Accepted Manuscript

Methods to Assess the Impact of UV Irradiation on the Surface Chemistry and Structure of Multiwall Carbon Nanotube Epoxy Nanocomposites

Elijah J. Petersen, Thomas Lam, Justin M. Gorham, Keana C. Scott, Christian J. Long, Deborah Stanley, Renu Sharma, J. Alexander Liddle, Bastien Pellegrin, Tinh Nguyen
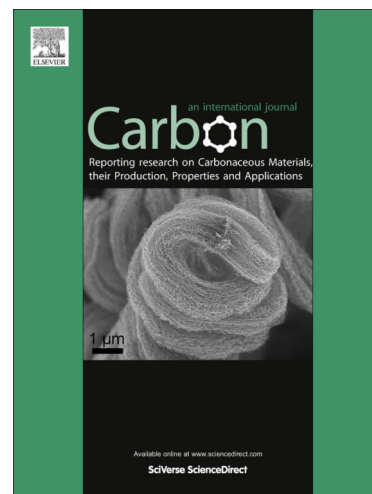
Please cite this article as: Petersen, E.J., Lam, T., Gorham, J.M., Scott, K.C., Long, C.J., Stanley, D., Sharma, R., Alexander Liddle, J., Pellegrin, B., Nguyen, T., Methods to Assess the Impact of UV Irradiation on the Surface Chemistry and Structure of Multiwall Carbon Nanotube Epoxy Nanocomposites, *Carbon* (2013), doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.carbon.2013.12.016

1 # Methods to Assess the Impact of UV Irradiation on

2 # the Surface Chemistry and Structure of Multiwall

3 # Carbon Nanotube Epoxy Nanocomposites

4 *Elijah J. Petersen[1]*, Thomas Lam[2], Justin M. Gorham[3], Keana C. Scott[3], Christian J. Long[2,4],*

5 *Deborah Stanley[5], Renu Sharma[2], J. Alexander Liddle[2], Bastien Pellegrin[6], Tinh Nguyen[5]**

6 [1]Biosystems and Biomaterials Division, NIST, Gaithersburg, MD 20899, United States

7 [2]Center for Nanoscale Science and Technology, NIST, Gaithersburg, MD 20899, United States

8 **[3]**Materials Measurement Science Division, NIST, Gaithersburg, MD 20899, United States

9 **[4]**Maryland Nanocenter, University of Maryland, College Park, MD 20742, United States

10 [5]Engineering Laboratory, NIST, Gaithersburg, MD 20899, United States

11 **[6]**LGC, Université de Toulouse, 31062 Toulouse, France.

12

13

14

15
16
17
18
19

* Corresponding authors. Tel: 301-975-6718. E-mail address tinh.nguyen@nist.gov (T. Nguyen) and 301-975-8142, elijah.petersen@nist.gov (E. J. Petersen)

20   One of the most promising applications of nanomaterials is as nanofillers to enhance the

21   properties of polymeric materials. However, the effect of nanofillers on polymers subjected to

22   typical environmental stresses, such as ultraviolet (UV) radiation, high humidity, or elevated

23   temperatures, is not well understood. This stems partly from a lack of a single analytical method

24   to assess these impacts. In this study, multiwall carbon nanotube (MWCNT) epoxy

25   nanocomposite materials were exposed to carefully controlled UV doses (equivalent of up to $\approx$ 4

26   years in Florida). A suite of microscopic, spectroscopic and gravimetric techniques were

27   optimized and used to assess changes occurring in the sample mass, surface chemistry, and

28   surface and sub-surface morphology after UV irradiation. Overall, photodegradation of the

29   epoxy matrix was retarded by the presence of the 3.5% MWCNT filler, suggesting that

30   MWCNTs may enhance the lifetime of nanocomposite materials. Multiple microscopic and

31   spectroscopic techniques clearly showed accumulation of MWCNTs on the nanocomposite

32   surface that grew with increasing UV dose, a finding that may be significant with regard to the

33   potential risk of MWCNT release during the nanocomposite lifetime. These analytical methods

34   will help enable a robust and informative assessment of transformations in polymer

35   nanocomposites subject to environmental stresses.

36

37

38

1. Introduction

One prominent area of nanotechnology that is expected to dramatically increase in future years is use of nanocomposites in a variety of consumer, industrial, and manufacturing applications. Nanocomposite materials contain a nanofiller, which is defined as any particle with a characteristic dimension between 1 nm and 100 nm, incorporated into a matrix material (*e.g.,* polymer, ceramic, etc.) in order to enhance the useful properties of the original matrix material. For example, incorporating multiwall carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs) into polymer matrices (i.e., MWCNT polymer nanocomposites) yields materials whose properties can readily be engineered for applications in aerospace [1], construction [2], and consumer products [3]. MWCNT nanocomposites offer important novel or substantially improved properties (e.g., mechanical, electrical, and light weight) compared to traditional fiber-reinforced polymer composites [4, 5].

While incorporating nanofillers to form a polymer nanocomposite have received significant research interest, far fewer studies have assessed the impact of environmental stresses (e.g., biodegradation, ultraviolet (UV) light, and rain) on nanocomposites and on the potential release of nanomaterials [3, 6-10]. The release of carbon nanotubes (CNTs) from nanocomposites has been investigated during machining processes (e.g., sanding, solid core drilling, and cutting) [11-15] and in end use applications during which the nanocomposites may be exposed to abrasion, photo or hydrolytic degradation [14, 16-21]. CNT release is particularly important given their potential environmental and human health risks [6, 22-24]. In environmental uptake studies, CNT accumulation at high concentrations has been observed in water fleas (*Daphnia magna*) [25, 26] but not in soil or sediment organisms [6, 27-31]. CNTs have also shown the capacity to cause inflammation, oxidative stress, and potential genotoxicity that may cause risks for workers if exposure is not controlled [23, 32].

