and quantitative analysis of the moisture absorption mechanisms. The main chemical functions involved in the water sorption phenomenon were identified. The absolute water content of the fibres was also determined by using a Partial Least Square Regression (PLS-R) approach. Moreover, typical sorption isotherm curves described by Park model were fitted as well as water diffusion kinetics. These last applications confirmed the validity of the FTIR spectra based predictive models.

**Keywords:** *natural fibres, water sorption, Fourier Transformed InfraRed spectroscopy, Partial Least Square Regression, diffusion kinetics*

## 1. Introduction

Nowadays, natural fibres are considered to be a good alternative for glass fibres replacement in the purpose of composite material reinforcement (particularly in automotive manufacturing or sport and leisure sector) (Bledzki & Gassan, 1999; Suddell & Evans, 2005). These fibres

43 present a better environmental impact than glass fibres (recyclability, biodegradability) as  
44 well as higher specific mechanical properties because of their low density. However, their  
45 pronounced hydrophilic behavior -due to their particular structure- leads to high level of  
46 moisture absorption in wet environments (Céline, Fréour, Jacquemin, & Casari, 2013). This  
47 results in the structural modification of the fibres and an evolution of their mechanical  
48 properties together with the composites in which they are fitted in (Dakhal, Zhan, &  
49 Richardson, 2007; Placet, Cisse, & Boubakar, 2012; Symington, Banks, David, & Pethrick,  
50 2009). Thereby, the understanding of these moisture absorption mechanisms is of great  
51 interest to get a better control of such new biomaterials.

52

53 Generally, one of the most important factors controlling the water diffusion phenomenon in  
54 polymeric materials is the molecular interaction occurring between the diffusing compound  
55 and the substrate. The diffusion phenomenon is subjected to the ability of the polymer  
56 molecular sites to establish hydrogen bonds with the water molecules. Spectroscopic  
57 techniques such as Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR), dielectric or Fourier Transform  
58 Infra-Red spectroscopy (FTIR) have been proved to be well adapted to study this  
59 phenomenon since they allow to characterize molecular interactions involving potential  
60 sorption sites for water (Mijovic & Zhang, 2003; Popineau, Rondeau-Mouro, Suplice-Gaillet  
61 & Martin, 2005). Among these approaches, FTIR spectroscopy has been widely used to study  
62 water transport in polymer and particularly to study the water sorbed into epoxy resins  
63 (Cotugno, Larobina, Mensitieri, Musto & Ragosta, 2001; Feng, Berger, & Douglas, 2004;  
64 Fieldson & Barbari, 1993; Musto, Ragosta, & Mascia, 2000). Indeed, this technique provides  
65 attractive features: i.e. the very high sampling rate, the sensitivity, the accuracy of the  
66 quantitative analysis and the informations at the molecular level contained in the vibrational  
67 spectra. Moreover, the development of Attenuated Total Reflectance FTIR spectroscopy  
68 (ATR-FTIR) encouraged and facilitated the use of this non-invasive technique directly onto  
69 solid materials (Chalmers & Dent, 1997).

70

71 On pure cellulosic polymers, the potential sorption sites for water were determined to be  
72 hydroxyl and carboxyl groups which are particularly easily detected in FTIR spectroscopy  
73 (Berthold, Olsson, & Salmén, 1998). However, few studies have been performed to  
74 characterize water sorption by FTIR directly on raw lignocellulosic fibres. (Laity & Hay,  
75 2000) demonstrated that it was possible to reproduce water sorption kinetics by recording  
76 infrared spectra in reflexion mode on cellophane. More recently, (Olsson & Salmén, 2004)  
77 examined the association of water on pulp paper using FTIR spectra acquired in transmission  
78 mode. Their results indicated the existence of characteristic bands affected by water.  
79 Moreover they determined a linear relationship between the absorbance of those bands and  
80 the water content, using a univariate approach. This last work was of particular importance  
81 since it highlighted major features helping the understanding of chemical groups involved in  
82 water diffusion in pulp paper. However both approaches, based on univariate analysis of  
83 FTIR signal failed to properly reproduce the sorption isotherms.

84

85 The aim of this work is the use of FTIR as an experimental tool to investigate the water  
86 sorption onto raw plant fibres, known to be good candidates for the reinforcement of

87 composite materials (i.e. flax, hemp and sisal). First FTIR spectral signature of each fibre was  
 88 investigated in order to describe the molecular effect of the water sorption mechanisms.  
 89 Secondly, a multivariate model linking water sorption and the whole FTIR spectra was  
 90 developed using partial least square regression (PLS-R). Finally this model was applied for  
 91 the accurate monitoring of the water diffusion in the tested biomaterials.

92

93

## 94 **2. Materials and methods**

### 95 *2.1 Materials*

96 Among the disposable plant fibres, hemp, flax, and sisal fibres were chosen because they  
 97 presented the best mechanical properties regarding the replacement of glass fibres for the  
 98 purpose of reinforcing the polymeric matrix (Summerscales, Dyssanayake, Virk & Hall,  
 99 2010; Wambua, Ivens, & Verpoest, 2003,). In our study, the bundle of the model fibres was  
 100 investigated. Bundle of fibres are extracted from the stem (flax and hemp) or the leaf (sisal) of  
 101 the plant. They are composed of about ten elementary fibres linked together by a pectic  
 102 cement (i.e. the middle lamella). Their section is in the order of a few millimeters.

103

### 104 *2.2 Moisture sorption protocol*

105 First, all the fibre samples tested were dried in desiccators containing silicate gel for 48 hours  
 106 before controlled moisture sorption treatment. Then, samples were placed in different  
 107 hygroscopic conditions in a climatic chamber (supplied by Climats and assisted by Spiral 3  
 108 software) in order to get samples with different water content. The relative humidities tested  
 109 were 30, 50, 60, 75, 85 and 97 % at room temperature. Experimental sorption isotherms and  
 110 sorption kinetics were obtained by periodically weighting the samples. Dynamic Vapour  
 111 Sorption apparatus could also be used to plot sorption isotherms with more accuracy as  
 112 demonstrated by (Bessadok et al., 2009 or Xie et al., 2011). But in our case, gravimetric  
 113 measurement provided necessary results. Data were read to 0.01 mg on a precision balance  
 114 (Sartorius – MC1 Analytic AC210P). The equilibrium moisture content  $M_s$  is considered to  
 115 be reached when the mass is stable according to relation (1).

$$M_w(\%) = \frac{M(t) - M_0}{M_0} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

116 where  $M_0$  is the initial weight of the bulk specimens before moisture sorption (dry  
 117 conditions) and  $M(t)$  is the weight of the specimen at time  $t$ .

118

### 119 *2.3 Infrared spectroscopic investigations*

#### 120 *2.3.1 ATR-FTIR spectra acquisition*

121 Infrared spectra were recorded in reflection mode directly on the single reflexion diamond  
 122 crystal of the ATR accessory loaded with bundles of the three fibres presented in section 2.1.  
 123 The Bruker tensor 27 FTIR spectrometer equipped with the ATR platinum module, with a  
 124 deuterated triglycine sulphate detector RT-DLaTGS and the OPUSv7.0.122 software (Bruker  
 125 Optics, Germany) was set up with the following parameters. The spectral resolution was fixed

126 to  $1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , the number of scans to 32, the selected spectral range between 4000 and  $400 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ .  
 127 The penetration depth in the fibres was  $0.4 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$  at  $4000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $2.7 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$  at  $600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  according  
 128 to equation (2) relating penetration depth (dp) to wavelength.

$$dp = \frac{\lambda}{2\Gamma n_1 \sqrt{\sin^2 \theta - (n_2/n_1)^2}} \quad (2)$$

129 Where  $\lambda$  is the infrared wavelength,  $n_1$ , the refractive index of the internal reflexion element  
 130 (IRE),  $n_2$  the refractive index of the substrate and  $\theta$  the angle of incidence of the IR beam  
 131 (Griffith & Haseth, 2007). In our case  $n_1 = 2.41$ ,  $n_2 = 1.5$  for the fibres assimilated as polymer,  
 132  $\theta = 40^\circ$ , and  $\lambda = 4000\text{-}600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

133 Background spectra were collected using the same instrument settings as those employed for  
 134 the samples and was performed against air. Spectra were recorded for 10 replicates per fibre  
 135 sample.

