



Johns, M., Lewandowska, A., & Eichhorn, S. J. (2019). Rapid Determination of the Distribution of Cellulose Nanomaterial Aggregates in Composites Enabled by Multi-Channel Spectral Confocal Microscopy. *Microscopy and Microanalysis*, 25(3), 682-689. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1431927619000527>

Peer reviewed version

Link to published version (if available):

[10.1017/S1431927619000527](https://doi.org/10.1017/S1431927619000527)

[Link to publication record in Explore Bristol Research](#)

PDF-document

This is the author accepted manuscript (AAM). The final published version (version of record) is available online via Cambridge University Press at <https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/microscopy-and-microanalysis/article/rapid-determination-of-the-distribution-of-cellulose-nanomaterial-aggregates-in-composites-enabled-by-multichannel-spectral-confocal-microscopy/D6C90F57812E53FA2F4EB9B6C33AEB92>. Please refer to any applicable terms of use of the publisher.

University of Bristol - Explore Bristol Research

General rights

This document is made available in accordance with publisher policies. Please cite only the published version using the reference above. Full terms of use are available: <http://www.bristol.ac.uk/pure/about/ebr-terms>

1 **Rapid determination of the distribution of cellulose nanomaterial aggregates**
2 **in composites enabled by multi-channel spectral confocal microscopy**

3
4 Marcus A. Johns, Anna E. Lewandowska, Stephen J. Eichhorn*

5 *Bristol Composites Institute (ACCIS), Department of Aerospace Engineering,*
6 *University of Bristol, Queens Building, University Walk, Bristol, BS8 1TR, UK*

7 Phone: +44 (0) 117 33 15650

8 E-mail: s.j.eichhorn@bristol.ac.uk

9

10 There is increased interest in the use of cellulose nanomaterials for the mechanical
11 reinforcement of composites due to their high stiffness and strength. However,
12 challenges remain in accurately determining their distribution within composite
13 microstructures. We report the use of a range of techniques used to image
14 aggregates of cellulose nanocrystals (CNCs) greater than $10 \mu\text{m}^2$ within a model
15 thermoplastic polymer. Whilst Raman imaging accurately determines CNC
16 aggregate size, it requires extended periods of analysis and the limited observable
17 area results in poor reproducibility. In contrast, staining the CNCs with a
18 fluorophore enables rapid acquisition with high reproducibility, but overestimates
19 the aggregate size as CNC content increases. Multi-channel spectral confocal laser
20 scanning microscopy is presented as an alternative technique that combines the
21 accuracy of Raman with the speed and reproducibility of conventional confocal
22 laser scanning microscopy, enabling the rapid determination of CNC aggregate
23 distribution within composites.

24 *Keywords: cellulose, nanomaterials, composites, confocal microscopy, spectral*
25 *imaging, confocal Raman spectroscopy*

26 **Introduction**

27 The rise of the circular economy, and increased environmental awareness, has seen
28 biomaterials come to the fore of innovation as evidenced by the Circular Design
29 Challenge winners announced at the World Economic Forum Annual Meeting in
30 Davos in early 2018. These factors have led to significant interest in the use of
31 cellulosic nanomaterials (CNMs) across a wide range of application areas
32 including, but not exclusive to, composites (Nakagaito & Yano 2004, Malainine *et*
33 *al.* 2005), biosensors (Bi *et al.* 2016), drug delivery (Jackson *et al.* 2011), food
34 additives (Hu *et al.* 2016), packaging (Yu *et al.* 2014), energy storage (Liew *et al.*
35 2013), tissue engineering (He *et al.* 2014), and wastewater treatment (Batmaz *et al.*
36 2014). Their nanoscale dimensions, high mechanical properties, ease of
37 functionalization, and sustainability in particular have resulted in publications
38 exploring their use as reinforcement in various polymer nanocomposite materials
39 (Siró & Plackett 2010, Oksman *et al.* 2016, Kargarzadeh *et al.* 2017).

40 It is generally accepted that the uniform distribution of CNMs as a percolated
41 network throughout the polymer matrix results in composites with better
42 mechanical properties than those with isolated CNM aggregates. (Siqueira *et al.*
43 2010, Oksman *et al.* 2016, Ray & Sain 2016, Kargarzadeh *et al.* 2017, Chakrabarty
44 & Teramoto 2018) However, it is a particular challenge to track the bulk distribution
45 of CNMs in a nanocomposite material. Whilst electron microscopy can distinguish
46 individual CNMs (Ranby 1951), CNMs and polymeric materials have similar
47 densities, making contrast difficult without staining. Cellulose is also susceptible to
48 charge build-up and degradation under high energy beams (Foster *et al.* 2018,
49 Ogawa & Putaux 2018). Scanning probe microscopy has previously been used to
50 investigate the distribution of CNMs in composites (Saxena *et al.* 2009, Shariki *et*

51 *al.* 2011, Mandal & Chakrabarty 2015). Yet it is challenging to accurately
52 distinguish the CNMs from the polymer matrix via height mapping only – although
53 Nigmatullin *et al.* had success in distinguishing cellulose nanocrystals, CNCs, from
54 starch using adhesion mapping (Nigmatullin *et al.* 2018) – and the observable
55 volume is limited to around $150 \times 150 \times 15 \mu\text{m}^3$. Chemical mapping using confocal
56 Raman spectroscopy is a well-established technique (Stewart *et al.* 2012) that has
57 been successfully applied by Agarwal *et al.* to distinguish between CNCs and
58 polypropylene, mapping the density of CNCs in areas up to $100 \times 100 \mu\text{m}^2$
59 (Agarwal *et al.* 2012), whilst Lewandowska *et al.* have mapped areas containing
60 CNCs and polyethylene up to $200 \times 200 \mu\text{m}^2$ (Lewandowska & Eichhorn 2016,
61 Lewandowska *et al.* 2018). However, the observable area is still limited, and the
62 process time consuming, often requiring more than half a day to acquire and analyse
63 each image.

64 One alternative to these imaging approaches is the modification of CNMs with
65 various fluorophores, including fluorescein, rhodamine and calcofluor white
66 (Haghpanah *et al.* 2013, Lou *et al.* 2014, Endes *et al.* 2015, Camarero-Espinosa *et*
67 *al.* 2016, Tomić *et al.* 2016, Leng *et al.* 2017), which enables rapid imaging of their
68 bulk distribution in composites via confocal microscopy. However, the
69 physicochemical properties of the CNMs will inevitably be altered upon binding of
70 the fluorophore (Abitbol *et al.* 2013). Therefore, if the CNMs are modified with the
71 fluorophore before composite production, observations may not be representative
72 of the unmodified material.