62   Studies on MWCNT release from polymer nanocomposites have sought to determine

63   release rates and whether MWCNTs are released as free particles or are encapsulated in a

64   polymer. While two studies have shown the release of free MWCNTs from an epoxy-based

65   nanocomposite after abrasion [17] and sanding (but only for the 4 % MWCNT condition) [15],

66   release of individual MWCNTs has generally not been detected [11-14, 16, 21]. These

67   observations do not, however, preclude the possibility of MWCNT release under certain

68   circumstances. In order to assess the likelihood of free MWCNT generation, it is necessary to

69   understand the mechanisms that may lead to its occurrence. This information is needed for life

70   cycle assessments of polymer nanocomposites. In this study, we focus on the effects of matrix

71   degradation induced by UV radiation (i.e., photodegradation) – the most important degradation

72   process for polymeric materials exposed to weathering environments [33]. While several studies

73   have shown MWCNT surface accumulation after UV exposure [14, 16, 20, 21], the changes in

74   the structure and surface chemistry of the nanocomposite were not fully assessed – principally

75   due to a lack of optimized analytical methods – making the development of accurate mechanistic

76   models, and thus prediction of release scenarios, challenging.

77   In this study, we have developed and applied a comprehensive suite of analytical methods

78   to investigate dose-dependent effects of UV irradiation on the fate of MWCNTs and surface

79   chemistry and structure of a MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite. Accelerated testing was performed

80   using intense UV irradiation in the same spectral regime as the UV portion of natural sunlight

81   (295 nm to 400 nm) at elevated temperature (50 °C) and humidity (75 % relative humidity).

82   Surface and bulk material chemistry and structure were analyzed using gravimetry, scanning

83   electron microscopy (SEM), atomic force microscopy (AFM), Fourier transform infrared

84   spectroscopy in attenuated total reflection mode (FTIR-ATR), and X-ray photoelectron

85 spectroscopy (XPS).   Additionally, the sub-surface structure of the nanocomposites was

86 investigated using SEM, bright-field transmission electron microscopy (TEM), and energy-

87 filtered TEM (EFTEM) after preparing cross-sections using cryo-fracturing or a focused ion

88 beam (FIB).   This allowed for an investigation of the mechanism of damage to polymer

89 MWCNT nanocomposite as a function of increasing UV exposure. As we show, no single

90 analytical method provided all the necessary information – it was essential to develop and

91 optimize a range of techniques to provide a complete picture. While most prior studies focused

92 almost exclusively on NP release, this is the first study to investigate in depth the transformations

93 of both the surface chemistry and surface morphology of a MWCNT polymer nanocomposite

94 during UV degradation processes using a suite of optimized analytical methods. Further, the

95 results obtained are helpful in assessing potential risks during the life cycle of MWCNT polymer

96 nanocomposites, and the methods developed will facilitate a robust assessment of the impact of

97 environmental stresses on polymer nanocomposites in future studies.

98 **2. Experimental Section**

99 MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite samples were prepared by mixing a MWCNT-pre-dispersed

100 liquid epoxy resin with an aliphatic amine curing agent, and the mixture was then drawn down

101 on a Mylar sheet to produce free standing films. These samples were subjected to a series of

102 precisely controlled UV doses up to 1089 MJ/m^2 using the National Institute of Standards and

103 Technology (NIST) SPHERE (Simulated Photodegradation *via* High Energy Radiant Exposure)

104 [34] in a 50 ^{o}C and 75 % relative humidity (RH) environment. Samples prepared identically but

105 without MWCNTs were also fabricated and were similarly exposed.   The UV-irradiated

106 MWCNT epoxy nanocomposites were then analyzed with a suite of methods to investigate the

107 bulk material, its surface chemistry, and the surface and sub-surface structure. The methods will

108   be described in the order of macroscopic analysis (gravimetry), followed by surface analysis

109   techniques (FTIR-ATR, XPS, AFM, and SEM), and then assessments of the nanoscale features

110   of cross-sections using EFTEM. Finally, scratch lithography using AFM was investigated as a

111   novel technique to assess the potential release of MWCNTs from the surface and test the

112   resistance of the surface to scratching at different normal loads.

113   2.1 *Materials*

114   The epoxy polymer was a stoichiometric mixture of a typical diglycidyl ether of

115   bisphenol A epoxy resin (189 equivalent mass) (EPON 828, Resolution Performance Products)

116   and an aliphatic polyetheramine curing agent (73.3 equivalent mass) (Jeffamine T403, Huntsman

117   Corporation). MWCNTs were supplied commercially as a 5 % mass fraction (based on the mass

118   of the epoxy resin) pre-dispersed in the same liquid epoxy resin (Zyvex). Besides the epoxy resin

119   and the MWCNT concentration, other information about this nanofiller pre-dispersed epoxy

120   product, including the MWCNT manufacturer, amount of residual catalyst, additive or

121   surfactant, etc., is not available. To better understand the starting material, the sizes of the

122   MWCNTs were investigated using SEM after extraction from the epoxy resin (see Supplemental

123   Material). The average MWCNT diameter was 23.4 nm $\pm$ 5.8 nm (n=200; uncertainty represents

124   one standard deviation), and the lengths predominantly ranged between 200 nm and 2 μm;

125   challenges associated with accurately obtaining a MWCNT length distribution have been

126   previously described [35]. Micrographs and a histogram of the MWCNT diameters are provided

127   in Figure S1.

