

1 **Enzymatic nanocellulose in papermaking – the key role as** 2 **filler flocculant and strengthening agent**

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9

10 **Abstract**

11 Nanocelluloses have been increasingly used in composites since their reduced size, high
12 aspect ratio and stiffness confer great strength to the materials. In papermaking, it has
13 been proved that harsh and expensive chemical pre-treatments to generate nanofibrils,
14 such as TEMPO-mediated oxidation, are not the most favourable and therefore the use
15 of cellulose microfibrils (CMF) have gained extra attention, especially those produced
16 with the aid of enzymatic hydrolysis. In the present work, strategies to improve filler
17 flocculation and the papermaking properties, by using enzymatic CMF, are provided.
18 The CMF degree of polymerization was found to be directly related to precipitated
19 calcium carbonate flocculation, leading to higher retentions in the fibre matrix. Besides,
20 the paper dry and wet strengths were much improved, allowing in return the production
21 of high-filler loaded handsheets with reduced requirements for common paper additives.

22

23 **Keywords**

24 Enzymes; Filler retention; Nanocellulose; Papermaking; Paper strength

25

26 **Abbreviations**

27 CMF, cellulose microfibrils; LDS, laser diffraction spectrometry; DLS, dynamic light
28 scattering; DP, degree of polymerization; PCC, precipitated calcium carbonate; CPAM,
29 cationic polyacrylamide; BEKP, bleached eucalyptus kraft pulp

30

31 **1. Introduction**

32 Nanocelluloses are a promising material, for a wide range of applications. They exhibit
33 unique characteristics, such as reduced size and high specific surface area, high tensile
34 strength, crystallinity and transparency, being for that the object of growing attention,
35 mainly as reinforcing material in composite structures.

36 In papermaking, their use has been recently reported as they are able to improve
37 strength, filler retention and/or other specific properties such as water absorption (Boufi
38 et al., 2016; Guimond, Chabot, Law, & Daneault, 2010; Tarrés et al., 2016a). Different
39 raw-materials and methodologies can be used to produce these new fibrous structures,
40 usually including mechanical treatments to fibrillate the fibres. To avoid intensive
41 mechanical energy and overcome some inherent technical difficulties, it is common
42 practice to apply to the fibres chemical or enzymatic pre-treatments, originating
43 therefore the cellulose nano or microfibrils (CNF and CMF, respectively) (Abdul Khalil
44 et al., 2014, Lindström, Naderi, & Wiberg, 2015; Nechyporchuk, Belgacem, & Bras,
45 2016; Osong, Norgren, & Engstrand, 2016).

46 Although TEMPO-mediated oxidized CNF have been widely employed in composites
47 and papermaking, several drawbacks arise due to their specific properties. In
48 papermaking, the tiny fibrils create a strongly entangled network which leads to severe
49 drainage problems, making this a difficult keypoint that several authors tried to solve,
50 but without complete success (Ankerfors, Lindstrom, & Söderberg, 2014; Rantanen,
51 Dimic-Misic, Kuusisto, & Maloney, 2015; Su, Zhang, Batchelor, & Garnier, 2014;
52 Taipale, Österberg, Nykänen, Ruokolainen, & Laine, 2010). Besides, a highly negative
53 charge of the TEMPO-CNF can lead to filler flocculation problems and therefore
54 diminish its retention in the paper matrix (Korhonen & Laine, 2014; Lourenço et al.,
55 2017). In fact, it has been found that it is not necessary, neither appropriate, to apply
56 fibrils with such reduced size as the ones obtained by TEMPO-oxidation.

57 In this sense, enzyme-assisted methodologies to produce CMF have been widely
58 explored. Enzymes have been used for a long time to degrade or modify lignin and
59 hemicelluloses, while maintaining the cellulose component of the fibres (Janardhnan &
60 Sain, 2006; Tarrés et al., 2016b; Zhu, Sabo, & Luo, 2011). Recently, the exploitation of
61 enzymes for isolation of cellulose has made it possible to produce CMF with high yields
62 of almost pure cellulose. In this sense, fibrils with diameters in the range of 20-100 nm
63 and lengths up to 100 µm have been obtained. Several authors have reported the

64 influence of enzymatic-CMF as an additive in papermaking, mainly as reinforcing
65 material. Increases of strength between 40 to 60% were found in the pulp handsheets
66 with this type of CMF (Petroudy, Syverud, Chinga-Carrasco, Ghasemain, & Resalati,
67 2014; Sehaqui, Zhou, Ikkala, & Berglund, 2013; Tarrés et al., 2016b). However, the
68 research regarding the production of fine papers still needs to explore the CMF effects
69 in conditions similar to those of the papermaking industry, namely by considering the
70 complex interactions between cellulosic pulps, CMF, mineral fillers, and the wide range
71 of additives commonly used to produce these paper grades. Some studies have already
72 addressed the theme, with different types of nanocellulose, fillers or addition strategies
73 (Ankerfors et al., 2014; Diab et al., 2015; He, Yang, Cho, Yong, & Jong, 2017; Hii,
74 Gregersen, Chinga-Carrasco, & Eriksen, 2012; Lourenço et al. 2017; Lourenço,
75 Godinho, Gamelas, Sarmiento, & Ferreira, 2019). Also, several works have reported the
76 useful interactions between CMF and mineral fillers (Liu, Maloney, Dimic-Misic, &
77 Gane, 2017; Tenhunen et al., 2018). The present study intends to provide strategies that
78 allow optimizing the production of enzymatic CMF in order to achieve the highest
79 increments on the properties of fine papers, containing mineral fillers, namely
80 precipitated calcium carbonate (PCC). Additionally, focus is also given on the previous
81 flocculation of PCC with the CMF so that flocs with appropriate characteristics to the
82 target application are obtained.