73 It is generally accepted that fluorescent detection of CNMs requires the presence of
74 fluorophores due to the lack of fluorescent aromatic groups within their chemical
75 structure. Nevertheless, several publications have reported the autofluorescence of

76 cellulose under UV excitation (Olmstead & Gray 1993, Pöhlker *et al.* 2012, Gong
77 *et al.* 2013, Kalita *et al.* 2015, Malinowska *et al.* 2015, Johns *et al.* 2018). This
78 autofluorescence has previously been attributed to the presence of lignin in the
79 samples (Kalita *et al.* 2015). This effect is thought to be understood (Albinsson *et*
80 *al.* 1999, Radotić *et al.* 2006), but explanations for these materials do not hold true
81 for autofluorescent celluloses that are not of plant origin (Olmstead & Gray 1993,
82 Johns *et al.* 2018). Gong *et al.* suggest that the clustering of electron-rich groups
83 with lone pair electrons, *i.e.* oxygen atoms, resulting in electron cloud overlap are
84 responsible for the luminescent properties of carbohydrate molecules (Gong *et al.*
85 2013). The inter- and intra-molecular hydrogen bonding network between the
86 chains rigidify the molecular conformations, blocking vibrational dissipation and
87 ensuring emission (Gong *et al.* 2013). This forms the basis of a theory known as
88 clustering-triggered emission (CTE) with computational modelling confirming that
89 interconnected short oxygen-oxygen contacts may exist between D-glucose units
90 (Yuan & Zhang 2017).

91 The present paper investigates the use of multi-channel spectral confocal laser
92 scanning microscopy, which simultaneously detects fluorescent emission across the
93 visible spectrum as 32 distinct channels rather than the single channel detected by
94 conventional confocal laser scanning microscopy, to track the distribution of CNMs
95 in a model HDPE composite material. The distribution of the CNM aggregates
96 observed using this technique is compared to those observed using confocal laser
97 scanning microscopy with conventional staining of the cellulose and confocal
98 Raman spectroscopy. It is reported that staining results in an overestimation of the
99 aggregate sizes, whilst limited analysis may be performed using data generated by
100 Raman spectroscopy due to the restricted observable area. Conversely, scanning

101 confocal microscopy enables the rapid analysis of the aggregate distribution whilst
102 maintaining the accuracy of Raman spectroscopy.

103 **Materials and Methods**

104 **Materials**

105 Freeze-dried cellulose nanocrystals (CNCs) were purchased from the University of
106 Maine, Process Development Centre; high density polyethylene (Arboblend HDPE;
107 molecular weight = 1.33×10^5 g mol⁻¹ and melt volume flow rate = 2 cm³ min⁻¹)
108 was supplied by Tecnar GmbH, while maleated polyethylene (A-C 575A, MAPE
109 copolymer) was provided by Honeywell. Calcofluor white stain was purchased
110 from Sigma Aldrich.

111 **Composite Sample Production**

112 The CNC/MAPE/HDPE composite samples were compounded with CNC loadings
113 of 0.625, 1.250, 2.500 and 5.000 wt.%. A procedure of compounding and extrusion
114 was consistent with a process previously described by Lewandowska and Eichhorn
115 (Lewandowska & Eichhorn 2016). Freeze-dried CNCs were used as purchased. All
116 compounds; filler, compatibilizer and matrix; were mixed in a mortar for 8 min and
117 subsequently were dried in a vacuum oven at a temperature of 60 °C for 24 h. The
118 compounding process was carried out in a counter rotating twin-screw extruder
119 (HAAKE Rheomex CTW5, Thermo Fisher Scientific) at a temperature of 160 °C
120 for 7 min at a speed of 70 rpm. The extruded filaments ($\varnothing \sim 2$ mm) were cryo-
121 microtomed into slices of 20 μ m thickness for further characterisation
122 (Lewandowska & Eichhorn 2016).

123

124 **Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)**

125 The morphology of the composites cross-sections was examined with a Nova 600
126 Dual Beam Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM) (FEI, Hillsboro, OR) with EDT
127 detector. The SEM was operated at an acceleration voltage of 10 kV and a working
128 distance of 5 mm. The composite sample was fixed on metal stubs using carbon
129 tape and sputter-coated with a thin layer of palladium. The magnification used for
130 the collection of SEM images was 100×.

131 **Confocal Raman Spectroscopy (CRS)**

132 Raman images were performed using a confocal Raman microscope (Alpha300,
133 WITec GmbH). The spectrometer was equipped with a UHTS 300 VIS-NIR
134 spectrograph optimized for NIR excitation and a thermoelectrically cooled CCD
135 detector (down to -61 °C). Raman images were acquired using 785 nm wavelength
136 laser (NIR) and 41 mW laser power at the sample for excitation of the Raman
137 scattering. The sample was focused with a 50× objective lens (numerical aperture:
138 0.7, vertical resolution: 1.6 μm) with a lateral resolution of 684 nm. Each Raman
139 image was recorded from an area of 200 × 200 μm² (40,000 μm²) with a step size
140 of 2 μm in both the *x*- and *y*- directions, using an exposure time of 4 s. Three images
141 per composite sample were used in the analysis.

142 WITec Project Plus and Image J software were used to analyse Raman images.
143 First, Raman images were converted into chemical images using cluster component
144 analysis with WITec Project Plus. The estimation of the area of the CNC aggregates
145 was conducted using Image J software. The extraction of the objects' dimensions
146 was performed using an automated threshold with the algorithm 'IsoData'.

147

148 **Conventional Confocal Laser Scanning Microscopy (CCM)**

149 Samples were immersed in 0.3 mL calcofluor white stain for one minute before
150 removal and washing with DI water to remove excess dye. Samples were placed
151 between a glass slide and coverslip to flatten the surface. Z-stack images were
152 generated using a Zeiss LSM 880 confocal microscope (405 nm diode laser, 0.2 %
153 power, Plan-Apochromat 10x/0.45 M27 objective, MBS-405 filter, single channel
154 $\lambda = 410\text{-}523$ nm). The maximum distance between slices was 2 μm . Three replicates
155 were imaged per composite sample.