128   Free-standing films of unfilled (neat) epoxy and epoxy nanocomposite containing approximately

129   3.5 % mass fraction of MWCNTs (based on mass of solid amine-cured epoxy) were prepared

130   following the steps shown in Figure S2. Accordingly, amine curing agent was added to the neat

131   epoxy resin or thoroughly stirred 5 % MWCNT-containing epoxy resin, and the mixture was

132   stirred for 1 h using a magnetic stirrer. (Note that after adding the amine curing agent, the 5 %

133   mass fraction MWCNT in the neat epoxy resin becomes 3.5 % mass fraction MWCNT in the

134   cured epoxy composite.) After the mixing step, the epoxy/amine and the epoxy/amine/MWCNT

135   mixtures were degassed for 1 h at room temperature and drawn down on a Mylar sheet (a good

136   release paper for epoxy-based products) to produce free standing films with a dry-film thickness

137   between 125 μm and 150 μm. Unfilled and nanocomposite films were cured at ambient

138   conditions (24 °C and 45 % relative humidity) for 4 d, followed by post-curing at 110 °C for 1 h

139   in an air circulating oven. The 4 d ambient cure allowed a gradual increase in viscosity, which

140   facilitated the escape of any residual trapped air that was introduced during mixing and film

141   application. The quality of all composite films was good with no evidence of air bubbles or

142   defects and the air surface was smooth (highly glossy), as shown in the AFM images given in the

143   result section (e.g., Figure S6). All specimens were well cured, as evidenced by no further

144   Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) intensity decrease of the epoxide band at 915

145   cm^{-1}. The glass transition temperature, Tg, of the cured film was 102 ± 2 °C (by dynamic

146   mechanical analysis; uncertainty represents one standard deviation, n = 3). The chemical

147   structures of the epoxy resin, the amine curing agent, and the crosslinked cured epoxy have been

148   previously described [8].

149

150   2.2 *UV Irradiation*

151   Specimens of neat epoxy and nanocomposites having a dimension of 25 mm x 25 mm

152   were exposed to 50 °C/75 % RH condition in a 2 m integrating sphere-based weathering

153   chamber, referred to as the NIST SPHERE [34]. The elevated temperature was used to

154   accelerate the chemical degradation, while the 75 % RH is a typical summer value. This

155   SPHERE UV device utilizes a mercury arc lamp system that produces a collimated and highly

156   uniform UV flux of approximately 480 W/m^2 in the 295 nm to 400 nm wavelength. It can

157   precisely control the relative humidity (RH) and temperature. A table showing the UV dose after

158   exposure in the SPHERE for various durations is provided in Table S1. Dose, in MJ/m^2, is

159   defined as the total energy of UV radiation impinging on the specimen surface at a particular

160   time per unit irradiated area. The highest accelerated UV dose was equivalent to ≈ 4 years in

161   Florida; the NIST SPHERE only supplies radiation from 295 nm to 400 nm and this comparison

162   is for the estimated dosage in Florida (285 MJ/m^2 per year) for the wavelengths between 295 nm

163   and 385 nm [36].   Because the visible and infrared radiation of the UV source had been

164   removed, without external heating, the temperature in this UV chamber is about 27 $^{\circ}$C $\pm$ 2 $^{\circ}$C.

165   Thus, an external heat source was used to increase the temperature to 50 $^{\circ}$C to promote more

166   rapid degradation. Specimens having the air surface facing the UV source, which were mounted

167   on a special sample holder, were removed at specified accumulated doses (i.e., at specified time

168   intervals) for characterization.

169   2.3 *Mass Loss Measurements*

170   Mass loss of both neat epoxy and nanocomposite as a function of exposure to UV

171   radiation were measured. The mass loss was determined with an analytical balance (Mettler

172   Toledo AB265-S, Columbus, OH) having a mass resolution of 10^{-5} g.

173   2.4 *Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy-attenuated total reflection (FTIR-ATR)*

174   Chemical degradation was assessed by FTIR-ATR using a ZnSe prism and at a 45°

175   incident angle. For an ideal prism-sample interaction, the probing depth of the ATR technique is

176   a function of incident angle, radiation wavelength, and refractive indices of the internal reflection

177   element (i.e., prism) and the sample. For the ZnSe prism and 45° incident angle used in this

178 study, the probing depth of ATR technique in the epoxy polymer (refractive index 1.5) in the

179 infrared region of 800 cm^{-1} to 3600 cm^{-1} wavenumber, as calculated by the internal reflection

180 penetration depth equation [37], is between 0.5 μm and 2.5 μm from the surface. All FTIR

181 spectra were the average of 128 scans and recorded at a resolution of 4 cm^{-1} using a spectrometer

182 equipped with a liquid nitrogen-cooled mercury cadmium telluride (MCT) detector (Nexus 670,

183 Thermo Nicolet, Madison, Wisconsin). Dry air was used as the purge gas. The peak height was

184 used to represent the infrared intensity, which is expressed in absorbance, A. All FTIR results

185 were the average of three specimens.