83

84 **2. Materials and Methods**

85 *2.1. Enzymatic hydrolysis*

86 The cellulose microfibrils were produced from an industrial bleached eucalyptus kraft
87 pulp (BEKP) with *ca.* 85% of cellulose and 14% of glucuronoxylan. Previously to the
88 enzymatic reaction, 30 g (dry basis) of the never dried fibres were disintegrated and
89 refined at 4000 rev. in a PFI beater in order to make the fibrils more accessible. Three
90 different commercial enzymes were used to produce distinct CMF samples: Enzyme “a”
91 (endocellulase, 10% exocellulase and 5% hemicellulose), Enzyme “b” (endocellulase
92 with 10% hemicellulose), and Enzyme “c” (endocellulase). Bovine serum albumin
93 (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) was used to determine their protein concentration, according to
94 the Bradford method (Bradford, 1976) and values of 5.0, 5.8, and 6.2 mg/ml,
95 respectively, were obtained. The methodology detailed by Tarrés et al. (Tarrés et al.,

96 2016b) was used as starting point for the CMF production: briefly, the beaten fibres
97 were suspended in water (3.5% consistency) and the pH was adjusted to 5 by the
98 addition of sodium citrate buffer. The suspension was heated to 50 °C under constant
99 mechanical stirring and the enzyme was added (300 g per ton of pulp). The cellulose
100 hydrolysis was stopped after 2 h by heating the suspension to 80°C for 15 min. The
101 resulting suspension was cooled to room temperature and thoroughly washed with
102 demineralized water.

103

104 2.2. *Mechanical treatment*

105 A sample without enzymatic pre-treatment was produced for reference. For that, BEKP
106 was refined up to 15000 PFI rev. Both the mechanical reference fibres and the
107 enzymatically pre-treated fibres were submitted to mechanical energy, at 1%
108 consistency, in a high pressure homogenizer (HPH, GEA Niro Soavi, model Panther
109 NS3006L). Samples “CMF-Ref”, “CMFa”, “CMFb” and “CMFc” were obtained after
110 two passes: the first at 500 bar and the second at 1000 bar. An additional study to assess
111 the influence of the HPH in the CMF properties was conducted with fibres pre-treated
112 with Enzyme “a” and with increased passes (2, 4 and 6). However, due to technical
113 difficulties, and differently from the previous samples, it was not possible to attain 1000
114 bar on the second pass and forward. Total pressures of 1250, 2750 and 4250 bar,
115 respectively, were used to produce samples “CMFa-2P”, “CMFa-4P” and “CMFa- 6P”,
116 respectively.

117

118 2.3. *CMF characterization*

119 The CMF produced were fully characterized for their fibrillation yield, zeta potential,
120 degree of polymerization (DP) and ensemble Z-average hydrodynamic equivalent size.
121 The “yield” of production of nanofibrillar material was evaluated in duplicate by
122 gravimetry after centrifugation (9000 rpm for 30 min) of 40 mL of the dispersions (0.2
123 wt%). The zeta potential (ζ) of the 0.2% CMF aqueous dispersions was measured in
124 triplicate in a Zetasizer Nano ZS (Malvern Instruments). The DP was determined from
125 intrinsic viscosity measurements in cupriethylenediamine (ISO 5351:2010) by applying
126 the Mark-Houwink equation parameters, $K=2.28$, $a=0.76$ (Henriksson, Berglund,
127 Isaksson, Lindstrom, & Nishino, 2008). Dynamic light scattering (DLS) measurements

128 were performed on the centrifugation supernatants using a Zetasizer Nano ZS
129 equipment (Malvern Instruments), in order to have an idea of the relative size of the
130 fibrils, as previously reported (Gamelas et al., 2015, Lourenço et al., 2017).

131

132 2.4. PCC flocculation in the presence of CMF

133 In order to understand the influence of the produced CMF in filler flocculation, tests
134 were conducted by Laser Diffraction Spectrometry (LDS) in a Mastersizer 2000
135 apparatus (Malvern Instruments) equipped with the Hydro2000MU module. An
136 industrial scalenohedral precipitated calcium carbonate (PCC) was used as filler. Its zeta
137 potential, measured by electrophoretic mobility in the Zetasizer Nano ZS instrument
138 was +7 mV and the median of the particle size distribution, by volume (d_{50}), determined
139 by LDS was 4.2 μm .