156 **Multi-Channel Spectral Confocal Laser Scanning Microscopy (SCM)**

157 Samples were placed between a glass slide and coverslip to flatten the surface.
158 Spectral z-stack images were generated using a Zeiss LSM 880 confocal
159 microscope (405 nm diode laser, 5.0 % power, Plan-Apochromat 10x/0.45 M27
160 objective, MBS-405 filter, 32 channels: $\lambda = 411\text{-}695$ nm). The maximum distance
161 between slices was 2 μm . Three replicates were imaged per composite sample.

162 **Image Processing**

163 Image stacks generated using conventional confocal microscopy and spectral
164 confocal microscopy were processed in Fiji. Briefly, the z-projection function
165 (projection type: standard deviation) was used to flatten image stacks into single
166 images. After thresholding (automatic values used for stained images; manual
167 adjustment of lower threshold value between 85-100 for spectral images), images
168 were analysed to determine the observed aggregate areas. Aggregates at the edge
169 of the images were excluded.

170

171

172 **Aggregate Distribution Analysis**

173 Aggregate distribution was subdivided into four categories: small, medium, large
174 and outliers. Rather than set these categories between fixed area values, which
175 could result in values being classified as outliers in box and whisker plots despite
176 being between two size categories, the maximum and minimum values were
177 determined using the box plots themselves. Briefly, a box plot was constructed
178 using the entire data set, and the values at which data would be classified as an
179 upper, or lower, outlier determined. The box plot was then regenerated using the
180 outlier values as the maximum and minimum for the data range and new outlier
181 values calculated. This process was repeated until the range of values fell between
182 the upper and lower outlier values. This determined the aggregates that fell into the
183 small category for each sample. To determine the medium category range, the
184 process was repeated excluding all values in the small category. The process was
185 finally repeated excluding values in the small and medium categories to define the
186 large category range. All values that fell out of these ranges, representing less than
187 2 % of aggregates observed in all samples, were classified as outliers. Due to the
188 skew present in the data sets, the calculated lower outlier values were always less
189 than the initial lower data values for all samples.

190 **Statistical Analysis**

191 Statistical analysis was performed using IBM SPSS Statistics software. For inter-
192 technique, pairwise comparison of the median CNC aggregate area, an independent
193 samples t-test was performed to determine the statistical difference between the
194 median values. For intra-technique comparison of the median CNC aggregate area,
195 intra-category CNC aggregate population analysis, and intra-category median
196 aggregate area, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was used to

197 determine the statistical differences between two or more samples, assuming equal
198 variance, with Bonferroni posthoc correction. The Kruskal–Wallis one-way
199 ANOVA test was used to determine significant differences between the distribution
200 of values in each aggregate size category. In all cases, a confidence interval of 0.95
201 was used.

202 **Results and Discussion**

203 **Comparison of Multi-Channel Spectral Confocal Laser Scanning Microscopy** 204 **to Conventional Techniques**

205 Images of CNC aggregates embedded in a MAPE matrix at varying CNC contents
206 (0.625, 1.250, 2.500, and 5.000 wt.%) were obtained using conventional confocal
207 laser scanning microscopy, CCM, with cellulose stained using calcofluor white, and
208 with multi-channel spectral confocal laser scanning microscopy, SCM (Figures 1C
209 and D respectively). These were then compared to aggregates observed using SEM
210 and confocal Raman spectroscopy, CRS, mapping, previously reported by
211 Lewandowska *et al.* (Figures 1A and B).

212 Whilst there is apparent surface disruption in the SEM images, it is not possible to
213 confirm conclusively whether this is cellulose, and it is challenging to determine
214 the area of the aggregates. As such, this technique is not deemed suitable for further
215 analysis. CRS distinguishes between cellulose and the matrix by mapping the
216 intensity of wavenumbers attributable to cellulose and polyethylene at 1096 and
217 1295 cm^{-1} respectively. Comparison of the two enables chemical mapping of the
218 CNC aggregates (Supplementary Information Figure S1C). Whilst this method
219 accurately differentiates between the two materials, the observable area is limited
220 compared to the other techniques presented, which restricts the number of

221 observable aggregates (Table 1). CCM of the composite, where cellulose has been
222 stained with calcofluor white, enables an area 18 times greater than that viewable
223 with CRS to be observed. This enables the observation of more aggregates, whilst
224 theoretically maintaining the minimum observable aggregate size (Table 1). SCM
225 uses the same magnification as CCM, and, like the former technique, the relative
226 increase in the number of CNC aggregates observed compared to those observed
227 by CRS is equal to the relative increase in area (see Table 1). Despite there being
228 no stain, the CNC aggregates are readily distinguishable from the polymer matrix
229 due to differences in intensity and peak maxima (Figure 2) and can be matched to
230 aggregates identified using CCM (Supplementary Information, Figure S2). The
231 aggregates of CNCs exhibit fluorescence roughly an order of magnitude more
232 intense than the matrix, and have a peak maximum located in the range $\lambda = 464\text{-}473$
233 nm, whilst the matrix peak is located between $\lambda = 419\text{-}428$ nm. SCM also confirms
234 that CNCs are dispersed throughout the matrix, not just confined to the observed
235 aggregates, as evidenced by comparison of the matrix spectrum (Figure 2) to that
236 of the pure polymer (Supplementary Information, Figure S3). The matrix spectrum
237 clearly consists of both the polymer and CNC spectra, and can be discerned at a
238 glance. The presence of this dispersed material is more difficult to establish using
239 the other techniques – Raman requires deconvolution of the two spectra from one
240 another and a weak CNC signal may not be detected (Agarwal *et al.* 2012,
241 Lewandowska & Eichhorn 2016, Lewandowska *et al.* 2018). However, background
242 noise from the polymer – which risks the generation of false-positive results –
243 makes it difficult to confidently identify aggregates that are less than $11\ \mu\text{m}^2$ in
244 area, equivalent to 10 pixels, with the objective used. This limits the lower viewable
245 aggregate size compared to the other two techniques reported.