186 2.5 *X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS)*

187 XPS was performed on a Kratos Axis Ultra DLD spectrophotometer (Chestnut Ridge,

188 NY). Sample preparation involved loading all MWCNT epoxy nanocomposites onto a sample

189 bar, with the samples being held down by metal fasteners. All spectra shown in this study were

190 acquired using 150 W (10 mA, 15 kV), monochromatic, Al Kα X-rays with photoelectrons being

191 collected by a hemispherical analyzer at 0 degrees from the surface normal at a pass energy of 20

192 eV. Data collection for each C (1s) region was taken at 0.030 eV steps with a dwell time of 800

193 ms/step for 2 sweeps. When activated, the charge neutralizer operated at 1.86 A and 3.64 V.

194 Lastly, controls were run for both the MWCNTs and the pure epoxy, the latter of which could

195 only be measured with the charge neutralizer due to its insulating properties. However, it is

196 important to note that unless specified, XPS data presented was taken without the charge

197 neutralizer. Spectral analysis was conducted using CasaXPS (CasaXPS LTD, Teignmouth, UK)

198 and Shirley backgrounds were fitted to each C (1s) region. Chemical compositions were not

199 determined in this study due to either charging or inability to separate the asymmetric MWCNT

200   peak from the epoxy components. All neat epoxy and MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite spectra

201   are presented with no energy adjustment.

202   2.6 *Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM)*

203   AFM was performed using a Cypher AFM (Asylum Research/Oxford Instruments, Santa

204   Barbara, CA) for all samples except for the highest UV dose sample (1089 MJ/m^2). Due to the

205   large roughness of this sample, it was imaged using an MFP-3D AFM (Asylum Research/Oxford

206   Instruments, Santa Barabara, CA) which has a larger scan range. All images were acquired in air

207   at room temperature and in tapping mode using Si cantilevers with a spring constant of ≈ 40 N/m

208   and a resonant frequency of ≈ 300 kHz. Image processing was performed using Gwyddion [38]

209   in order to produce the 3D renderings of sample topography, as well as to remove minor streaks

210   and steps in the topography, which are associated with AFM tip contamination.

211   2.7 *Scanning Electron microscopy (SEM)*

212   Surface   and   subsurface   morphologies   of   the   UV   irradiated   MWCNT   epoxy

213   nanocomposites were analyzed by SEM using a Zeiss Supra-55VP Field Emission SEM.

214   Surface analysis was performed using a 5 kV acceleration voltage. Cross sections for subsurface

215   analysis were prepared by freeze fracture. To visualize the MWCNT morphology within the

216   embedded matrix by charge contrast imaging, the cross-sectional analysis was performed at

217   15kV acceleration voltage [39].

218   2.8 *Transmission Electron microscopy (TEM)*

219   Though freeze fracture cross sections are useful for SEM analysis, they are not a true

220   planar section that would allow for nanoscale imaging of the subsurface. For a nanoscale

221   resolution of planar cross sections, TEM samples were prepared using a FEI Helios NanoLab

222 650 Focused Ion Beam Scanning Electron Microscope (FIB SEM) equipped with a

223 micromanipulator (Omniprobe Autoprobe 200.2 micromanipulator, Dallas, TX). The UV

224 irradiated MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite samples were sputter coated with Au using a sputter

225 coater (Cressington 208HR sputter coater, Watford, UK) to prevent charging and also to provide

226 protection against the ion beam damage during the TEM sample preparation process. TEM thin

227 sections were created using an *in situ* lift out method similar to that previously described [40].

228 Briefly, a thin layer (200 nm) of Pt was deposited using the electron beam at 2 kV and 6.4 nA

229 and sample at 0 tilt. One 2-µm layer of Pt was deposited using the ion beam at 30 kV and 0.23

230 nA on the same location. Area surrounding the protective layer was removed using 9.3 nA and

231 2.5 nA ion beam and U shaped undercut was made using 0.23 nA ion beam. The remaining

232 thick coupon was attached to the probe needle and reattached to a grid straddling a v-shaped

233 groove on a TEM grid (Figure S3). Additional 1 µm of Pt was deposited on top of the coupon as

234 well as the side walls of the coupon. Side wall Pt deposition was achieved by rotating the

235 sample stage ± 90 degrees at 0 tilt. These Pt sidewalls provide the necessary stiffening of the

236 thin polymer section. The coupon was thinned to 2 kV electron transparency using 30 kV ion

237 beam and progressively lower beam currents ranging from 0.43 nA to 80 pA and then further

238 cleaned using a 5 kV, 41 pA ion beam.

239   TEM using a FEI Titan™ 80-300 S/TEM equipped with an imaging filter (Gatan Model

240 963 Quantum, Pleasanton, CA) was used to collect bright-field and energy-filtered transmission

241 electron microscopy (EFTEM) data. EFTEM images were collected at 300 kV using a slit of 5

242 eV centered at 18 eV and at 27 eV with 5 s exposures using a CCD (charge-coupled detector)

243 with 2x binning. The 27 eV and 18 eV images were corrected for spatial drift [41] and a ratio of

244 the 27 eV and 18 eV images were performed for contrast enhancement.