140 The filler and CMF were mixed in the equipment vessel, at a 10:1 mass ratio and a total
141 solids concentration of around 0.01 wt%. After 20 min. of agitation, sonication was
142 applied during 15 min. to break the flocs and then stopped to test if any re-flocculation
143 occurred. This procedure was firstly proposed for filler particles (without CNF) by
144 Rasteiro et al. (Rasteiro et al., 2008). Tests with only PCC were also performed for
145 comparison.

146

147 2.5. Papermaking potential

148 In order to evaluate the behaviour of the new CMF in terms of retention in the fibre
149 matrix and influence on the structural and mechanical properties, handsheets were
150 produced in a semi-automatic laboratory sheet former (300-1 model, LabTech) using a
151 120 mesh screen.

152 The used formulations contained fibre (BEKP industrially refined up to 33 °SR), PCC
153 and CMF. Besides, a series was performed with common paper additives: cationic
154 starch, alkenyl succinic anhydride (ASA) and a linear cationic polyacrylamide (CPAM)
155 used as internal strength, sizing and retention agents, respectively.

156

157 For the handsheets production, PCC and CMF suspensions were prepared and mixed as
158 in the flocculation experiments (stirring followed by ultrasonication). Afterwards, the
159 PCC-CMF flocs (33%) were added to the BEKP (67%). In the series with additives, an

160 emulsion of starch and ASA was subsequently added to the fibre-flocs suspension,
161 followed by CPAM, according to the procedure described in detail elsewhere (Lourenço
162 et al., 2017). The furnish was transferred into the sheet former where air agitation and
163 decantation were followed by drainage. The sheet was collected from the former, and
164 pressing and conditioning were performed according to the ISO 5269-1 standard. The
165 structural and mechanical properties were measured according to the corresponding ISO
166 standards.

167 Water retention measurements were made according to SCAN-C 62:00 on never dried
168 handsheets (collected immediately after drainage). The wet-web tensile was also
169 measured in a tensile vertical tester (Instron, 2519-102 model equipped with a 50 N
170 static load cell) for different moisture levels, according to the procedure previously
171 described (Lourenço et al., 2017). Besides, the handsheets were calcined at 525 °C for
172 16 h to determine the PCC effective content (and the corresponding filler retention),
173 according to the TAPPI Standard T211 om-93.

174

175

176 **3. Results and discussion**

177

178 *3.1. CMF characterization*

179 Table 1 depicts the results of the characterization of the CMF suspensions obtained. The
180 zeta potential of all the samples was similar to that of the original BEKP, i.e., slightly
181 negative due to the pulp production process. As expected for these types of materials,
182 the yield of fibrillation was low, when compared to nanocelluloses obtained using
183 chemical pre-treatments, with values superior to 70% (Isogai, Saito, & Fukuzimi, 2011;
184 Lourenço et al., 2019), and the standard deviation of the results was quite big due to
185 presence of fibrils with large size, which confer higher heterogeneity to the material.
186 Nonetheless, by analysing the yield values it is possible to distinguish the influence of
187 the different enzymes used in the CMF production, with enzymes “a” and “c” leading to
188 higher yields (higher levels of fibrillation). The determination of the degree of
189 polymerization revealed that the enzymatic treatments applied reduced to more than half
190 the average DP of the original BEKP. Since DP is roughly proportional to the length of
191 the nanofibres (Shinoda et al., 2012), it can be concluded that the size of the fibres,

192 namely the length, was significantly reduced. However, and as expected, the DP values
 193 are of higher magnitude than those obtained for TEMPO-oxidized CNF (Lourenço et al.
 194 2017, 2019; Shinoda, Saito, Okita, & Isogai, 2012). The DP values obtained are in
 195 accordance with the measured protein concentration of the enzymes used, with CMFa
 196 presenting the highest DP. Although CMF-c presents the lowest DP, meaning that, in
 197 average, the fibrils have the smaller length, the supernatant evaluated by DLS reveals
 198 that the smallest fraction of the sample (nanofibrils) has the largest equivalent
 199 hydrodynamic diameter of all the samples. Since enzyme “a” has a small percentage of
 200 exocellulases, in contrast to enzymes “b” and “c” that are composed only of
 201 endocellulases, the mechanisms of fibrillation and fiber shortening are expectedly
 202 different, producing therefore microfibrils with different structure. The reference CMF
 203 was produced with the triple of the refining energy of those applied for the enzymatic
 204 microcelluloses and even though the DP was only slightly reduced, proving that only by
 205 the enzymatic pre-treatment a substantial breakage of the cellulose chains occurs. The
 206 effect of the HPH on fibrillation was translated into a decrease of the DP of *ca.* 330
 207 between the samples with 2 and 6 passes, as higher shear forces helped partially break
 208 the cellulose chains. Moreover, it seems that by increasing the intensity of the
 209 mechanical treatment, a higher number of fibrils are being released from the surface of
 210 the fibres (thus increasing the yield).

211
 212

Table 1 Characterization of the CNF/CMF produced.