246 At each CNC wt.%, no significant difference between the mean CNC aggregate
247 areas, determined between 10 and 2,000 μm^2 due to the varying technique
248 resolution, is observed between the three techniques (Figure 3A). The exception
249 being the difference between the values calculated using SCM and CCM at a CNC
250 content of 5 wt.%. However, CRS and SCM are more closely aligned to one another
251 than CCM; the average significance between the calculated aggregate sizes for CRS
252 and SCM is 0.80 ± 0.07 , compared to 0.27 ± 0.09 and 0.42 ± 0.19 between CRS
253 and CCM, and SCM and CCM respectively. As CNC content increases, a larger
254 number of aggregates may be analysed per sample (Table 1), which results in the
255 calculation of experimental mean values that are closer to the theoretically true
256 mean value. Therefore, it would be expected that significance between techniques
257 would increase as the CNC content increases as both techniques should be tending
258 towards the same mean value. Whilst this is observed between CRS and SCM,
259 indicating that the calculated values are more closely aligned as expected, the
260 significances between CRS and CCM, and SCM and CCM, both exhibit a negative
261 trend (Figure 3B). These results, taken with the calculated aggregate areas (Table
262 1.), indicate that CCM is overestimating the true mean aggregate value compared
263 to CRS and SCM, and that this overestimation increases as the CNC content
264 increases.

265 The use of CRS results in the greatest intra-sample error, due to the limited number
266 of aggregates observed, whilst staining of the cellulose results in the least intra-
267 sample variation. As a result of this, no significant difference is observed between
268 the mean CNC aggregate areas at varying CNC content for CRS, whilst the CCM
269 mean areas for 2.5 and 5 wt.% are both significantly different from each other, and
270 those for 0.625 and 1.25 wt.% (Figure 3A). SCM is somewhere between the two,
271 with the mean area for 5 wt.% being significantly different from that for 0.625 wt.%,

272 but neither being significantly different to the areas reported for 1.25 and 2.5 wt.%.
273 This indicates that the use of lower magnification for both confocal microscopy
274 techniques (CCM and SCM), resulting in a larger observable area and increase in
275 the number of aggregates analysed, improves reproducibility. This enables
276 significant differences to be observed between samples that are not observed for
277 CRS. However, the overestimation of the aggregate size using CCM may lead to
278 false significant differences being determined.

279 **CNC Aggregate Distribution as Determined by SCM and CCM**

280 The CNC aggregate area distribution within the polymer matrix is heavily skewed
281 towards smaller areas at all concentrations (Supplementary Information, Figure S4),
282 which is expected given that individual CNCs are only a few hundred nanometres
283 in length (Foster *et al.* 2018). A single box and whisker plot per sample was found
284 to be inappropriate for representing the data as outlying/anomalous results are
285 defined as being any value greater than the third quartile plus 1.5 times the
286 interquartile range, or lower than the first quartile minus 1.5 times the interquartile
287 range. This results in aggregates greater than $500 \mu\text{m}^2$ being classified as anomalous
288 using conventional analysis, despite consistently being present in the samples
289 analysed. Therefore, an alternative approach to the analysis – detailed in the
290 methods section – was developed that split the aggregate distribution into small,
291 medium, large, and outlier categories, enabling different aggregate size ranges to
292 be analysed independently (Figure 4 and Table 2). CRS was not considered in this
293 analysis due to the limited number of aggregates that could be analysed (Table 1),
294 and aggregates $< 10 \mu\text{m}^2$ were discarded for CCM to enable a direct comparison of
295 the two techniques.

296 For both techniques, a CNC content of 0.625 wt.% consistently results in the lowest
297 median and narrowest aggregate range across the three categories, whilst a CNC
298 content of 5 wt.% results in the largest median and aggregate range (Table 2).
299 However, SCM analysis reveals a similar trend to CRS as CNC content increases,
300 whereby the CNC content of 1.25 wt.% results in larger aggregate sizes than those
301 observed at 2.5 wt.%, whilst CCM analysis results in an increase in aggregate area
302 as the CNC content increases. Larger category ranges, resulting in larger median
303 aggregate sizes, are also observed for CCM. Population analysis of the categories,
304 whereby the sum of the categories is equal to 100 %, reveals no intra-category
305 significant difference across the CNC content range for SCM. However, a
306 significant decrease for aggregates that fall into the small category, from 76 to 61 %,
307 is observed as the CNC content increases for CCM. Likewise, a significant increase
308 for aggregates that fall into the large category, from 4 to 9 %, is also observed.
309 These data suggest that the presence of the stain, in conjunction with the analysis
310 method, results in aggregate size overestimation due to merging of multiple
311 individual aggregates, which consequently affects the population distribution. The
312 use of SCM removes this factor, improving the reliability of the determined
313 aggregate distribution.

314 **Conclusions**

315 Taking the statistical analysis for both inter- and intra-techniques into account,
316 evidence suggests that staining of CNCs results in an overestimation of the mean
317 aggregate area, which is exacerbated as the CNC content increases. Therefore,
318 despite providing highly reproducible results, CCM may not provide an accurate
319 representation of the distribution of CNC aggregates within a polymer matrix, as
320 demonstrated in the aggregate distribution analysis. This could lead to the reporting

321 of false significant differences between samples. In comparison, CRS may be the
322 most accurate technique for calculating the exact area of a CNC aggregate due to
323 the chemical mapping technique used. However, the limited number of observable
324 aggregates results in mean values that have a low reproducibility factor and
325 distribution analysis cannot be performed.

326 Here, SCM is presented as a novel technique for analysing CNC aggregates that
327 combines the reproducibility of CCM with the accuracy of CRS. This enables
328 precise observations on CNC aggregate distribution to be made with confidence.
329 The technique also demonstrates that, whilst CNCs aggregate together, CNCs are
330 distributed throughout the composite at a scale below that of the equipment
331 resolution, as evidenced by the presence of the cellulose spectra when analysing the
332 polymer background. This presents further opportunities for tracking CNC mixing
333 within composites.

334 **Acknowledgements**

335 The research leading to these results has received funding from the European
336 Union's Seventh Framework Programme under grant agreement no 604168
337 (www.newspec.eu). This publication reflects the views only of the author, and the
338 European Commission cannot be held responsible for any use, which may be made
339 of the information contained therein. All authors would like to thank the
340 Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council (EPSRC) for provision of
341 financial support (EP/N03340X/2) and gratefully acknowledge the Material and
342 Chemical Characterisation Facility (MC²) at the University of Bath,
343 <http://go.bath.ac.uk/mc2>, for their support & assistance in this work.