245   2.9 *Scratch Lithography*

246   In scratch lithography, lines are patterned on a sample surface by dragging an AFM tip

247   across the surface while maintaining a constant normal load. In this study, a series of increasing

248   normal loads were used to produce several such lines in order to assess the load-dependence of

249   surface damage from the AFM tip. To establish the same regions of interest for AFM and post

250   scratch analysis SEM, Pt markers (2 μm by 8 μm, 0.5 μm thick) were ion beam deposited using a

251   Focused Ion Beam Scanning Electron Microscope (FIB SEM; FEI Helios NanoLab 650,

252   Hillsboro, OR). Scratch lithography was performed using a Cypher AFM. A diamond coated

253   AFM tip (model DCP11, from NT-MDT) was used in order to avoid artifacts associated with tip

254   wear during scratching. The spring constant of the lever was 10.8 N/m ±1 N/m as measured

255   using the thermal spectrum method [42]. According to the manufacturer, the diamond coating is

256   ≈ 100 nm thick, and the radius of curvature is ≈ 100 nm. Scratching was performed in contact

257   mode at a tip speed of 1 μm/s, and at a fixed normal load for each scratched line. A single pass

258   was made at each scratched line. After scratching the sample, the tip was changed to a standard

259   tapping mode tip and the scratched region was then imaged in tapping mode. Post scratch

260   lithography SEM analysis was performed using a 5 kV acceleration voltage also using the FEI

261   Helios NanoLab 650 Focused Ion Beam Scanning Electron Microscope (FIB SEM).

262   **3. Results and Discussion**

263   3.1 *Effects of UV Irradiation on Bulk Material*

264   The mass loss of neat epoxy and 3.5 % MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite samples as a

265   function of UV dose in the NIST SPHERE is displayed in Figure 1. Except for a small increase

266   in mass at very early exposure, the mass loss in both materials increased with increasing UV

267   dose. The early mass increase was probably due to moisture uptake when the samples were

268   transferred from the 45 % RH ambient condition to the 75 % RH of the exposure chamber. At

269   this early stage, the mass gained by the moisture uptake was greater than the mass loss caused by

270   the nanocomposite degradation; thus, a net mass increase was observed. Figure 1 shows that both

271   the amount and rate of mass loss for the MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite were lower than those

272   for the neat epoxy. At a dosage of 1089 MJ/m^2, the mass loss of the neat epoxy was more than

273   twice that of the MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite, approximately 2.3 % and 1 %, respectively.

274   These results are consistent with a previous report for a 0.72 % MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite

275   [20]. The lower rate of mass loss of the nanocomposite is attributed to the ability of MWCNTs

276   to retard the degradation of the epoxy matrix (i.e., photostabilization), as will be later

277   demonstrated by the FTIR results (see Figures 2 and 3).

278   3.2 *Effects of UV Irradiation on Nanocomposite Surface Chemistry*

279   FTIR-ATR was used to follow the chemical degradation of neat epoxy and 3.5 % MWCNT

280   epoxy nanocomposites (see Figures 2 and S4). Any chemical changes observed for neat epoxy

281   and MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite (assuming that the refractive index of the surface layer of

282   the 3.5 % MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite is similar to that of the neat epoxy) are an average of

283   the material layer within 2.5 μm from the surface. The chemical degradation by UV irradiation of

284   polymers and their nanocomposites can be conveniently studied by following the intensity

285   changes of various FTIR bands as a function of UV dose or exposure time. In this study, we

286   utilized the FTIR difference spectroscopy technique, in which an increase or a decrease of a

287   particular functional group can be easily discerned and quantified. Figure 2 displays difference

288   spectra (spectra taken at various UV doses minus the spectrum of the sample before irradiation)

289   as a function of UV dose for neat epoxy (Figure 2A) and 3.5 % MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite

290   (Figure 2B). As the UV dose increased, the intensity of various bands of the epoxy structure

291   decreased, including the bands at 1508 cm^{-1} (benzene ring) and at 1245 cm^{-1} (C-O), while new

292   bands appeared in the 1620 cm^{-1} to 1740 cm^{-1} region due to the formation of C=C and various

293   carbonyl groups (C=O) such as aldehydes and ketones. These changes are due to

294   photodegradation of amine-cured epoxy by UV radiation in the 295 nm to 400 nm wavelength,

295   leading to extensive scission of the main chains of the epoxy [43-46]. Although amine-cured

296   epoxy polymers are used extensively for a variety of exterior applications, the presence of UV

297   absorbing aromatic rings and electron-donor nitrogen in the chemical structure makes this epoxy-

298   based material susceptible to UV attack. Details of the photodegradation mechanisms of amine-

299   cured epoxies are beyond the scope of the present study but can be found in the above references.

300   The strongest absorption band of the epoxy chemical structure at 1508 cm^{-1} and the

301   newly-formed band at 1726 cm^{-1} (attributed to aldehyde C=O stretching) were employed to

302   follow the degradation and oxidation, respectively, of neat epoxy and 3.5 % MWCNT epoxy

303   nanocomposite samples as a function of UV dose. These results are depicted in Figure 3. Note

304   that, although the highest exposed UV dose was 1089 MJ/m^2, the FTIR intensity change vs. dose

305   curves were plotted only up to 425 MJ/m^2. This is because specimens exposed beyond this UV

306   dose became very rough, which resulted in substantial increases in the standard deviations of

307   both the bands of interest and the reference band, rendering the FTIR-ATR data unreliable. The

308   intensity changes have been normalized to the least-changed band at 1380 cm^{-1} (i.e., adjusting so

309   that the intensity of the 1380 cm^{-1} band (due to the gem-dimethyl group) is the same before and

310   after exposure) to minimize the effect of surface morphological changes on the ATR probe-

311   sample contact. It should be mentioned that, in the ATR technique, the intensity is a direct

312   function of the contact area between the probe and the sample. However, the topography of a

313   polymer surface subjected to UV radiation tends to undergo inhomogeneous changes [47].

314   Therefore, the FTIR-ATR spectra taken from degraded samples must be normalized to an

315   internal standard or to a least-changed band to compensate for surface morphological changes.