Sample	Enzyme (g/tonne)	Passes / pressure (bar) in the HPH	ζ Potential (mV)	Yield (%)	DP	DLS avg. size (nm)
BEKP	-	-	-25 (8)	-	2628 (127)	-
CMF-Ref	-	2P / 1500	-25 (3)	5 (3)	2296 (57)	356 (86)
CMFa	300	2P / 1500	-28 (1)	20 (11)	1378 (9)	334 (10)
CMFb	300	2P / 1500	-28 (1)	10 (6)	1118 (43)	278 (4)
CMFc	300	2P / 1500	-31 (3)	20 (4)	704 (75)	387 (65)
CMFa (2P)	300	2P / 1250	-29 (3)	22 (8)	1834 (7)	428 (17)
CMFa (4P)	300	4P / 2750	-33 (3)	24 (11)	1747 (61)	483 (14)
CMFa (6P)	300	6P / 4250	-33 (1)	26 (14)	1504 (12)	550 (14)

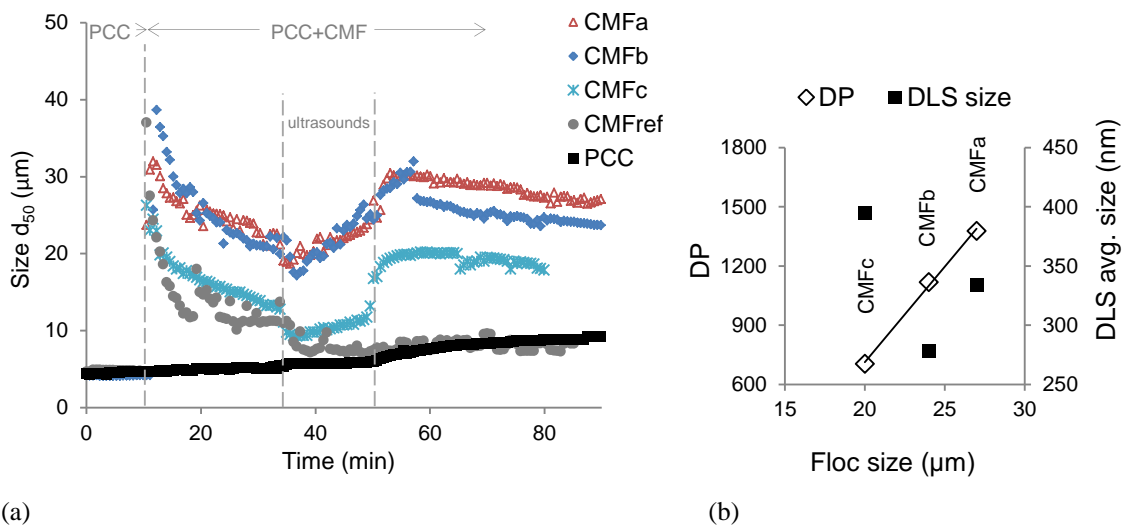
213 (standard deviation within parentheses)

214
 215

216 3.2. PCC flocculation in the presence of CMF

217 The interactions between the cellulose microfibrils and PCC were analysed by

218 flocculation tests performed by LDS (Fig. 1a). The reference CMF (only mechanical
 219 treatment) caused an initial flocculation of PCC, but the shear forces applied, either by
 220 mechanical stirring or ultrasonication, broke the flocs, and final sizes similar to those of
 221 PCC were obtained. The type of enzyme used in the production of CMF led to distinct
 222 flocculation results, with the CMFc flocculating PCC much less than the ones produced
 223 with the other two enzymes (“a” and “b”), in accordance with the lower DP value of the
 224 former CMF. In fact, Fig.1b reveals that the size of the PCC flocs is directly influenced
 225 by the DP of the CMF used, rather than by their hydrodynamic equivalent diameter. The
 226 effect of sonication on the flocculation behaviour was also distinct when the different
 227 enzymes were used to produce CMF: CMFa and CMFb did not deflocculate when
 228 sonication was applied, in contrast to CMFc and to what was expected for the PCC-
 229 nanocellulose flocculation (Lourenço et al., 2017, 2019; Korhonen et al., 2014), which
 230 could also contribute to the formation of larger floc sizes. These results can be
 231 determinant for papermaking when CMF are used as additive and therefore this type of
 232 flocculation studies (which include ultrasound to simulate the shear forces in stock
 233 preparation and headbox of the industrial process) can be used as a starting point for
 234 selecting the conditions to produce an optimized CMF. In this work, stabilized flocs
 235 with *ca.* 27, 24 and 20 μm were obtained for CMFa, CMFb and CMFc, respectively.