344 **References**

- 345 Abitbol, T., Palermo, A., Moran-Mirabal, J.M. & Cranston, E.D. (2013).
346 Fluorescent Labeling and Characterization of Cellulose Nanocrystals with
347 Varying Charge Contents. *Biomacromolecules* **14**, 3278-3284.
- 348 Agarwal, U.P., Sabo, R., Reiner, R.S., Clemons, C.M. & Rudie, A.W. (2012).
349 Spatially Resolved Characterization of Cellulose Nanocrystal–Polypropylene
350 Composite by Confocal Raman Microscopy. *Appl. Spectrosc.* **66**, 750-756.
- 351 Albinsson, B., Li, S., Lundquist, K. & Stomberg, R. (1999). The origin of lignin
352 fluorescence. *J. Mol. Struct.* **508**, 19-27.
- 353 Batmaz, R., Mohammed, N., Zaman, M., Minhas, G., Berry, R.M. & Tam, K.C.
354 (2014). Cellulose nanocrystals as promising adsorbents for the removal of cationic
355 dyes. *Cellulose* **21**, 1655-1665.
- 356 Bi, Q., Dong, S., Sun, Y., Lu, X. & Zhao, L. (2016). An electrochemical sensor
357 based on cellulose nanocrystal for the enantioselective discrimination of chiral
358 amino acids. *Anal. Biochem.* **508**, 50-57.
- 359 Camarero-Espinosa, S., Rothen-Rutishauser, B., Weder, C. & Foster, E.J. (2016).
360 Directed cell growth in multi-zonal scaffolds for cartilage tissue engineering.
361 *Biomaterials* **74**, 42-52.
- 362 Chakrabarty, A. & Teramoto, Y. (2018). Recent Advances in Nanocellulose
363 Composites with Polymers: A Guide for Choosing Partners and How to
364 Incorporate Them. *Polymers* **10**, 517-563.
- 365 Endes, C., Mueller, S., Kinnear, C., Vanhecke, D., Foster, E.J., Petri-Fink, A.,
366 Weder, C., Clift, M.J.D. & Rothen-Rutishauser, B. (2015). Fate of Cellulose
367 Nanocrystal Aerosols Deposited on the Lung Cell Surface In Vitro.
368 *Biomacromolecules* **16**, 1267-1275.
- 369 Foster, E.J., Moon, R.J., Agarwal, U.P., Bortner, M.J., Bras, J., Camarero-
370 Espinosa, S., Chan, K.J., Clift, M.J.D., Cranston, E.D., Eichhorn, S.J., Fox, D.M.,
371 Hamad, W.Y., Heux, L., Jean, B., Korey, M., Nieh, W., Ong, K.J., Reid, M.S.,
372 Renneckar, S., Roberts, R., Shatkin, J.A., Simonsen, J., Stinson-Bagby, K.,
373 Wanasekara, N. & Youngblood, J. (2018). Current characterization methods for
374 cellulose nanomaterials. *Chem. Soc. Rev.* **47**, 2609-2679.
- 375 Gong, Y.Y., Tan, Y.Q., Mei, J., Zhang, Y.R., Yuan, W.Z., Zhang, Y.M., Sun, J.Z.
376 & Tang, B.Z. (2013). Room temperature phosphorescence from natural products:
377 Crystallization matters. *Sci. China: Chem.* **56**, 1178-1182.
- 378 Haghpanah, J.S., Tu, R., Da Silva, S., Yan, D., Mueller, S., Weder, C., Foster,
379 E.J., Sacui, I., Gilman, J.W. & Montclare, J.K. (2013). Bionanocomposites:
380 Differential Effects of Cellulose Nanocrystals on Protein Diblock Copolymers.
381 *Biomacromolecules* **14**, 4360-4367.
- 382 He, X., Xiao, Q., Lu, C., Wang, Y., Zhang, X., Zhao, J., Zhang, W., Zhang, X. &
383 Deng, Y. (2014). Uniaxially Aligned Electrospun All-Cellulose Nanocomposite
384 Nanofibers Reinforced with Cellulose Nanocrystals: Scaffold for Tissue
385 Engineering. *Biomacromolecules* **15**, 618-627.
- 386 Hu, Z., Marway, H.S., Kasem, H., Pelton, R. & Cranston, E.D. (2016). Dried and
387 Redispersible Cellulose Nanocrystal Pickering Emulsions. *ACS Macro Lett.* **5**,
388 185-189.
- 389 Jackson, J.K., Letchford, K., Wasserman, B.Z., Ye, L., Hamad, W.Y. & Burt,
390 H.M. (2011). The use of nanocrystalline cellulose for the binding and controlled
391 release of drugs. *Int. J. Nanomed.* **6**, 321-330.
- 392 Johns, M.A., Bae, Y., Guimarães, F.E.G., Lanzoni, E.M., Costa, C.A.R., Murray,
393 P.M., Deneke, C., Galembeck, F., Scott, J.L. & Sharma, R.I. (2018). Predicting

394 Ligand-Free Cell Attachment on Next-Generation Cellulose–Chitosan Hydrogels.
395 *ACS Omega* **3**, 937-945.

396 Kalita, E., Nath, B.K., Agan, F., More, V. & Deb, P. (2015). Isolation and
397 characterization of crystalline, autofluorescent, cellulose nanocrystals from saw
398 dust wastes. *Ind. Crops Prod.* **65**, 550-555.

399 Kargarzadeh, H., Mariano, M., Huang, J., Lin, N., Ahmad, I., Dufresne, A. &
400 Thomas, S. (2017). Recent developments on nanocellulose reinforced polymer
401 nanocomposites: A review. *Polymer* **132**, 368-393.

402 Leng, T., Jakubek, Z.J., Mazloumi, M., Leung, A.C.W. & Johnston, L.J. (2017).
403 Ensemble and Single Particle Fluorescence Characterization of Dye-Labeled
404 Cellulose Nanocrystals. *Langmuir* **33**, 8002-8011.

405 Lewandowska, A.E. & Eichhorn, S.J. (2016). Quantification of the degree of
406 mixing of cellulose nanocrystals in thermoplastics using Raman spectroscopy. *J.*
407 *Raman Spectrosc.* **47**, 1337-1342.

408 Lewandowska, A.E., Inai, N.H., Ghita, O.R. & Eichhorn, S.J. (2018). Quantitative
409 analysis of the distribution and mixing of cellulose nanocrystals in thermoplastic
410 composites using Raman chemical imaging. *RSC Adv.* **8**, 35831-35839.

411 Liew, S.Y., Walsh, D.A. & Thielemans, W. (2013). High total-electrode and
412 mass-specific capacitance cellulose nanocrystal-polypyrrole nanocomposites for
413 supercapacitors. *RSC Adv.* **3**, 9158-9162.