316   The small error bars shown in Figure 3 indicate good reproducibility of the FTIR degradation

317   data for both neat epoxy and MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite.

318   As seen in Figure 3, both neat epoxy and 3.5 % MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite samples

319   underwent rapid chemical degradation under this UV/RH/T environment. The rates of intensity

320   change with UV exposure between zero and 166 MJ/m^2 dose for the 1508 cm^{-1} (degradation)

321   and 1726 cm^{-1} (oxidation) bands were similar for both materials. However, the degree of

322   degradation and oxidation of the two materials differed thereafter. For the MWCNT epoxy

323   nanocomposite, these changes reached a plateau at approximately 166 MJ/m^2 dose, but they

324   continued to advance until 270 MJ/m^2 for the neat epoxy. A slight intensity decrease of the band

325   at 1726 cm^{-1} at the highest dose, which is also seen in the spectra of Figure 2, is probably due to

326   the substantial accumulation of MWCNTs on the sample surface (evidenced by SEM as

327   presented in a later section). This would decrease the ATR probing depth in the oxidized epoxy

328   layer. The higher resistance to degradation of the MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite than that of

329   the neat epoxy observed in Figure 3 suggests that MWCNTs photostabilize the degradation of

330   epoxy, similar to the results reported previously for 0.72 % MWCNT epoxy composite exposed

331   to UV radiation [20] and for poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA) matrix containing various

332   amounts of MWCNT subjected to high-energy radiation [48]. The photostabilization of

333   polymers due to MWCNTs has been explained as due to the electron ring of the CNT network,

334   which can disperse and filter the incident energy, and the strong interaction between free

335   radicals (generated during irradiation) and CNTs [48]. The reversed trend of the spectrum at

336   425 MJ/m^2 observed in Figure 2B and 3B was probably due to both the rough surface

337   topography caused by the photodegradation and the MWCNT layer accumulated on the surface

338   (as shown later by SEM), which decreased the sample - ATR probe contact (hence intensity) and

339   the band intensity of the epoxy matrix, respectively.

340   XPS spectra of the MWCNT epoxy nanocomposites at increasing doses of UV irradiation

341   are presented in Figure 4A for the C (1s) region. Prior to UV irradiation (0 dose), the surface

342   composition of the C (1s) region consisted of a broad, asymmetric peak located between 295 eV

343   and 296 eV. This C (1s) feature is poorly resolved and shifted more than 10 eV towards higher

344   binding energies, as compared to previous composite studies [7], due to the highly insulating

345   nature of the epoxy. The epoxy control (Figure 4C, right) at 0 dose exhibited the same insulating

346   properties, requiring the application of a charge neutralizer to properly resolve the spectra,

347   whereas the MWCNT control (Figure 4C, left) was sufficiently conductive and did not require a

348   charge neutralizer. When applying the neutralizer to the MWCNT epoxy nanocomposites (See

349   Figure S5, 0 dose), a similar three component C (1s) region was observed that was comparable to

350   the epoxy control. These observations of the pristine nanocomposites suggest that the initial

351   surface was composed predominantly of epoxy.

352   As the UV dose increased up to 166 MJ/m^2, the most obvious change recorded by the

353   XPS was a shift in the MWCNT nanocomposite's epoxy peak position from $\approx$ 295 eV to $\approx$ 289

354   eV (Figure 4A). This systematic shift of the C (1s) peak position towards binding energies

355   typical of a carbon/nitrogen/oxygen containing polymer surface suggests that the surface of the

356   MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite was becoming more conductive. Additionally, the C (1s) peak

357   at low doses also appeared to gain some resolution, exhibited by a shoulder towards higher

358   binding energies. This may be a result of different chemical features, such as carbon bound to

359   oxygen, becoming more evident due to reduced charging.

360   The presence of a new peak at ≈ 284.5 eV was the second change, as observed at a dose

361   of 258 MJ/m^2 (Figure 4A). Interestingly, if one focuses in around 284.5 eV, the new

362   contribution can be viewed at a dose as low as 92.3 MJ/m^2 and is definitely observed at 166

363   MJ/m^2 (See Figure 4B). This peak continued to grow to a dose of 775 MJ/m^2 at which point the

364   spectrum was quite comparable with the MWCNT control samples (See Figure 4C, left), with the

365   exception of a slightly more intense tail to higher binding energies. This suggests that the peak's

366   presence is largely representative of the highly conductive MWCNT component dominating the

367   surface of the UV exposed nanocomposite sample. The peak intensity at 284.5 eV subsided at

368   1090 MJ/m^2 and broadened, a phenomenon that may be attributed to either of the following: A)

369   UV-induced damage to the surface of the CNT's as previously observed [49, 50]; or B) residual

370   epoxy now re-exposed. Both of these choices would explain the observed transformation in the

371   spectra but neither can be eliminated at this time. Lastly, the 'charged' epoxy peak that was

372   around 289 eV drifted slowly to lower binding energies, becoming indistinguishable from the

373   MWCNT tail and is perhaps the reason for a higher photoelectron count in the higher binding

374   energy tail. Additionally, this may be the reason why the MWCNT peak changed slightly at

375   1090 MJ/m^2 where the oxidized epoxy contributions are sufficiently low enough to no longer

376   charge and become part of the overall C (1s) spectra.