136

### 137 2.3.2 ATR-FTIR spectra acquisition in kinetic mode

138 For the monitoring of water diffusion, time dependent ATR-FTIR spectra were acquired  
 139 every 2 minutes in ambient conditions during drying of a saturated fibre sample. Each tested  
 140 fibres were systematically placed in a relative humidity atmosphere of 95 % before the  
 141 measurement. Recorded spectra were directly treated by Partial Least Square regression  
 142 (section 2.3.4) in order to determine the water content and to plot the drying kinetics of the  
 143 tested fibres. Then, the results were compared with the kinetics obtained by the gravimetric  
 144 measurements. For the gravimetric measurements, the samples were placed on a precision  
 145 balance ( $0.01 \text{ mg}$ ) during the drying step and data were collected every 2 minutes.

146

### 147 2.3.3 ATR-FTIR spectra preprocessing

148 All the spectra were recorded to the background spectra. For the PLS-R model calibration  
 149 and validation the raw spectra were used since OPUS v 7.0.122 software was set up to  
 150 manage spectral corrections automatically, according to the value of its optimization criteria.  
 151 For the Kruskal Wallis analysis the raw spectra were corrected for ambient  $\text{CO}_2$  only and  
 152 smoothed. For the multivariate analysis, the raw spectra were corrected for ambient  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  
 153 smoothed and a second derivative calculation was also performed. All these treatments were  
 154 achieved using integrated functions of (Bruker Optics, Germany)

### 155 2.3.4 Qualitative Multivariate analysis of ATR-FTIR spectra

156 Pre-processed spectra or pre-processed second derivative spectra were exported as text files  
 157 for file format modification on Microsoft Excel v14.0.0 or statistical treatment on R 2.15.2.  
 158 Second derivative spectra were systematically used to improve the infrared band resolution  
 159 and thus enhance the discrimination of vibrators contributing to the shape of raw FTIR spectra  
 160 (Mecozzi, Pietroletti, & Tornambe, 2011). The spectral data were centered and scaled (mean  
 161 subtracted and divided by standard deviation) to minimize the unit range influence before  
 162 performing unsupervised multivariate analysis (Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and  
 163 Hierarchical Clustering on Principal Components (HC-PC)) using the factominer R package  
 164 (Lê, Josse & Husson, 2008). The number of classes was determined without a priori by firstly

165 using the unsupervised multivariate analysis (i.e. PCA). A refined assessment of the clusters  
166 was then performed using a Partial Least Square Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA), conducted  
167 on all the wave numbers stemming from the ATR-FTIR spectra. This multivariate approach  
168 was used in order to enhance the formation of clusters by using a model of class prediction  
169 (for review see Wold, Sjöström, & Eriksson, 2001). The quality of the prediction was  
170 characterized by two parameters,  $R^2(Y)$  (goodness of the fit) and  $Q^2$  (predictive capability of  
171 the model). The clustering capabilities of the PLS-DA model were considered as satisfactory  
172 with both  $R^2(Y)$  and  $Q^2$  values superior to 0.5 (Westerhuis et al., 2008). The generation of the  
173 PLS-DA models was performed in two steps: first the calibration step ( $R^2(Y)$  and  $Q^2$ ), second  
174 the validation step named also the cross validation step ( $R^2(Y)_{int}$  and  $Q^2_{int}$ ). For the cross  
175 validation step, (Westerhuis et al., 2008) latest study indicated clearly that it was important to  
176 notice that even with negative  $Q^2_{int}$  values, it was still possible to obtain clear separation  
177 between classes. The PLS-DA analysis was conducted using the web server analysis pipeline  
178 Metaboanalyst 2.0, dedicated to metabolomic data exploitation (Xia, Mandal, Sinenikov,  
179 Broadhurst, & Wishart, 2012). For this supervised multivariate analysis ATR-FTIR spectral  
180 data were  $\text{Log}_{10} [1+x]$  - transformed and Pareto scaled (divided by the square root of the  
181 standard deviation) (Van den Berg, Hoefsloot, Westerhuis, Smilde, & Van Der Werf, 2006).

182 To assess the influence of the water content on the ATR-FTIR spectra of the tested fibres, a  
183 Kruskal Wallis Test (non parametric ANOVA) was performed per wave number of the ATR-  
184 FTIR raw spectra recorded on a tested fibre for different water contents. As this non  
185 parametric version of the ANOVA does not make any assumption on the nature of the  
186 underlying distribution (it does not assume the distribution to be normal), it should be less  
187 sensitive to the outliers commonly found in FTIR signatures (since the outliers are taken into  
188 account). This allowed a better detection of the vibrators impacted by the water uptake (Di  
189 Giambattista et al., 2011). P-value beyond significance threshold (0.05) were plotted on raw  
190 spectra data in order to visualize impact of water sorption on ATR-FTIR bands.

191

192

### 193 *2.3.5 Quantitative analysis of ATR-FTIR spectra*

194 There are two steps to obtain PLS-R models: the calibration and the validation. Generally two  
195 kinds of validation can be performed: the cross validation and the external validation. Usually  
196 the calibration and the cross validation are performed in a single step since identical data set is  
197 used to perform calculation.

198

#### 199 *(i) Calibration and cross validation*

200 For the calibration (cross validation) step, the procedure of calculation and selection of the  
201 best predictive model was iterative and comprised a loop formed of two steps. Firstly the pre-  
202 processed infrared spectra were regressed against the reference value (i.e. for a considered  
203 fibre: its water content determined gravimetrically). Secondly a full cross validation of the  
204 model was performed by omitting one sample and operating the test in the remaining spectral  
205 data set. This procedure allowed finding models with high correlations  $R^2$  and low Root Mean  
206 Square Error of Cross-Validation (RMSECV). The infrared data sets used in our study

207 comprised 11 samples and 5 replicates per sample, i.e. 55 spectra (ASTM Committee E13,  
208 2005).

209 *(ii) External validation*

210 An independent data set was used for the model evaluation (4 samples and 5 replicates per  
211 sample, i.e. 20 spectra) in order to obtain highest correlations (i.e. high  $R^2$ ) and lowest root  
212 mean square error of prediction (RMSEP).

213

### 214 **3. Results and discussion**

215 *3.1 FTIR qualitative analysis of the water uptake effect on the studied fibres*

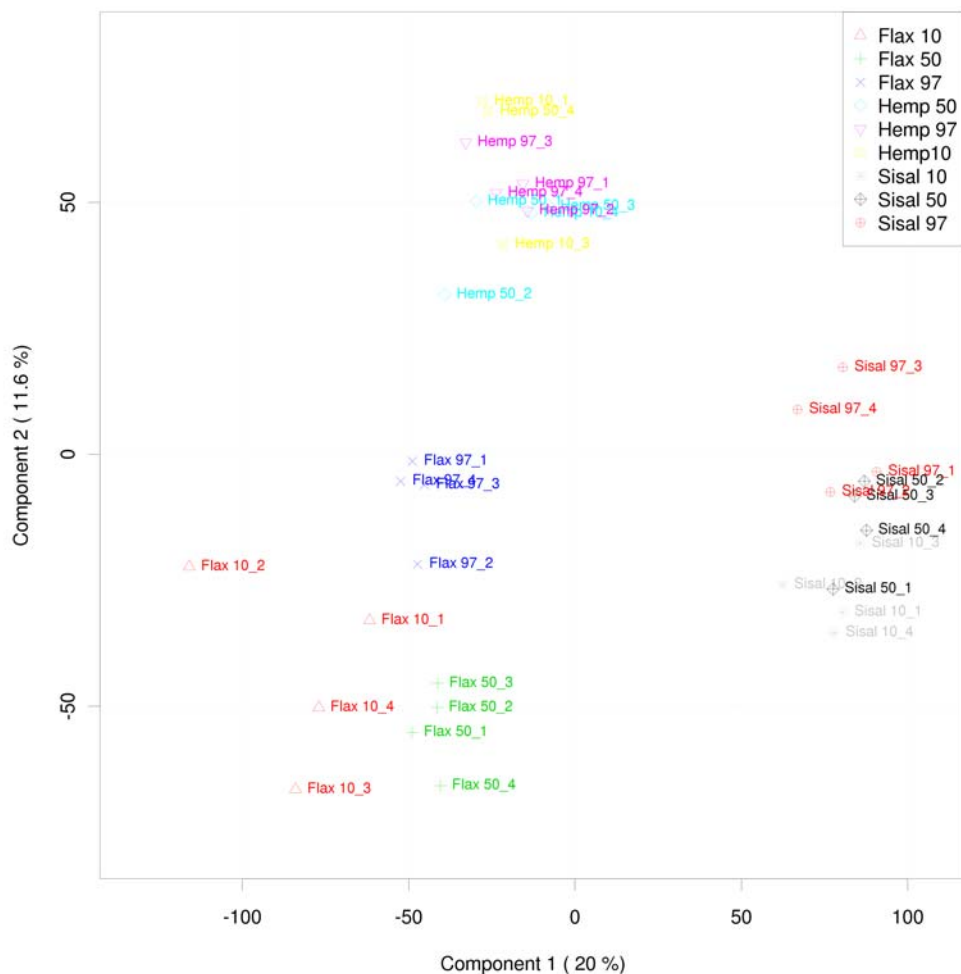
216 *3.1.1 Each model fibre presented its own FTIR fingerprint*