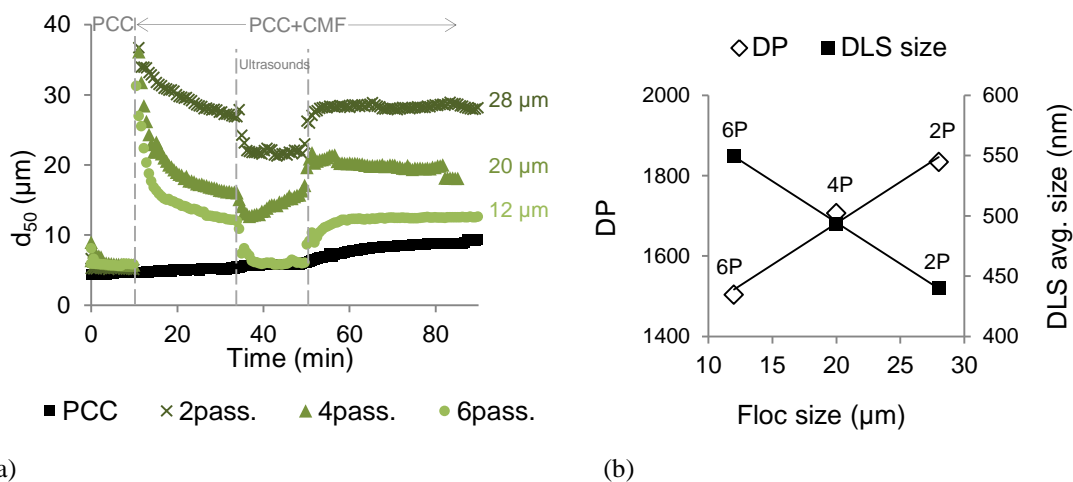
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 237

238 **Fig. 1.** (a) Evolution of the size of PCC flocs in the presence of CMF, evaluated by LDS, and (b)
 239 influence of the degree of polymerization and DLS average size of CMF on the final flocs size.

240
 241

242 In order to assess the influence of the CMF length on PCC flocculation, an additional
 243 study was performed with cellulose microfibrils produced with increased passes in the

244 HPH. By analysing the flocculation behaviour depicted in Fig. 2a, it is possible to state
 245 that increased passes in the HPH are harmful for PCC flocculation since the fibrils
 246 become not only smaller in length (lower DP), but intrinsically weaker. In fact, with the
 247 increased passes, the shear forces applied during the flocculation tests led to relative
 248 breaking of the PCC flocs and the “6 pass” sample almost failed to create PCC flocs
 249 (observable at a total time of 90 min of measurement). As concluded previously, the
 250 floc size was also found to be directly influenced by the CMF degree of polymerization,
 251 but in this additional study, performed with the same enzyme, it was possible to
 252 conclude that floc size was inversely related with the DLS average size of CMF (Fig
 253 2b).
 254



255
 256 (a) (b)
 257 **Fig. 2.** Influence of CMF-Enz produced with 2, 4 or 6 passes in the HPH on the a) evolution of the
 258 median of the particle size distribution (d_{50}) of PCC suspensions, and b) the correlation between the CMF
 259 properties (degree of polymerization and DLS average size) and the PCC-CMF flocs size.

260
 261 From the results presented, it is possible to state that the size of PCC-CMF flocs is
 262 influenced by: a) the type of enzyme used in the CMF production, being directly related
 263 to the DP of CMF (Fig. 1b) and b) the mechanical treatment intensity during CMF
 264 production (Fig. 2b), wherein a higher intensity provides CMF with lower DP and lower
 265 potential for PCC flocculation.
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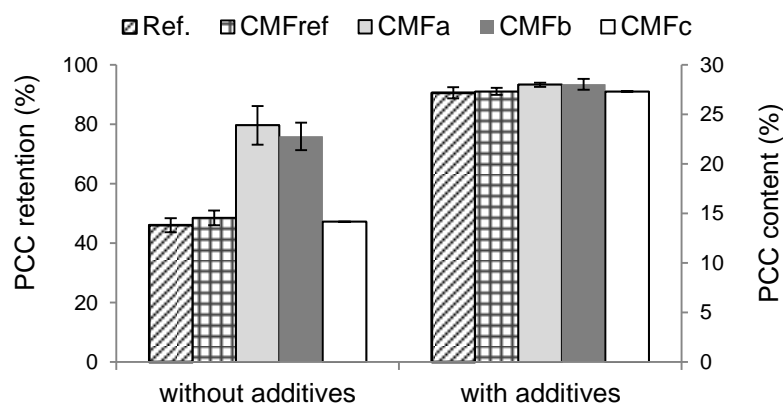
267 3.3. Papermaking potential

268 The effect of the incorporation of CMF on laboratory handsheets was investigated.
 269 From Fig. 3 and 4 it is clearly visible that the CMF presence leads to a high increase of

270 strength and in some cases, of filler retention. This can be explained by the formation of
 271 strong bonding between fibres and nano and microfibrils (González et al., 2012; Hii et
 272 al., 2012; He, Cho, & Won, 2016) and to the formation of big filler flocs (Korhonen &
 273 Laine, 2014; Lourenço et al., 2017, 2019).