414 Lou, Y.-R., Kanninen, L., Kuisma, T., Niklander, J., Noon, L.A., Burks, D., Urtti,
415 A. & Yliperttula, M. (2014). The Use of Nanofibrillar Cellulose Hydrogel As a
416 Flexible Three-Dimensional Model to Culture Human Pluripotent Stem Cells.
417 *Stem Cells Dev.* **23**, 380-392.

418 Malainine, M.E., Mahrouz, M. & Dufresne, A. (2005). Thermoplastic
419 nanocomposites based on cellulose microfibrils from *Opuntia ficus-indica*
420 parenchyma cell. *Compos. Sci. Technol.* **65**, 1520-1526.

421 Malinowska, K.H., Rind, T., Verdorfer, T., Gaub, H.E. & Nash, M.A. (2015).
422 Quantifying Synergy, Thermostability, and Targeting of Cellulolytic Enzymes and
423 Cellulosomes with Polymerization-Based Amplification. *Anal. Chem.* **87**, 7133-
424 7140.

425 Mandal, A. & Chakrabarty, D. (2015). Characterization of nanocellulose
426 reinforced semi-interpenetrating polymer network of poly(vinyl alcohol) &
427 polyacrylamide composite films. *Carbohydr. Polym.* **134**, 240-250.

428 Nakagaito, A.N. & Yano, H. (2004). The effect of morphological changes from
429 pulp fiber towards nano-scale fibrillated cellulose on the mechanical properties of
430 high-strength plant fiber based composites. *Appl. Phys. A* **78**, 547-552.

431 Nigmatullin, R., Harniman, R., Gabrielli, V., Muñoz-García, J.C., Khimyak, Y.Z.,
432 Angulo, J. & Eichhorn, S.J. (2018). Mechanically Robust Gels Formed from
433 Hydrophobized Cellulose Nanocrystals. *ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces* **10**, 19318-
434 19322.

435 Ogawa, Y. & Putaux, J.-L. (2018). Transmission electron microscopy of cellulose.
436 Part 2: technical and practical aspects. *Cellulose*.

437 Oksman, K., Aitomäki, Y., Mathew, A.P., Siqueira, G., Zhou, Q., Butylina, S.,
438 Tanpichai, S., Zhou, X. & Hooshmand, S. (2016). Review of the recent
439 developments in cellulose nanocomposite processing. *Composites Part A* **83**, 2-
440 18.

441 Olmstead, J.A. & Gray, D.G. (1993). Fluorescence emission from mechanical
442 pulp sheets. *J. Photochem. Photobiol., A* **73**, 59-65.

443 Pöhlker, C., Huffman, J.A. & Pöschl, U. (2012). Autofluorescence of atmospheric
444 bioaerosols – fluorescent biomolecules and potential interferences. *Atmos. Meas.*
445 *Tech.* **5**, 37-71.

446 Radotić, K., Kalauzi, A., Djikanović, D., Jeremić, M., Leblanc, R.M. & Cerović,
447 Z.G. (2006). Component analysis of the fluorescence spectra of a lignin model
448 compound. *J. Photochem. Photobiol., B* **83**, 1-10.

449 Ranby, B.G. (1951). Fibrous macromolecular systems. Cellulose and muscle. The
450 colloidal properties of cellulose micelles. *Discuss. Faraday Soc.* **11**, 158-164.

451 Ray, D. & Sain, S. (2016). In situ processing of cellulose nanocomposites.
452 *Composites Part A* **83**, 19-37.

453 Saxena, A., Elder, T.J., Pan, S. & Ragauskas, A.J. (2009). Novel nanocellulosic
454 xylan composite film. *Composites Part B* **40**, 727-730.

455 Shariki, S., Liew, S.Y., Thielemans, W., Walsh, D.A., Cummings, C.Y., Rassaei,
456 L., Wasbrough, M.J., Edler, K.J., Bonn , M.J. & Marken, F. (2011). Tuning
457 percolation speed in layer-by-layer assembled polyaniline–nanocellulose
458 composite films. *J. Solid State Electrochem.* **15**, 2675-2681.

459 Siqueira, G., Bras, J. & Dufresne, A. (2010). Cellulosic Bionanocomposites: A
460 Review of Preparation, Properties and Applications. *Polymers* **2**, 728-765.

461 Sir , I. & Plackett, D. (2010). Microfibrillated cellulose and new nanocomposite
462 materials: a review. *Cellulose* **17**, 459-494.

463 Stewart, S., Priore, R.J., Nelson, M.P. & Treado, P.J. (2012). Raman Imaging.
464 *Annu. Rev. Anal. Chem.* **5**, 337-360.

465 Tomi , S., Kokol, V., Mihajlovi , D., Mir i , A. &  oli , M. (2016). Native
466 cellulose nanofibrills induce immune tolerance in vitro by acting on dendritic
467 cells. *Sci. Rep.* **6**, 31618.

468 Yu, H., Yan, C. & Yao, J. (2014). Fully biodegradable food packaging materials
469 based on functionalized cellulose nanocrystals/poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-co-3-
470 hydroxyvalerate) nanocomposites. *RSC Adv.* **4**, 59792-59802.

471 Yuan, W.Z. & Zhang, Y. (2017). Nonconventional macromolecular luminogens
472 with aggregation-induced emission characteristics. *J. Polym. Sci. A* **55**, 560-574.

473 **Table Legends**

474 **Table 1.** Comparison of confocal techniques (confocal raman spectroscopy - CRS,
475 multi-channel spectral confocal laser scanning microscopy - SCM, and
476 conventional confocal laser scanning microscopy - CCM), highlighting differences
477 in aggregate size and number of aggregates observed. Error \pm SE.

478 **Table 2.** Statistical analysis of data presented in Figures 4A and 4B. Analysis of
479 the range compares the distribution of values for each sample category irrespective
480 of the absolute values themselves. † $p < 0.05$ compared to 1.25 wt.% for a given
481 measurement; ‡ $p < 0.05$ compared to 2.5 wt.% for a given measurement; * $p < 0.05$
482 compared to 5 wt.% CNC for a given measurement.

483 **Figure Legends**

484 **Figure 1.** Representative images used to compare 5 wt.% CNC-MAPE composite
485 samples imaged using A) SEM (accelerating voltage: 10 kV, working distance: 5
486 mm, image acquisition: back scatter); B) Confocal Raman spectroscopy, CRS,
487 mapping at 1096 cm^{-1} (laser wavelength: 785 nm, laser power: 41 mW, lateral
488 resolution: 684 nm); C) Conventional confocal laser scanning microscopy, CCM,
489 (stain: calcofluor white, argon laser intensity: 0.2 %, single channel, $\lambda = 410\text{-}523$
490 nm); and D) Multi-channel spectral confocal laser scanning microscopy, SCM,
491 (argon laser intensity: 5.0 %, 32 channels, $\lambda = 411\text{-}695$ nm).