217 The second derivative spectral data were qualitatively analysed using Partial Least Square  
218 Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA) for each model fibres and for three different relative  
219 humidities (RH = 10, 50 and 97 %). On figure 1, results indicate that the three fibres are  
220 clustered into three distinct groups, clearly associated to each type of fibre (axis 1). Inside  
221 each cluster, it is moreover possible to distinguish subgroups according to relative humidity  
222 content (axis 2).

223 The clustering results clearly reveal that each type of fibre could be distinguished according to  
224 its FTIR spectrum, exhibiting moreover differences for the three tested relative humidities.

225 Those observations suggest that each fibre presents its own FTIR signature, depending on its  
226 proper chemical composition. Indeed, according to the work of Satyanarayana and colleagues  
227 (Satyanarayana, Arizaga, & Wypych, 2009) this spectral signature could be directly related to  
228 the amount of the constitutive macromolecules (cellulose, hemicelluloses, lignin and pectin)  
229 and to the crystallization degree of the cellulose which are both fibre dependent. Moreover,  
230 as the chemical make-up and the crystallinity degree of the fibres are known to influence the  
231 moisture sorption, the PLS-DA results suggest that each fibre should present its own water  
232 diffusion behavior. Taken together all those remarks indicate that the water quantification  
233 models should be developed per type of fibres.

234



235

236 **Figure 1:** PLS-DA score plot of second derivative FTIR signatures of the three model fibres  
 237 for three RH conditions.

238 The legend in the upright corner details the nature of the model fibre and the values of the  
 239 tested RH % (as suffixes). The classification model used here presented the following  
 240 characteristics i.e.  $R^2(Y) = 0,989$  and  $Q^2 = 0,869$  and was validated using 20 permutations  
 241 ( $R^2(Y)_{int} = 0,555$  and  $Q^2_{int} = -0,343$ ).

242 3.1.2 Water sorption molecular sites could be identified for the model fibres subjected to  
 243 increasing RH %

244 The spectral dependence on the water content is illustrated on figure 2. The development of  
 245 the sisal FTIR spectra by increasing relative humidity and water content has been treated here  
 246 solely for reason of clarity. Similar results were observed for hemp and flax fibres (data not  
 247 shown). The results of the Kruskal Wallis analysis performed on each individual wave  
 248 number of the raw spectra highlight several zones of the sisal FTIR fingerprint that were  
 249 strongly impacted by the increasing water uptake. It helps the FTIR spectra bands assignation  
 250 (using table 1) and allows the interpretation of the experimental observations.

251

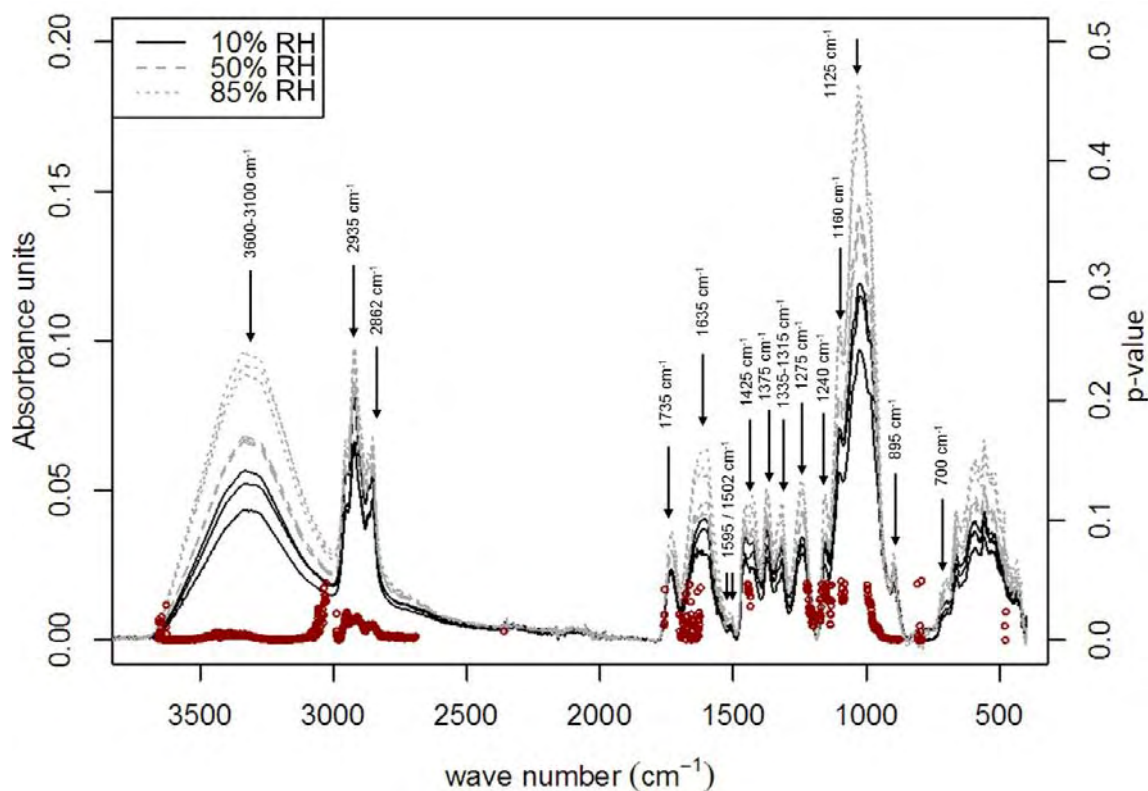
252 **Table 1:** Assignment of the main absorption bands in FTIR spectra of sisal, flax and hemp  
 253 fibres. Sisal FTIR data were interpreted according to investigations issued from (Adibi,



254 *Cabrales, & Haigler, 2013; De Rosa, Kenny, Puglia, Santulli, & Sarasini, 2010; Liang &*  
 255 *Marchessault, 1959; Nelsson & O'Connor, 1964).*  
 256

Wave number (cm <sup>-1</sup> )	Assignment
3600-3100	Hydrogen bonded of OH stretching in cellulose and/or hemicelluloses
2935	CH stretching of cellulose and hemicelluloses
2862	CH <sub>2</sub> stretching of cellulose and hemicelluloses
1735	C=O stretching vibration of carboxylic acid in pectin or ester group in hemicelluloses
1635	OH bending vibration characteristic of sorbed water
1595	Aromatic ring in lignin
1502	Aromatic ring in lignin
1425	Carboxylic acid of pectin and COO <sup>-</sup> vibration
1375	CH bending of cellulose and hemicelluloses
1335 - 1315	CH <sub>2</sub> wagging of cellulose and hemicelluloses
1275	Characteristic peak of lignin
1240	C-O of acetyl in pectin or hemicelluloses
1160	anti-symmetrical deformation of the C-O-C band
1125-895	C-O stretching and ring vibrational modes
895	Characteristic of β-links in cellulose
700-650	O-H out of plane bending

257  
 258



259  
 260

**Figure 2:** Infrared spectra bands impacted by increasing relative humidity for sisal fibre.

261 *For clarity, only sisal fibre has been presented and only three relative humidities are shown*  
262 *for three replicates (10 %; 50 % and 85 %). p-values scores, indicating significant impact of*  
263 *the water uptake on the FTIR bands, were marked using red dots.*  
264

265 *(i) Part of the water-fibre interactions could be associated to the formation of hydrogen bonds*  
266 *between the water and the hydroxyl groups of the cellulose or hemicelluloses constitutive of*  
267 *the raw material.*