274

275 In a common printing and writing paper, produced with BEKP and PCC, it is usual
 276 practice to add additives such as internal sizing, strength and retention agents to
 277 improve the paper properties. This effect was clear for the reference handsheets
 278 (without CMF) in the presence and absence of additives, with huge increases of filler
 279 retention (Fig. 3) and consequent effects on strength (Fig. 4). The same effect was
 280 observed with the reference CMF (with only mechanical treatment). However, it was
 281 found out that, in most of cases, the enzymatic microfibrils presence was able to
 282 substitute or reduce the need of the aforementioned additives, as higher retentions and
 283 tensile indices were obtained in comparison to the reference handsheets without
 284 additives (Fig. 3 and 4). By testing the same formulations in the handsheet production, it
 285 was possible to increase filler retention in 77% and 65% (without additives) or in 2 and
 286 3% (with additives) by using CMFa and CMFb, respectively. As for CMFc, no
 287 significant increments were obtained for the filler retention in the absence of additives,
 288 which could be due to the much smaller degree of polymerization of the microfibrils
 289 (Table 1), not being able therefore to substitute the long chains of the CPAM used as
 290 retention agent. In the presence of additives, the incorporation of that CMF also led to
 291 no substantial variations.



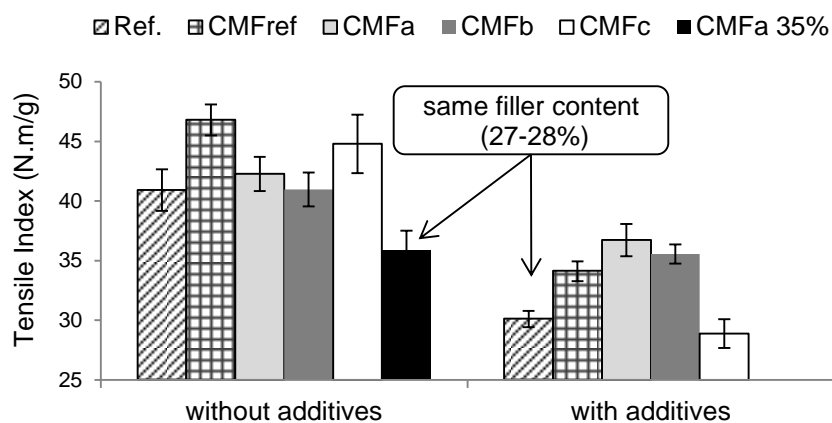
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293 **Fig. 3** Influence of enzymatic cellulose microfibrils (CMF) on filler content and retention of handsheets
 294 produced without and with additives (cationic starch, ASA and cationic polyacrylamide). Reference
 295 handsheets without CMF (Ref.) and with CMFref (only mechanical treatment) are presented for
 296 comparison.

297

298 As for the tensile index (Fig. 4), increases relative to the reference handsheets (without
299 CMF) of 4, 0 and 16% (without additives) and 22, 18 and -4% (with additives),
300 respectively for CMFa, CMFb and CMFc, were obtained. The reference CMF (without
301 enzymatic pre-treatment) was also able to increase the tensile index by 14 and 13%,
302 respectively. When analyzing these results, it is of utmost importance to consider the
303 filler retention values abovementioned, since the handsheets mechanical resistance is
304 known to be directly influenced by the filler content (Lourenço, Gamelas, & Ferreira,
305 2014). Although similar filler contents were obtained in the presence of additives, in
306 their absence, the microfibrils CMFa and CMFb were able to generate handsheets with a
307 much higher filler content and similar or slightly higher mechanical resistance.
308 Inversely, the CMFref led to very strong handsheets in the absence of additives, but it
309 must be taken into account the much lower effective filler content achieved in
310 comparison to the handsheets produced with enzymatic CMFa or CMFb (absolute
311 reduction of -10%). To further explore these results, a new series of handsheets with
312 CMFa and without additives, containing more 5% of added filler, was produced (62, 35
313 and 3% of BEKP, PCC and CMF, respectively). The results obtained are also shown in
314 Figure 4. These handsheets were found to have the same effective filler content of the
315 reference handsheets with additives, but showed a remarkable 19% increase in the
316 tensile index. This conclusion indicates that it is possible to produce handsheets without
317 additives and increased strength, by using 3% of enzymatic CMF.

318



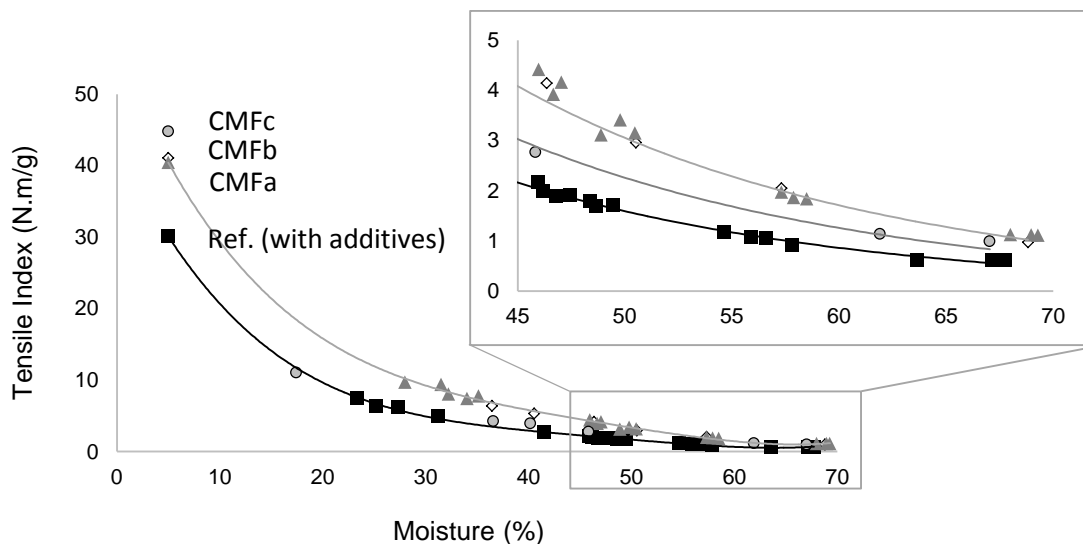
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320 **Fig. 4.** Influence of enzymatic microcellulose fibrils (CMF) on tensile index of handsheets produced
321 without and with additives (cationic starch, ASA and cationic polyacrylamide). The extra black column
322 refers to handsheets produced with addition of 35% of PCC. Reference handsheets without CMF (Ref.)
323 and with CMFref (only mechanical treatment) are presented for comparison.