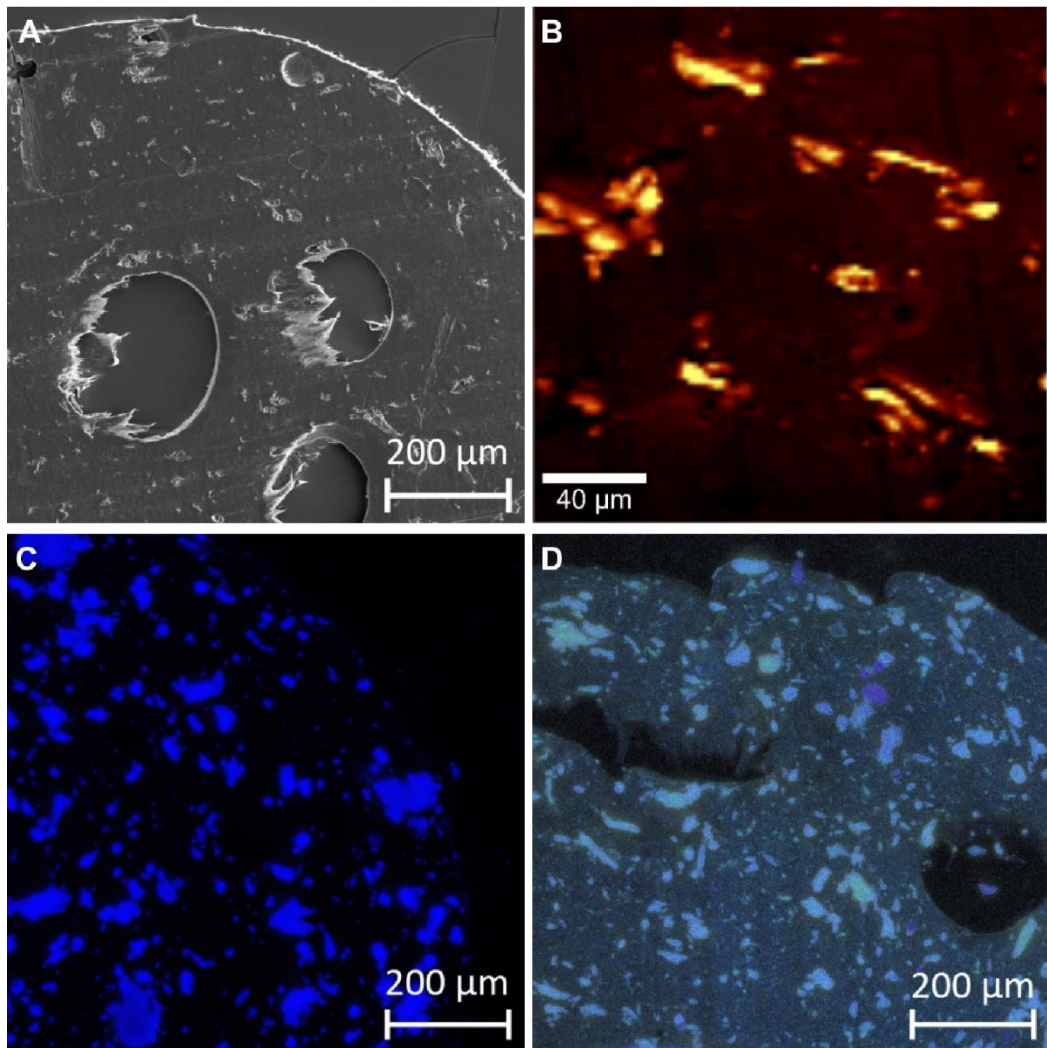
492 **Figure 2.** Comparison of typical spectra for CNC aggregates and a MAPE matrix.
493 Top: Spectra for CNC aggregates (bright bars, dashed line) and MAPE matrix (dark
494 bars, solid line) based on emission intensity. The CNC aggregates are more intense
495 than the background matrix, making it straightforward to distinguish between the
496 two. Bottom: Normalised spectra for CNC aggregates (dashed line) and MAPE
497 matrix (solid line). The peak range maxima for CNCs and MAPE are different, 464-
498 473 and 419-428 nm respectively, confirming that the two materials are
499 distinguishable. $N = 3$, $n = 5$.

500 **Figure 3.** A) Comparison of mean CNC aggregate areas as observed using CRS
501 (blue bars); SCM (red bars with rising diagonal lines); and CCM with CNCs stained
502 by calcofluor white (green bars with falling diagonal lines) at various CNC
503 contents. Alphanumeric labels signify intra-technique samples with no significant
504 difference between them. Due to the varying resolution of the three techniques,
505 values were calculated from aggregates between 10 and $2,000\text{ }\mu\text{m}^2$, which are the
506 upper and lower ranges viewable for all three. * $p < 0.05$. $N = 3$, $n \geq 5$. Error \pm SE.
507 B) Change in significance between CRS and SCM (red squares); CRS and CCM

508 (blue circles); and SCM and CCM (green triangles) with increasing CNC content.
509 Logarithmic lines of best fit plotted to guide the eye.

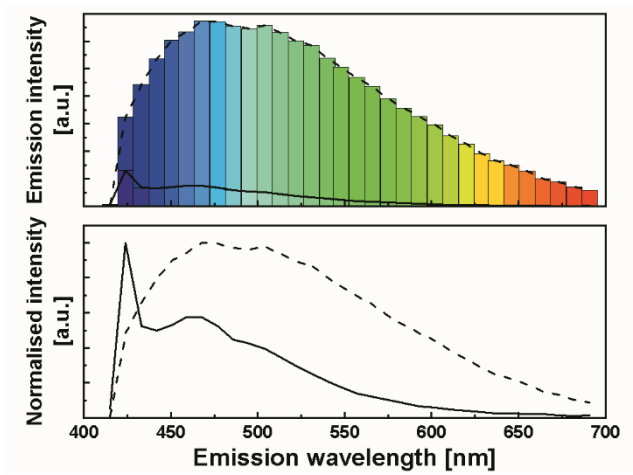
510 **Figure 4.** Comparison of CNC aggregates at varying CNC content observed by
511 SCM and CCM. A, B: Box plots comparing distribution of aggregates between
512 samples obtained via A) SCM and B) CCM. Aggregates are divided into four
513 categories: small (blue boxes), medium (red boxes with light spot scattering), large
514 (green boxes with medium spot scattering), and outliers (black diamonds). The
515 mean values for each category are represented by open squares. Aggregates < 10
516 μm^2 ignored for analysis. $n > 425$. C, D: Populations for varying CNC content
517 obtained via C) SCM and D) CCM. Whilst no significant difference is observed
518 between each of the samples for SCM, differences are observed for CCM.
519 Aggregate categories: small (blue bars), medium (red bars with light spot
520 scattering), large (green bars with medium spot scattering), and outliers (yellow
521 bars with heavy spot scattering). For all categories $N = 3$. * $p < 0.05$ compared to 5
522 wt.% in the respective category. Error \pm SE.