268 The broad and unresolved band situated between 3600 and 3000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  was found to be  
269 significantly impacted by the increasing relative humidity content. Potential molecular sites of  
270 the polymers constituting the studied fibre could be identified here to explain the interactions  
271 with the water molecules. Indeed, this band is generally associated to the OH stretching  
272 vibrations and hydrogen bonds of hydroxyl groups found in cellulosic materials. However, the  
273 absence of clear structured shape makes difficult the assignment of this absorption band  
274 (Fengel, 1992; Marchessault, 1962). Recently, (Kondo, 1997) and (Hinterstoisser & Salmèn,  
275 1999) helped its resolution by using fitting deconvolution model and DMA-FTIR coupled  
276 analysis, respectively. The hydrogen bonds of hydroxyl groups in the 3600-3000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  wave  
277 number range were thus associated to general intramolecular and intermolecular hydrogen  
278 bonding and to free hydroxyl in cellulose macromolecule. This peak is also representative of  
279 the contribution of the free or the bound water linked to the substrate (Cotugno, Mensitieri,  
280 Musto, & Sanguigno, 2005; Murphy & Pinho, 1995; Musto et al., 2000). Here it could be the  
281 amorphous phase of the cellulose or the hemicelluloses of the material.  
282

283 *(ii) The water uptake could be also characterized by the monitoring of the interaction*  
284 *between the polymers constituting the raw fibre and the free water.*

285 The interaction of the cellulose or the hemicelluloses molecular sites of sisal, with the free  
286 water is also suggested by the significant impact monitored for the FTIR band situated at  
287 1635  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . Indeed such modification was already observed in the case of water diffusion and  
288 absorption on cellulosic material, and was found to be characteristic of the free water sorbed  
289 on studied material (Laity & Hay, 2000; Murphy & Pinho, 1995). The existence of this  
290 interaction should be normally reinforced by the presence of a peak situated at approximately  
291 700  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and assigned to the out of plane bending of the hydroxyl groups characteristic of the  
292 free water molecule. However this last peak is not clearly highlighted by the Kruskal Wallis  
293 analysis to be dependent of the water content, bringing therefore uncertainty about the  
294 influence of free water contribution monitoring. This lack of characterization could be  
295 partially explained by the fact that in spectra recorded in attenuated total reflectance, the  
296 definition between 700  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and 400  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  could not be as good as in transmission mode,  
297 precluding therefore the exploitation of the spectral information situated in this range of wave  
298 numbers (Parker & Roy, 1966).  
299

300 *(iii) Other molecular sites impacted by the increasing water content could be suggested.*

301 The FTIR bands situated in the wave number interval ranging from 1100 to 700  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  were  
302 also found to be affected by the water uptake. This signature could be associated to the  
303 stretching of the C-O-C group of the polysaccharide components of the studied fibres and

304 confirmed the previous observation of Olsson and colleagues (Olsson & Salmén, 2004). The  
305 evolution of the peak situated at  $1425\text{ cm}^{-1}$  could also be associated to the interaction of the  
306 water to the carboxylic acid moiety of the pectin polymer as firstly depicted by Marchessault  
307 in his exhaustive study on wood polysaccharides infrared spectra (Marchessault, 1962).  
308 Surprisingly, according to the Kruskal Wallis p values assignment, the CH stretching bands  
309 situated at  $2935$  and  $2900\text{ cm}^{-1}$  were found to be significantly impacted by the water uptake.  
310 This is difficult to interpret, since no clear chemical explanation could be envisaged. Several  
311 hypotheses could however bring elements of understanding. It could be inherent to the  
312 material which is known to be subject to chemical intrinsic variability or be assigned to non-  
313 specific experimental variation. Indeed, tests have been performed on different raw fibres for  
314 the identical humidities and it effectively highlighted differences in this specific range of  
315 wave numbers (data not shown). The way the spectra were processing could also bring  
316 elements of explanation. Indeed they were analyzed with almost the same preprocessing  
317 treatment than the one used for the PLS-R model generation. In particular they were not  
318 baseline corrected. The shoulder of the OH stretching vibration band clearly shifted up the  
319 whole CH bands when the amount of water increases in the sample -whereas no significant  
320 increase of the area was monitored (data not shown). This should perturb the Kruskal Wallis  
321 test in this particular zone, since it was performed per wave numbers and not per groups of  
322 wave numbers –i.e. a band. The combined use of a smoothing function or of moving average  
323 performed onto the p values results could enhance the pertinence of the Kruskal Wallis test.  
324 These last observations should be carefully considered in the forthcoming multivariate  
325 analysis interpretations.

326

### 327 *3.1.3 Summary*

328 The results presented above showed that it was possible to discriminate the type of fibre thru  
329 its ATR-FTIR second derivative signature using a PLS analysis. Moreover, results revealed  
330 that the whole fibre infrared spectra were impacted by the moisture changes. These features  
331 strongly suggest that to monitor accurately the water diffusion in the tested biomaterials, a  
332 multivariate approach should be used. Indeed, it should improve the water content prediction  
333 compared to a univariate approach since the spectral information linked with an increasing  
334 water content is visible on the whole spectrum.

335

### 336 *3.2 FTIR quantitative analysis of the water content of the studied fibres*

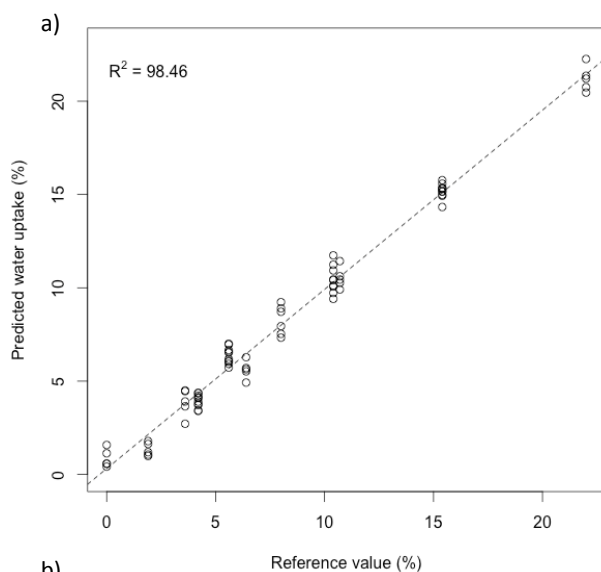
#### 337 *3.2.1 It was possible to predict the water uptake of every tested fibre by developing material 338 dependent PLS-R models*

339 The absolute water content of the tested fibres was determined by using a Partial Least Square  
340 Regression (PLS-R) approach. For each kind of fibre, the MIR spectra were used in the range  
341 from  $4000\text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $400\text{ cm}^{-1}$  with the corresponding water uptake measured gravimetrically, to  
342 calculate multiple PLS-R models and to perform their validation. The models calculated from  
343 the information contained in the spectral regions situated between  $3600\text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $3200\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  
344 around  $1650\text{ cm}^{-1}$  were selected preferentially since they were associated to the main regions  
345 characteristics of the interaction between the water and the polymers constituting each  
346 studied fibres (3.1). Other regions were not excluded since they could be associated to the

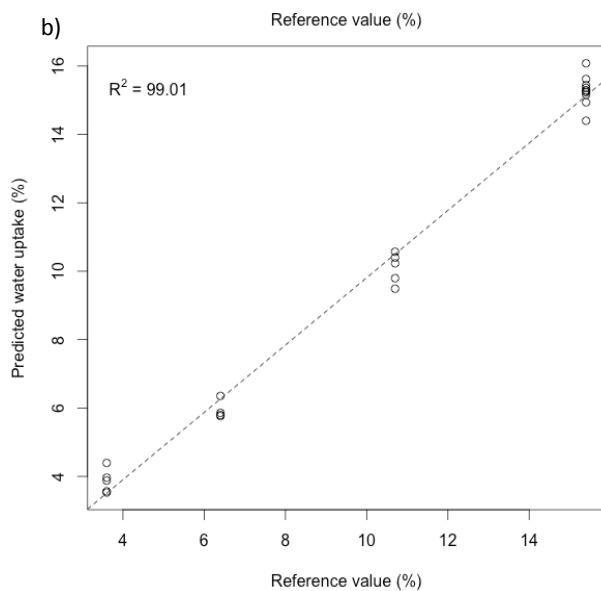
347 material intrinsic variability (e.g. around  $2900\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ). The automatic pre-processing  
348 treatments, the spectral regions and the quality indicators (i.e. the cross-validation and the test  
349 set validation results) used to calculate the PLS-R models are summarized in the table 2. The  
350 spectral regions selected without a priori are in very good agreement with the observations  
351 performed in 3.1, especially for the sisal fibre which presents a wave number range  
352 distribution correlated to the three main components known to interact with the water  
353 molecules. Moreover, the estimation of the errors associated to the predictive models,  
354 highlights their pertinence since the RMSECV and RMSEP are very low ( $\leq$  to 1). The  
355 average number of PLS components is inferior to 7 and the average coefficient of  
356 determination greater than 96 %, confirming the quality of the selected models. The  
357 significance of these parameters has been well described in FitzPatrick and colleagues latest  
358 works (FitzPatrick, Champagne & Cunningham, 2012). The figure 3 illustrates the cross-  
359 validation and the test set validation results obtained for the sisal fibre. The dispersion  
360 diagrams, displaying the relationships between predictive moisture content obtained by PLS-  
361 R quantitative model and gravimetric measurements show a very good correlation ( $R^2 > 98$ ).