324

325 The influence of the CMF on the wet-web strength of the handsheets (without additives)
326 was also analyzed (Fig. 5). For high moisture contents, a different trend from the one
327 observed for the dry handsheets was registered: at 46% moisture content, tensile
328 increases relative to the reference (without CMF) of 104, 91 and 28% for CMFa, CMFb
329 and CMFc, respectively, were observed. It must be taken into account that CMFc led to
330 low retention values (in the absence of additives), with values below 50%, while, for the
331 same conditions, CMFa and CMFb were able to increase this value to more than 75%.
332 Furthermore, these values are still below the filler retention of the reference handsheets
333 with additives (> 90%). Considering that the increase of tensile index is directly
334 proportional to the decrease of filler content (Lourenço et al., 2014), the present results
335 obtained must be carefully analysed. The wet tensile strengths of CMFa and CMFb
336 were similar and always superior to the values obtained with CMFc, even considering
337 the huge differences of filler retention/content. As expected, for the dry section the filler
338 content is highly influencing the results (as observable for CMFc with only 14% of
339 filler, in comparison to the reference handsheets with 27%), but for the high moisture
340 section, the interactions between the microfibrils and BEKP fibres seem to be dominant
341 and overcoming this filler content differences.

342



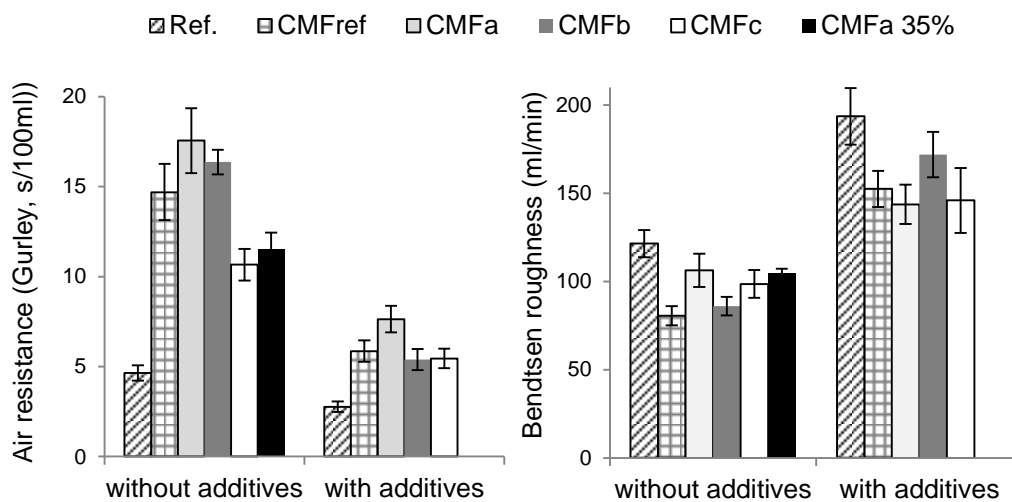
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344 **Fig. 5.** Wet web tensile index of handsheets produced with the enzymatic cellulose microfibrils (without
345 additives), compared to reference handsheets (without CMF and with additives)

346

347 As expected, the presence of the cellulose microfibrils granted distinct structural

348 properties to the handsheets. Fig. 6 reveals the results of the air resistance, as measured
 349 by the Gurley method, and of the Bendtsen roughness. The major drawback of using
 350 CMF in papermaking is the reduced drainability, since the sheet structure becomes
 351 much more closed due to the increased bonding. The air resistance measured in the
 352 produced handsheets is directly related to the process drainability, which can be
 353 improved if the filler content is increased: Fig. 6 reveals, for CMFa, a decrease of air
 354 resistance of 34% when 5% more of filler is used. Although the handsheets produced
 355 with CMFc and without additives were found to possess low filler effective content,
 356 which theoretically would close even more the paper structure, a lower air resistance
 357 value was obtained. Although these values are still considered high for an efficient
 358 drainage in a paper machine, an optimization of the conditions (filler content, use of
 359 other additives, addition of long fibre, etc.) could lead to smaller values, as proven by
 360 other authors (Dimic-Misic, Maloney, Liu, & Gane, 2017). In contrast, the handsheets
 361 roughness was highly reduced since CMF binds all the components, creating a net-like
 362 structure without so many loose fibrils. The roughness of CMF-containing handsheets
 363 (without additives) with the same filler content of the reference handsheets (without
 364 CMF and with additives) was found to be 46% smaller.
 365