377   Qualitatively, Figure 4 demonstrates that the surface of the MWCNT epoxy

378   nanocomposite is becoming dominated by the presence of MWCNTs with increasing UV dose in

379   two ways. First, the most obvious change is of the development of the characteristic asymmetric

380   peak representative of MWCNTs graphene-like carbon at 284.5 eV. Since XPS is surface

381   sensitive (depth of analysis < 10 nm) and the development of the MWCNT spectral feature is

382   observed with and without the charge neutralizer at long UV exposures, this suggests that the

383   surface concentration of MWCNTs was increasing.   The benefit of *not* using the charge

384   neutralizer is the ability to see the increase in the surface concentration of MWCNTs at much

385   lower UV doses (Compare Figure 4 and Figure S5).

386   Secondly, the shift of the 'charged' epoxy peak to lower binding energies and subsequently

387   diminishing in its presence suggests that the insulating properties of MWCNT epoxy

388   nanocomposite are subsiding, likely due to the photo-oxidation of epoxy based material resulting

389   in a corresponding increase in the surface concentration of MWCNTs. This photo-oxidative

390   mechanism has been previously observed in other epoxy-based nanocomposites [7, 8].   Further

391   evidence of an oxidation process can be observed in the charge neutralized XP spectra for the

392   MWCNT epoxy nanocomposites at low doses (See Figure S5) and the UV exposed epoxy

393   control (Figure 4C, right top) by the increase in highly oxidized C (denoted as COO prior). The

394   photo-oxidative removal of the epoxy in the MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite samples is

395   consistent with the decrease of the benzene ring absorbance at 1508 cm-1 and the increase in the

396   aldehyde stretch at C=O as measured by ATR-FTIR (Figure 3) as well as the mass loss data

397   (Figure 1).

398   3.3 *Effects of UV Irradiation on Nanocomposite Structure*

399   AFM   images of the nanocomposites show that the exposure of MWCNTs on the

400   nanocomposite surface increased with UV dose (Figure 5 A, B, and C). The exposed MWCNTs

401   show up in these AFM images as nanometer-scale surface roughness, while the unexposed

402   surface is comparatively smooth (Figure S6A). A higher resolution AFM image depicting how

403   the individual MWCNTs contribute to the nanometer-scale surface roughness is shown in Figure

404   S7, while a comparison of the topography for neat epoxy and nanocomposite samples is shown

405   in Figure S6. The surface of the 0 dose sample was nearly free of exposed MWCNTs (Figure

406   S6A), while the surface of the highest UV exposed sample (1089 MJ/m^2) was almost completely

407   covered by exposed MWCNTs (Figure 5C).   The regions of exposed MWCNTs were

408   topographically raised with respect to those areas that did not have exposed MWCNTs, with this

409   height difference increased with UV dose. The initial surface started with sub-micron roughness

410   (Figure S6A) and evolved to a micrometer-scale topography of "hills and valleys", where the

411   highest and lowest features span a range of $\approx$ 8 μm (Figure 5C).   We attribute the increasing

412   height difference to screening of the epoxy degradation by the exposed MWCNTs. That is, once

413   MWCNTs were exposed on the surface of the epoxy, those areas were at least partially protected

414   from further epoxy degradation and surface mass loss. This is consistent with the results of

415   Figures 1 and 3.

416   The surface morphology changes seen by AFM are also reflected in the SEM images

417   (Figure 5D, 5E, and 5F). At a UV exposure of 166 MJ/m^2, the nanocomposite sample showed a

418   relatively flat surface with pitting, undulation, and some areas of the subsurface MWCNT

419   network beginning to become exposed (Fig. 5D).   With increasing UV dose (425 MJ/m^2),

420   surface roughness of the MWCNT nanocomposite increased and bundles of MWCNTs were

421   clearly visible on the surface as shown in Figure 5E (top right corner), forming rough, uneven

422   MWCNT hills and relatively smooth epoxy rich valleys. At 1089 MJ/m^2 of UV dose, the epoxy

423   rich valleys became depleted leaving a surface of exposed undulating bundled MWCNTs (Figure

424   5F).   The formation of an uneven distribution of MWCNT hills and valleys comes from the

425   uneven sub-surface distribution of MWCNTs, as observed in charge contrast cross section SEM

426   images (Figure S8) of the pristine nanocomposite.

427   Using EFTEM in the low-loss region on cross-sections, imaging can be performed where

428   contrast between crystalline (i.e., MWCNTs) and amorphous (i.e., epoxy) carbonaceous phases

429   can be distinguished [51]. The contrast can be further enhanced by two-window ratio imaging,

430   where sample thickness artifacts can be normalized as long as the sample is not thick enough to

431   have plural scattering [52]. The bright-field TEM images are shown in Figure S9 parts A, B, and

432   C, while the EFTEM images used to obtain the EFTEM ratio images are shown in Figure S9

433   parts D through I. At a UV dose of 166 MJ/m^2, EFTEM of the cross sections showed MWCNTs

434   near the surface, which is still relatively flat (Figure 5G), a result in agreement with the AFM

435   and SEM images obtained for nancomposite samples irradiated with this UV dose (Figure 5 A

436   and D). Upon further UV irradiation (425 MJ/m^2), EFTEM of the cross sections revealed a

437   region of compressed MWCNTs at the surface (Figure 5H). After 1089 MJ/m^2 of UV exposure,

438   EFTEM of the cross sections showed that the near-surface layer consisted primarily of a dense

439   network of MWCNTs. Though the MWCNTs become highly exposed on the surface, the

440   entanglement of MWCNTs in a network that has "roots" in the epoxy matrix may prevent the

441   MWCNTs from readily being released from the surface.

442   3.4 *Potential for MWCNT Release Assessed Using Scratch Lithography*

443   In order to assess the attachment of the exposed nanotube layer to the bulk

444   nanocomposite, we employed an AFM-based scratch test. Although the results of such a test are

445   not directly comparable to tests performed using macroscopic abrasion tools, such as metal rakes

446   or sanding wheels [17, 21, 53, 54], they can be used to assess whether the stress required to

447   permanently deform the epoxy matrix is larger or smaller than the stress required to permanently

448   deform the exposed nanotube layer. We expect that if the nanotube layer is more resistant to

449   scratching than the matrix, then it is unlikely to be readily released from the surface.