362

363



364



(b)

365

366

367 **Figure 3:** Cross-validation (a) and test set validation (b) results of water uptake prediction  
 368 for sisal fibre.

369 The PLS-R predictions of the water content obtained with the FTIR approach were compared  
 370 here to the gravimetric measurements. The water uptake is expressed in % of the dry weight  
 371 of the sisal fibre. The coefficients of determination (%) of the regression lines (indicated in  
 372 dotted lines) are indicated in the upper left corner.

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383 **Table 2:** PLS-R quality parameters for cross and test set validation for the models selected  
 384 for the three studied fibres.

385 *RMSECV* stands for Root Mean Square Error of Cross Validation. *RMSEP* stands for Root  
 386 Mean Square Error of Prediction.  $R^2$  is the coefficient of determination.

387

		Hemp	Flax	Sisal
	<b>Pre-processing</b>	First derivative	Min/max normalization	Normalization by vector
	<b>Spectral region (cm<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	3998-1119 /760-400	3998-3277 / 2559-2198 / 1839-400	3998-3277 / 1839-1479/ 1120-400
<b>Cross validation</b>	<b>RMSECV</b>	1.14	1.07	0,72
	<b>Number of PLS components</b>	4	9	6
	<b>R<sup>2</sup> (%)</b>	95.26	94.92	98.46
<b>External validation</b>	<b>RMSEP</b>	0.620	0.843	0,515
	<b>Number of PLS components</b>	5	7	7
	<b>R<sup>2</sup> (%)</b>	97.90	96.65	99.01

388

389 3.3 The calculated predictive models were applied to quantify the water sorption phenomenon  
 390 on the three tested fibres

391 3.3.1 Monitoring of the sorption isotherm using PLS-R models

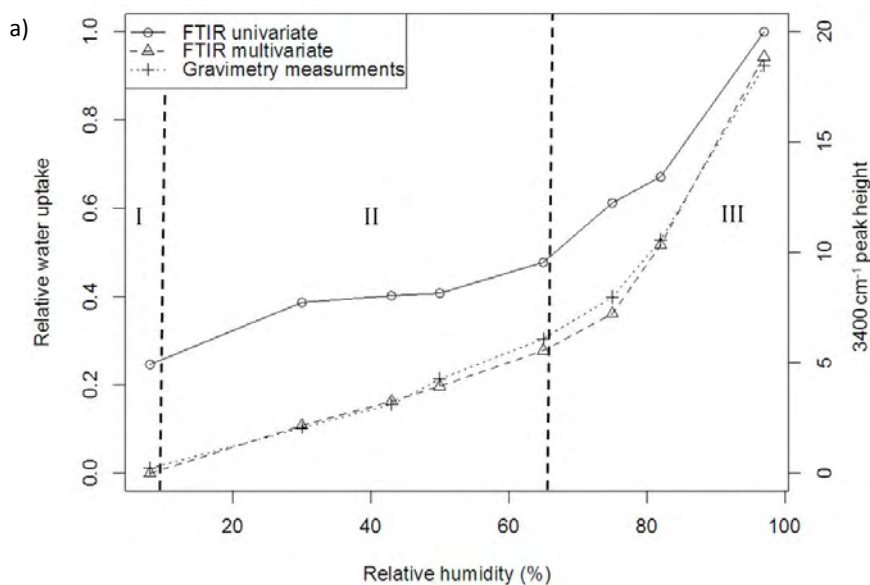
392 The estimation of the water uptake of each studied fibre according to its relative humidity  
 393 exposition was performed using FTIR spectral information and gravimetric measurements as  
 394 reference method. FTIR data were interpreted in two ways, one using information arising  
 395 from one band characteristic of the water sorption (univariate approach) and one exploiting  
 396 the data of the whole FTIR spectra (multivariate approach: PLS-R model). First, the fibre  
 397 relative water content was estimated to be solely representative of the absorbance variation of  
 398 the hydroxyl groups situated in the 3600-3000 cm<sup>-1</sup> range as already depicted by Olsson &  
 399 Salmén (2004) (3.1.2). Second, the PLS-R models developed for each studied fibre were used  
 400 to predict the absolute water uptake taking into account the whole FTIR spectral information.  
 401 The sorption isotherms present a similar shape for the three studied fibres, whether they were  
 402 depicted by gravimetric measurements or deduced by FTIR data. The figure 4 illustrates the  
 403 case of the sisal and indicated that the water content is directly related to the relative  
 404 humidity by following a sigmoidal relation, as already described by (Alix et al., 2009;  
 405 Gouanvé, Marais, Bessadok, Langevin & Métayer, 2007). That kind of sorption isotherms are  
 406 in a good agreement with the Park's model ( Park, 1986). This model assumes the association  
 407 of three mechanisms describing the three parts of the curve (figure 4). It is often used to  
 408 explain the sorption isotherms of hydrophilic and porous media, as cellulosic fibres (Bessadok  
 409 et al., 2009).

410 The first part of the curve could be related to Langmuir's mode (RH < 10 %, this mode is not  
 411 really visible on the figure 4). At these relative humidities, water is sorbed onto specific sites  
 412 by hydrogen bonding. As discussed in the section 3.1.2 (qualitative analysis of the bands  
 413 impacted by water) the specific sites could be hydroxyl functions of amorphous cellulose and  
 414 hemicelluloses or carboxylic function of pectin. When relative humidity increases, there is a

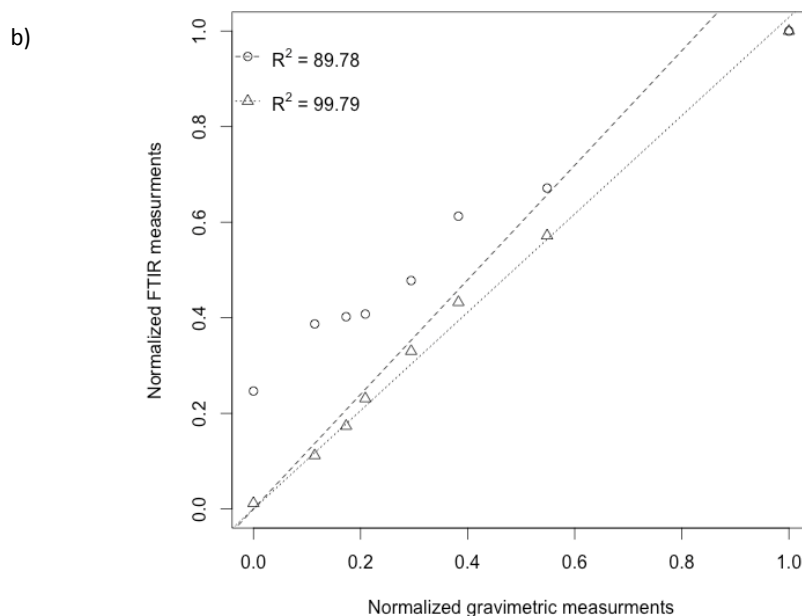
415 saturation of these specific sites of sorption. Then, the water concentration increases linearly  
 416 with relative humidity as Henry's law describes (until RH = 65 %). This behavior could be  
 417 explained by the porous structure of fibres where water is free to diffuse. The third part is well  
 418 described by a power function that represents an aggregation phenomenon of water  
 419 molecules. Indeed, at high relative humidity, water concentration is too important, and water  
 420 molecules linked together to form clusters.