523
524
525
526
527
528
529
530
531
532
533
534
535
536
537
538
539
540
541
542



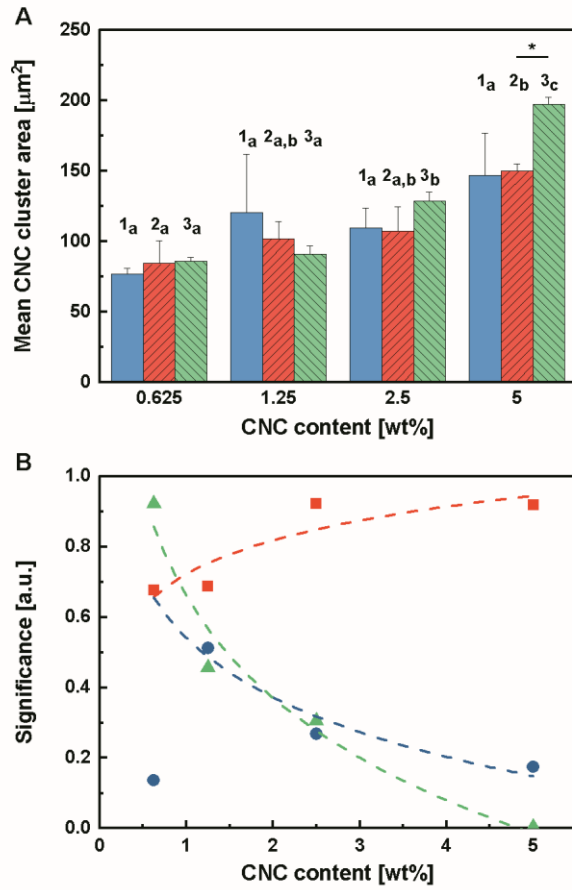
543
544
545
546
547
548
549
550
551
552
553
554
555
556
557
558
559
560
561
562
563
564
565
566

Figure 1

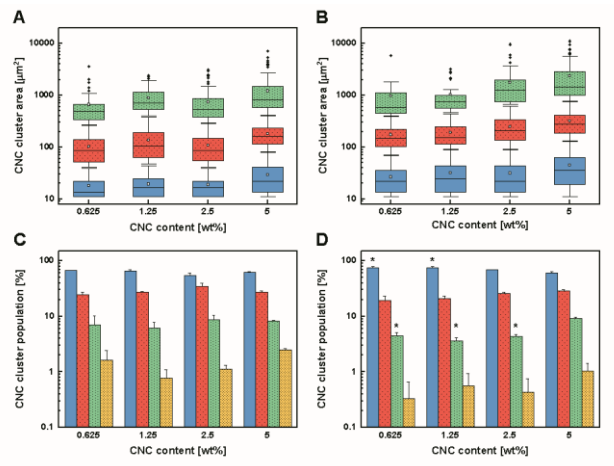


567
568
569
570
571
572
573
574
575
576
577
578
579
580
581
582
583
584
585
586
587
588
589
590
591
592
593
594
595
596
597
598
599
600
601
602
603
604
605
606

Figure 2



607
 608 Figure 3
 609
 610
 611
 612
 613
 614
 615
 616
 617
 618
 619
 620
 621
 622
 623
 624
 625
 626
 627
 628
 629
 630
 631
 632
 633



634
635
636
637
638
639
640
641
642
643
644
645
646
647
648
649
650
651
652
653
654
655
656
657
658
659
660
661
662
663
664
665
666
667
668
669
670
671
672
673

Figure 4

Observation	Confocal Technique				
	CRS	SCM	CCM		
Magnification	× 50	× 10	× 10		
Observable Area [μm^2]	40,000	722,823	722,823		
Minimum Aggregate Size [μm^2]	3	11	3		
Maximum Aggregate Size [μm^2]	1,589	7,172	11,046		
No. of Aggregates	0.625 wt.%	12 ± 2	199 ± 18		
	1.250 wt.%	14 ± 2	215 ± 4		
	2.500 wt.%	25 ± 1	358 ± 96		
	5.000 wt.%	31 ± 7	436 ± 23		
		150 ± 27	246 ± 39	337 ± 66	372 ± 46

674
675 Table 1
676
677
678
679
680
681
682
683
684
685
686
687
688
689
690
691
692
693
694
695
696
697
698
699
700
701

Technique	Category	Area Measurement	CNC content [wt.%]			
			0.625	1.25	2.5	5
SCM	Small	Median [μm^2]	14*	17*	17*	22
		Range [μm^2]	11-39*	11-44*	11-39*	11-80
	Medium	Median [μm^2]	87*	105*	85*	160
		Range [μm^2]	41-259 ^{†*}	47-381 ^{†*}	41-287*	83-400
	Large	Median [μm^2]	487 ^{†*}	711	542*	823
		Range [μm^2]	273-1,095 ^{†*}	405-1,938 [†]	295-1,478*	416-2,735
CCM	Small	Median [μm^2]	22*	25*	22*	36
		Range [μm^2]	11-69 ^{†*}	11-88*	11-88*	11-130
	Medium	Median [μm^2]	150 ^{†*}	154 ^{†*}	207*	276
		Range [μm^2]	72-386 ^{†*}	91-441 ^{†*}	91-612*	132-761
	Large	Median [μm^2]	585*	758 ^{†*}	1260	1448
		Range [μm^2]	405-1,823 ^{†*}	458-1,304 ^{†*}	662-3,739	772-5,733

702
703 Table 2
704