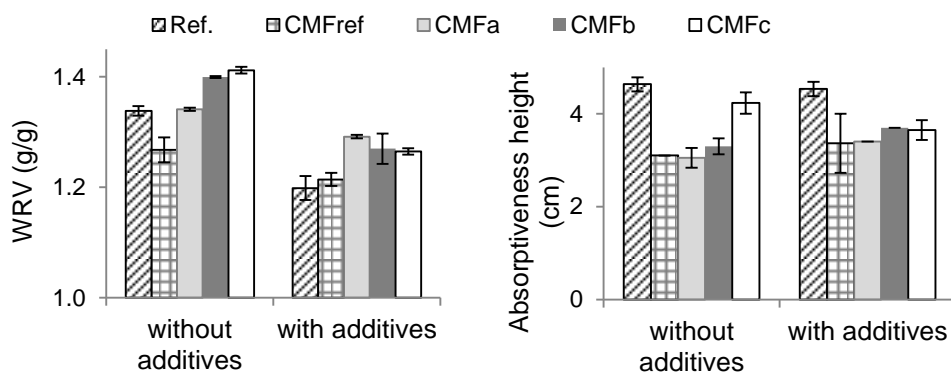


366
 367 **Fig. 6.** Air resistance and roughness of handsheets produced with cellulose microfibrils. Reference
 368 handsheets without CMF (Ref.) or with CMFref (only mechanical treatment) are presented for
 369 comparison.

370
 371 The capacity of the fibres mat to retain or absorb water was evaluated by the water
 372 retention value (WRV) and that of the handsheets by the capillary rise Klemm test (Fig.

373 7). Generally, in the presence of the cellulose microfibrils, the fibre mat retained more
 374 water, as expected. This could mean that the CMF-containing sheets are more difficult
 375 to dry in the dryer section of the paper machine. Additionally, if additives were not
 376 used, the WRV was even higher. On the other hand, the capillary rise is reduced in the
 377 CMF presence, which means that there is lower penetration of liquids than with the
 378 reference handsheets without CMF, such as e.g., the surface sizing formulations applied
 379 in the paper machine size press. This is directly related to the more closed handsheets,
 380 as the Gurley air resistance shows a linear correlation ($R^2 > 0.9$) with the capillary rise
 381 (Supplementary data).

382



383

384 **Fig. 7.** Influence of enzymatic cellulose microfibrils (CMF) in the handsheets water retention value
 385 (WRV) and water absorption (capillary rise, Klemm test).
 386

387

388 The results obtained help in defining a pathway to use cellulose microfibrils as retention
 389 and strength additive in papermaking, namely on the production of fine papers. Further
 390 studies must be carried out in order to optimize the CMF production and their
 391 application, specifically regarding the type and amount of paper additives to use.

392

4. Conclusions

393 Cellulose microfibrils (CMF) were produced by enzymatic hydrolysis followed by high
 394 pressure homogenization. A reference CMF obtained without enzymatic pre-treatment
 395 was also used for comparison purposes. Different enzymes were tested, originating
 396 CMF with different degree of polymerization and size. Flocculation studies revealed
 397 that enzymatic CMF are able to flocculate PCC, contrary to the reference CMF (only
 398 intensive mechanical treatment). A direct relation between the enzymatic CMF degree
 399 of polymerization and the generated flocs size was found. Additionally, exceeding

400 mechanical treatment intensity during the enzymatic CMF production seemed to
401 degrade the fibres, with poor PCC flocculation as a consequence.

402 When added to papermaking furnishes, enzymatic CMF were able to increase filler
403 retention and strength. Moreover, some of the CMF produced were able to partially
404 substitute the effect of retention agent (cationic polyacrylamide) and reduce the
405 requirements for internal strength additives (e.g. cationic starch). Furthermore, the wet-
406 web strength was highly increased when CMF were used and it was presumed that, at
407 high moistures, the fibre-CMF interactions were stronger than the disruption caused by
408 the presence of mineral filler particles.

409 One of the drawbacks of incorporating CMF in papermaking was the reduced
410 drainability, which could be overcome by optimization of the process (3% enzymatic
411 CMF and 5% more filler reduced air resistance by 50%). In fact, the CMF-containing
412 fibre mats retained more water (WRV), thus hindering drying of the paper web.
413 However, as a positive outcome, surface roughness and water penetration (capillary rise,
414 Klemm test) were reduced.

415 The results obtained reveal the great aptitude of enzymatic-CMF to improve the
416 properties of handsheets containing filler and provide important correlations between
417 the CMF production and final paper properties, giving solutions to overcome difficulties
418 such as reduced drainability or use of expensive synthetic polymers.

419

420

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424

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