421 It is important to notice that the prediction arising from the FTIR PLS-R model fits very  
 422 well the experimental gravimetric measurements ( $R^2 > 99$ ), highlighting the pertinence of the  
 423 FTIR multivariate approach compared to the FTIR univariate method ( $R^2 < 90$ ).

424



425  
426



427

428 **Figure 4:** Comparison of sorption isotherm for sisal fibre using FTIR and gravimetric  
 429 approaches. (a) Sorption isotherm plotted for the sisal fibre according to the measurement  
 430 method (FTIR univariate, FTIR multivariate, gravimetry). (b) Comparison performed between

431 *normalized FTIR measurements and normalized gravimetric reference method measurements*  
432 *(FTIR univariate-gravimetry: ○, FTIR multivariate-gravimetry :△).  $R^2$  stands for coefficient*  
433 *of determination (%).*

434

### 435 3.3.2 Monitoring of the diffusion kinetic using PLS-R models

436 The desorption kinetics of the water sorbed by the studied fibres were also monitored by  
437 exploiting the multivariate FTIR approach. The fibre samples were first aged at RH = 95 %  
438 until saturation was reached. Second, FTIR spectra were recorded in kinetic mode during their  
439 drying in ambient relative humidity conditions i.e. RH =  $45 \pm 3$  %. FTIR spectral information  
440 was treated using the developed PLS-R models for each kind of studied fibres and compared  
441 to the gravimetric measurements, systematically performed in parallel. For reason of clarity,  
442 the desorption kinetics of sisal fibre is solely represented on figure 5a. FTIR data, predict that  
443 after moisture sorption in a wet environment at RH = 95 %, the relative mass gain reached 19  
444 %. This value was correlated with our gravimetric measurements and previous works realized  
445 on similar materials (Gouanvé et al., 2007; Stamboulis, Baillie & Peijs, 2001). The desorption  
446 kinetic present a sigmoidal shape that could be interpreted as being the consequence of a  
447 delay time in the establishment of a water concentration equilibrium at the surface of the  
448 studied fibre (similar behaviour was monitored for the others studied fibres (data not shown).  
449 At the end of the experiment the initial weight of the fibre was not recovered. A relative mass  
450 loss of about 8 %, compared to the initial weight, was observed. Such mass loss could be  
451 attributed to the existence of water content in fibres at ambient relative humidity (Baley,  
452 Morvan, & Grohens, 2005).

453

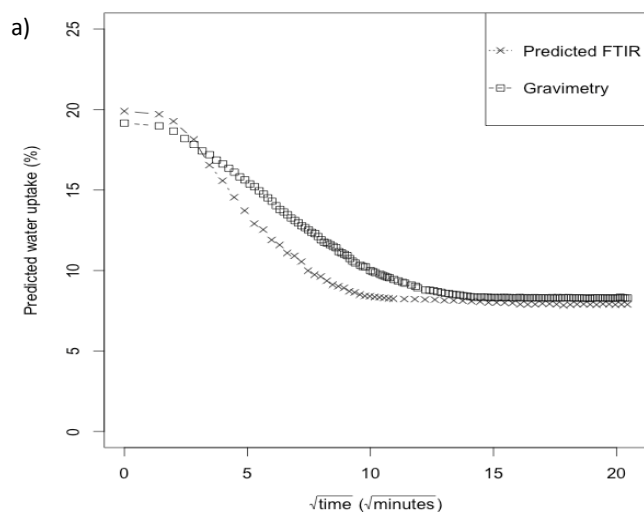
454 Our experimental data could be well fitted by the Carter and Kibler model as described in  
455 Célineo and colleagues previous works (Célineo et al., 2013). In this model, the moisture  
456 absorption is described quantitatively by assuming that the absorbed moisture consisted of  
457 both a mobile (i.e. free water) and a bound phase (i.e. bound water). Molecules of the mobile  
458 phase should diffuse spontaneously with a concentration and stress independent diffusion  
459 coefficient  $D_\gamma$ , and should be absorbed with a probability per unit time  $\gamma$  at certain molecular  
460 sites of the polymer fibre. On the other hand, molecules of the bound phase should be  
461 released, becoming thereby mobile, with a probability per unit time  $\beta$ . This assumption was  
462 supported by the qualitative FTIR spectral data recorded during the diffusion kinetic (figure  
463 5b). Indeed, during the monitoring of the water desorption phenomenon, the main impacted  
464 regions (diminishing absorbance) corresponded to the vibration regions of both the free and  
465 bound water ( $3600-3200\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) and the free water uniquely ( $1635\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ). Those experimental  
466 observations strengthen the assumption of the Carter and Kibler model, suggesting that two  
467 kind of water population coexisted in the fibres during absorption or desorption. Water should  
468 bind to specific sites as hydroxyl or carboxyl functions and free mobile water could diffuse  
469 inside the fibre porous structure.

470

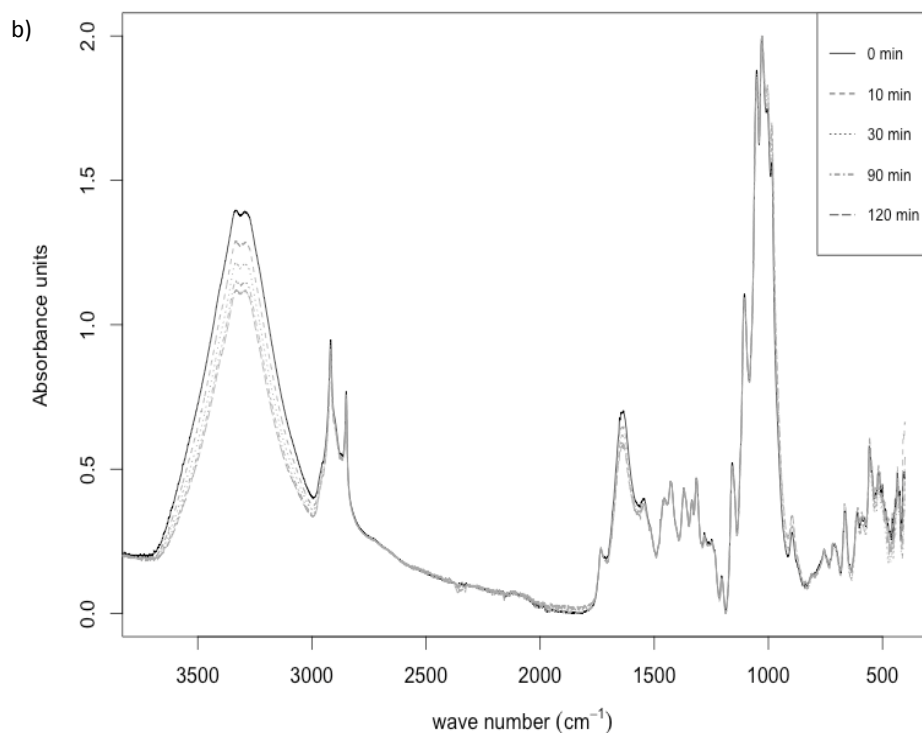
471 The curve obtained by gravimetric measurement or determined by the PLS-R model based on  
472 ATR-FTIR measurement, are in a good agreement. A slight slope difference could be  
473 however observed during the transient step. This could be attributed to the fact that the two  
474 kinetics were not strictly monitored in identical conditions (section 2.3.2). In gravimetric



475 measurement, bundle of fibres were free of physical constraints whereas in ATR-FTIR  
 476 measurements, fibres were pressed above the measurement crystal. The pressure applied by  
 477 the ATR hammer could accelerate the diffusion of the water from the fibre sample, explaining  
 478 therefore the observed deviation.



479



480  
 481 **Figure 5:** Quantitative and qualitative monitoring of the water diffusion kinetic for the sisal  
 482 fibre. (a) Desorption kinetics monitored by FTIR PLS-R prediction and gravimetric  
 483 approaches. (b) FTIR spectra recorded during kinetic monitoring for time =0, 10, 30, 90 and  
 484 120 min.

#### 485 4. Conclusion

486 In the emerging field of composite biomaterials, natural fibres promise an immense potential  
 487 of application. However, their strong hygroscopic behavior requires the understanding of the  
 488 moisture sorption mechanisms. Their water content is also of great importance since it could

489 drive the final properties of the composites where they are fitted in. The aim of this work was  
490 to develop a quick and easy method based on ATR-FTIR spectroscopy to characterize  
491 qualitatively and quantitatively the water sorption phenomenon directly on raw fibres.

492

493 First, our results indicated that it was necessary to develop an approach per fibre since the  
494 three tested biomaterials presented their own FTIR signature and therefore their own chemical  
495 fingerprint. Hydroxyl and carboxyl molecular sites of the fiber polymer were found to be  
496 directly impacted by the water uptake, and confirmed the results observed with less structured  
497 cellulosic material (Berthold et al., 1998, Olsson & Salmén, 2004). Second, the FTIR PLS-R  
498 models developed for each fibre, in order to quantify their water content, showed very good  
499 predictive abilities when compared to the reference method (gravimetric measurements).  
500 They were used to monitor accurately sorption isotherms whereas univariate FTIR models  
501 could not fit it correctly as depicted by Olsson and colleagues (Olsson & Salmén, 2004). The  
502 proposed approach could also supply readily interpretable kinetic data by monitoring  
503 continuously the water desorption. The main advantage is the interpretation of kinetics at the  
504 molecular level by studying the impacted spectral bands. More detailed analysis  
505 (deconvolution of the OH valency band) could lead to the discrimination of the free and the  
506 bound water as described in Cotugno and colleagues previous work on an epoxy system  
507 (Cotugno et al., 2005).

508

509 Moreover, our results indicated that the information collected at the surface of the fibre could  
510 be efficiently correlated to a global method based on volumetric measurements (i.e.  
511 gravimetry). The multivariate approach used to characterize the water sorption dynamically or  
512 statically could explain the quality of the results and should encourage the use of such a direct  
513 and rapid approach for water sorption mechanism study on other cellulosic biomaterials.

514

#### 515 **References:**

516 ASTM Committee E13 on Molecular Spectroscopy and Chromatography. (2005). Standard  
517 practices for infrared multivariate quantitative analysis. E 1655-05, 1-29.

518

519 Adibi, N., Cabrales, L., & Haigler, C.H. (2013). Changes in the cell wall and cellulose content  
520 of developing cotton fibers investigated by FTIR spectroscopy. *Carbohydrate Polymers*. *In*  
521 *press*.

522

523 Alix, S., Philippe, E., Bessadok, A., Lebrun, L., Morvan, C., & Marais, S. (2009). Effect of  
524 chemical treatments on water sorption and mechanical properties of flax fibres. *Bioresource*  
525 *and Technology*, 100, 4742-4749.

526

527 Baley, C., Morvan, C., & Grohens, Y. (2005). Influence of absorbed water on the tensile  
528 strength of flax fibers. *Macromolecules Symposium*, 222, 195-202.

529

530 Berthold, J., Olsson, R.J.O., & Salmén, L. (1998). Water sorption to hydroxyl and carboxylic  
531 acid groups in Carboxymethylcellulose (CMC) studied with NIR-spectroscopy. *Cellulose*, 5,  
532 280-298.

533

- 534 Bessadok, A., Langevin, D., Gouanvé, F., Chappey, C., Roudesli, S., & Marais, S. (2009).  
535 Study of water sorption on modified Agave fibres. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 76, 74–85.  
536
- 537 Bledzki, A.K., & Gassan, J. (1999). Composites reinforced with cellulose based fibres,  
538 *Progress in Polymer Science*, 24, 221–274.  
539
- 540 Céline, A., Fréour, S., Jacquemin, F., & Casari, P. (2013). Characterization and modeling of  
541 the moisture diffusion behaviour of natural fibres. *Journal of Applied Polymer Science*, In  
542 press. DOI: 10.1002/app.39148.  
543
- 544 Chalmers, J.M., & Dent, G. (1997). *Industrial Analysis with Vibrational Spectroscopy*, RCS.  
545
- 546 Cotugno, S., Larobina, D., Mensitieri, G., Musto, P., & Ragosta, G. (2001). A novel  
547 spectroscopic approach to investigate transport processes in polymers: the case of water  
548 epoxy system. *Polymer*, 42, 6431-6438.  
549
- 550 Cotugno, S., Mensitieri, G., Musto, P., & Sanguigno, L. (2005). Molecular interactions in and  
551 transport properties of densely cross linked networks: a time resolved FTIR spectroscopy  
552 investigation of the epoxy/H<sub>2</sub>O systems. *Macromolecules*, 38, 801-811.  
553
- 554 De Rosa, I.M., Kenny, J.M., Puglia, D., Santulli, C., & Sarasini, F. (2010). Morphological,  
555 thermal and mechanical characterization of okra (*Abelmoschus esculentus*) fibres as potential  
556 reinforcement in polymer composites. *Composite Science and Technology*, 70, 116-122.  
557
- 558 Di Giambattista, L., Pozzi, D., Grimaldi, P., Gaudenzi, S., Morrone, S., & Castellano, A. C.  
559 (2011). New marker of tumor cell death revealed by ATR-FTIR spectroscopy. *Analytical and*  
560 *Bioanalytical Chemistry*, 399, 2771-2778.  
561
- 562 Dhakal, H.N., Zhang, Z.Y., & Richardson, M.O.W. (2007). Effect of water absorption on the  
563 mechanical properties of hemp fibre reinforced unsaturated polyester composites, *Composite*  
564 *Science and Technology*, 67, 1674–1683.  
565
- 566 Feng, J., Berger, K.R., & Douglas, E.P. (2004). Water vapor transport in liquid crystalline  
567 and non-liquid crystalline epoxies. *Journal of Materials Science*, 39, 3413-3423.  
568
- 569 Fengel, D. (1992). Characterization of Cellulose by Deconvoluting the OH Valency Range in  
570 FTIR Spectra. *Holsforshung*, 46, 283-288.  
571
- 572 Fieldson, G.T., & Barbari, T.A. (1993). The use of FTIR-ATR spectroscopy to characterize  
573 penetrant diffusion in polymers. *Polymer*, 34, 1146-1153.  
574
- 575 FitzPatrick, M., Champagne, P., & Cunningham, M. (2012). Quantitative determination of  
576 cellulose dissolved in 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium acetate using partial least squares  
577 regression on FTIR spectra. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 87, 1124-1130.  
578
- 579 Gouanvé, F., Marais, S., Bessadok, A., Langevin, D. & Métayer, M. (2007). Kinetics of  
580 water sorption in flax and PET fibers. *European Polymer Journal*, 43, 586–598.  
581
- 582 Griffiths, P.R., & Haseth, J.A. (2007). *Fourier Transformed Infrared Spectrometry* (pp.321-  
583 329), Second edition. John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

- 584  
585 Hinterstoisser, B., & Salmén, L. (1999). Two-dimensional step-scan FTIR: a tool to unravel  
586 the OH-valency-range of the spectrum of Cellulose I. *Cellulose* 6, 251-263.  
587
- 588 Kondo, T. (1997). The assignment of IR absorption bands due to free hydroxyl groups in  
589 cellulose. *Cellulose*, 4, 281-292.  
590
- 591 Laity, P.R., & Hay, J.N. (2000). Measurement of water diffusion through cellophane using  
592 attenuated total reflectance-fourier transform infrared spectroscopy. *Cellulose*, 7, 387-397.  
593
- 594 Liang, C.Y., & Marchessault, R.H. (1959). Infrared spectra of crystalline polysaccharide. I.  
595 Hydrogen bonds in native cellulose. *Journal of Applied Polymer Science*, 39, 269-278.  
596
- 597 Lê, S., Josse J., & Husson, F. (2008). FactoMineR: A R Package for Multivariate Analysis.  
598 *Journal of Statistical Software*, 25, 1-18.  
599
- 600 Marchessault, R.H. (1962). Application of infra-red spectroscopy to cellulose and wood  
601 polysaccharides. *Pure Applied Chemistry*, 5, 107-130.  
602
- 603 Mecozzi, M., Pietroletti, M., & Tornambe, A. (2011). Molecular and structural characteristics  
604 in toxic algae cultures of *Ostreopsis ovata* and *Ostreopsis* spp. evidenced by FTIR and FTNIR  
605 spectroscopy. *Spectrochimica Acta Part A: Molecular and Biomolecular Spectroscopy*, 78,  
606 1572-1580.  
607
- 608 Mijovic, J., & Zhang, H. (2003). Local dynamics and molecular origin of polymer network-  
609 water interactions as studied by broadband dielectric relaxation spectroscopy, FTIR and  
610 molecular simulations. *Macromolecules*, 36, 1279-1288.  
611
- 612 Musto, P., Ragosta, G., & Mascia, L. (2000). Vibrational spectroscopy evidence for the dual  
613 nature of water sorbed into epoxy resins. *Chemistry of Material*, 12, 1331-1341.  
614
- 615 Murphy, D., & Pinho, M.N. (1995). An ATR-FTIR study of water in cellulose acetate  
616 membranes prepared by phase inversion. *Journal of Membrane Science*, 106, 245-257.  
617
- 618 Nelsson, M.L., & O'Connor, R.T. (1964). Relation of Certain Infrared Bands to Cellulose  
619 Crystallinity and Crystal Lattice Type. Part I. Spectra of Lattice Types I, II, I11 and of  
620 Amorphous Cellulose. *Journal of Applied Polymer Science*, 8, 1311-1324.  
621
- 622 Olsson, A.M., & Salmén, L. (2004). The association of water to cellulose and hemicelluloses  
623 in paper examined by FTIR spectroscopy. *Carbohydrate Research*, 339, 813-818.  
624
- 625 Park, G. S. (1986). Transport principles: Solution, diffusion and permeation in polymer  
626 membranes. In P. M. Bungay et al. (Eds.). *Synthetic membranes: Science, engineering and*  
627 *applications* (57). Holland: Reidel Pub.  
628
- 629 Parker, F.S. & Roy, A. (1966). Infrared spectra of carbohydrates ( $700 - 250 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) determined  
630 by both Attenuated Total Reflectance and Transmission techniques. *Applied Spectroscopy*,  
631 20, 384-388.  
632

- 633 Placet, V., Cisse, O., & Boubakar, L. (2012). Influence of environmental relative humidity on  
 634 the tensile and rotational behaviour of hemp fibres. *Journal of Materials Science*, *47*, 3435–  
 635 3446  
 636
- 637 Popineau, S., Rondeau-Mouro, C., Sulpice-Gaillet, C., & Martin E.R.S. (2005). Free/bound  
 638 water absorption in an epoxy adhesive. *Polymer*, *46*, 10733-10740.  
 639
- 640 Satyanarayana, K.G., Arizaga, G.G.C., & Wypych, F. (2009). Biodegradable composites  
 641 based on lignocellulosic fibers - An overview. *Progress in Polymer Science*, *34*, 982–1021.  
 642
- 643 Stamboulis, A., Baillie, C.A., & Peijs, T. (2001). Effect of environmental conditions on  
 644 mechanical and physical properties of flax fibres. *Composites Part A*, *32*, 1105-1115.  
 645
- 646 Suddell, B.C., & Evans, W.J. (2005). Natural Fiber Composites in Automotive Applications.  
 647 In Mohanty, A.K., Misra, M. & Drzal, L.T. (Eds.), *Natural Fibers in Biopolymers & Their*  
 648 *BioComposites* (pp. 231-259). CRC Press.  
 649
- 650 Summerscales, J., Dissanayake, N.P.J., Virk, A.S., & Hall, W. (2010). A review of bast fibres  
 651 and their composites. Part I-Fibres as reinforcements. *Composites : Part A*, *41*, 1329-1335.  
 652
- 653 Symington, M.C., Banks, W.M., David, W.O., & Pethrick, R.A. (2009). Tensile Testing of  
 654 Cellulose Based Natural Fibers for Structural Composite Applications. *Journal of Composite*  
 655 *Materials*, *43*, 1083-1108.  
 656
- 657 Van den Berg, R. A., Hoefsloot, H. C., Westerhuis, J. A., Smilde, A. K., & Van Der Werf, M.  
 658 J. (2006). Centering, scaling, and transformations: improving the biological information  
 659 content of metabolomics data. *BMC Genomics*, *7*, 142-153.  
 660
- 661 Wambua, P., Ivens, J., & Verpoest, I. (2003). Natural fibres: can they replace glass in fibre  
 662 reinforced plastics? *Composite Science Technology*, *63*, 1259–1264.  
 663
- 664 Westerhuis, J. A., Hoefsloot, H. C. J., Smit, S., Vis, D. J., Smilde, A. K., Velzen, E. J. J., John  
 665 P. M., van Duijnhoven, Ferdi A. van Dorsten. (2008). Assessment of PLS-DA cross validation.  
 666 *Metabolomics*, *4*, 81-89.  
 667
- 668 Wold, S., Sjöström, M., & Eriksson, L. (2001). PLS-regression: a basic tool of chemometrics.  
 669 *Chemometrics and Intelligent Laboratory Systems*, *58*, 109-130.
- 670 Xia, J., Mandal, R., Sinelnikov, I.V., Broadhurst, D., & Wishart, D.S. (2012). MetaboAnalyst  
 671 2.0-a comprehensive server for metabolomic data analysis. *Nucleic Acids Research*, *40*, 127-  
 672 133.
- 673 Xie, Y., Hill, C.A.S., Jalaludin, Z., Curling, S.F., Anandjiwala, R.D., Norton, A.J. &  
 674 Newman, G. (2011). The dynamic water vapour sorption behaviour of natural fibres and  
 675 kinetic analysis using the parallel exponential kinetics model. *Journal of Material Science*,  
 676 *46*, 479-489.  
 677

## 678 List of figures

679 **Figure 1:** PLS-DA score plot of second derivative FTIR signatures of the three model fibres  
 680 for three RH conditions.

681 The legend in the upright corner details the nature of the model fibre and the values of the  
682 tested RH % (as suffixes). The classification model used here presented the following  
683 characteristics i.e.  $R^2(Y) = 0,989$  and  $Q^2 = 0,869$  and was validated using 20 permutations  
684 ( $R^2(Y)_{int} = 0,555$  and  $Q^2_{int} = -0,343$ ).

685

686 **Figure 2:** Infrared spectra bands impacted by increasing relative humidity for sisal fibre.

687 For clarity, only sisal fibre has been presented and only three relative humidities are shown  
688 for three replicates (10 %; 50 % and 85 %). p-values scores, indicating significant impact of  
689 the water uptake on the FTIR bands, were marked using red dots.

690

691 **Figure 3:** Cross-validation (a) and test set validation (b) results of water uptake prediction for  
692 sisal fibre.

693 The PLS-R predictions of the water content obtained with the FTIR approach were compared  
694 here to the gravimetric measurements. The water uptake is expressed in % of the dry weight  
695 of the sisal fibre. The coefficients of determination (%) of the regression lines (indicated in  
696 dotted lines) are indicated in the upper left corner.

697

698 **Figure 4:** Comparison of sorption isotherm for sisal fibre using FTIR and gravimetric  
699 approaches. (a) Sorption isotherm plotted for the sisal fibre according to the measurement  
700 method (FTIR univariate, FTIR multivariate, gravimetry). (b) Comparison performed between  
701 normalized FTIR measurements and normalized gravimetric reference method measurements  
702 (FTIR univariate-gravimetry:  $\circ$ , FTIR multivariate-gravimetry:  $\triangle$ ).  $R^2$  stands for coefficient  
703 of determination (%).

704

705 **Figure 5:** Quantitative and qualitative monitoring of the water diffusion kinetic for the sisal  
706 fibre. (a) Desorption kinetics monitored by FTIR PLS-R prediction and gravimetric  
707 approaches. (b) FTIR spectra recorded during kinetic monitoring for time =0, 10, 30, 90 and  
708 120 min.

709

## 710 List of tables

711 **Table 1:** Assignment of the main absorption bands in FTIR spectra of sisal, flax and hemp  
712 fibres. Sisal FTIR data were interpreted according to investigations issued from (Adibi,  
713 Cabrales, & Haigler, 2013; De Rosa, Kenny, Puglia, Santulli, & Sarasini, 2010; Liang &  
714 Marchessault, 1959; Nelsson & O'Connor, 1964).

715

716 **Table 2:** PLS-R quality parameters for cross and test set validation for the models selected for  
717 the three studied fibres.

718 RMSECV stands for Root Mean Square Error of Cross Validation. RMSEP stands for Root  
719 Mean Square Error of Prediction.  $R^2$  is the coefficient of determination.

720

720

HIGHLIGHTS
------------

721

722 - Effect of moisture sorption on plant fibres was investigated by FTIR spectroscopy.

723 - Hydroxyl and carboxyl moieties are specific sites for water sorption.

724 - Partial least squares regression quantified the water content of natural fibres.

725 - Models fitted the sorption isotherms and diffusion kinetics.

726

727

728