450   AFM-based scratch lithography was used to assess the potential release of MWCNTs

451 using the nanocomposite sample that had been exposed to a UV dose of 425 MJ/m^2. After the

452 scratches were made on the surface, the surface damage was assessed using tapping mode AFM

453 (Figure 6 A and B) and SEM (Figure 6 C and D). In Figure 6A, normal loads greater than 5 µN

454 caused visible scratches in the MWCNT-covered region. In contrast, scratches were visible in

455 the epoxy rich region (Figure 6 B) at loads as low as 0.5 µN. These results suggest that the

456 region covered by MWCNTs was substantially more resistant to mechanical force compared to

457 the epoxy region. However, the rough surface associated with the exposed MWCNTs region

458 may have obscured small changes that would have been visible on the relatively smooth epoxy

459 surface. In order to detect any such small changes to the MWCNT region, SEM was also

460 performed on the post scratch lithography regions. At normal forces of 5 µN and 10 µN, the

461 SEM images revealed multiple breaks in the MWCNTs in the scratch path (shown in Figure 6 C

462 and D). In the zoomed-in region (Figure 6 D) of the 2.5 µN scratch path, no observable

463 alteration in MWCNTs was evident. However, along the 1 µN path, discontinuities indicative of

464 possible breaks in MWCNTs were detected. For normal loads smaller than 1 µN, no alterations

465 in the MWCNTs along the scratch path were observed. While loads of 5 µN and 10 µN caused

466 clear scratch lines in the MWCNT region based on the AFM data, SEM images showed

467 relatively few break discontinuities in the MWCNTs. These loadings may have permanently

468 compressed the MWCNTs into the surface, rather than breaking them or releasing them from the

469 surface. In summary, both AFM and SEM measurements indicated that near the edge of the

470 exposed MWCNT regions, the MWCNT covered regions were more mechanically resistant to

471 scratching than the epoxy rich region.

472   The methods described in this manuscript can be used to assess different aspects of the

473   transformations that can occur during UV irradiation of polymer CNT composites. Gravimetric

474   measurements revealed changes to the bulk sample, while FTIR provided detailed chemical

475   alterations of the polymer matrix. However, neither of these measurements provided information

476   about the fate of MWCNTs. Conversely, microscopic (SEM, TEM, and AFM) and XPS

477   measurements all revealed increasing MWCNT concentrations at the sample surface with higher

478   UV doses. Importantly, XPS provided chemical confirmation on the presence of MWCNTs on

479   the sample surface, while SEM and AFM analyses showed the presence of tube shaped structures

480   that appeared to be MWCNTs but lacked definitive identification. The combination of XPS with

481   SEM or AFM can provide identification of MWCNTs, their relative proximity, to the surface and

482   information about the sample's surface topography. EFTEM analysis revealed that MWCNTs

483   can be distinguished from the polymer background using the unique MWCNT chemical

484   configuration, and confirmed the surface accumulation of MWCNTs. However, this technique

485   requires significant user expertise and thus is unlikely to be used for routine analysis. Finally,

486   scratch lithography has demonstrated the capability to assess the potential release of surface

487   accumulated MWCNTs. Which set of techniques are most relevant for a particular investigation

488   depends on what information is needed (potential for MWCNT release, information about the

489   bulk sample, presence of MWCNTs on sample surface, etc.) and instrument availability.

490

491   **4. Conclusions**

492   By using a comprehensive suite of analytical methods we have identified two primary

493   trends for MWCNT polymer composites exposed to UV radiation: a photostabilization effect

494   from the presence of the MWCNT nanofiller and increasing accumulation of a dense, entangled

495 MWCNT layer on the surface of the nanocomposite samples with increasing UV dose. The

496 increasing surface coverage by MWCNTs was strongly supported by both spectroscopic and

497 microscopic techniques showing the convergence of the different methods. The results obtained

498 by these methods show that the epoxy-rich surface layer of the nanocomposite is removed

499 relatively rapidly, leaving a surface covered almost completely with MWCNTs.

500   The methods described in this manuscript, such as the innovative XPS method to identify

501 MWCNTs on the surface of nanocomposite samples, are generally applicable for studies on

502 related topics such as characterization of nanocomposites during manufacturing and assessment

503 of MWCNT distribution in biological organisms. However, the scratch lithography results shown

504 here and the lack of identifiable broken MWCNTs suggest that MWCNTs will not be readily

505 released from the polymer nanocomposite, in agreement with most earlier studies [11-14, 16].

506 Additional research is needed to evaluate the conditions required (abrasion, hail, high wind, etc.)

507 for MWCNT release from the MWCNT accumulated on the surface, to investigate the impact of

508 UV irradiation using a broader range of conditions (i.e., different MWCNT loadings, polymers,

509 MWCNT functionalization, and environmental stresses), and to assess the potential human

510 health and ecological impacts of any released MWCNTs. Information on the formation and

511 accumulation of a dense, entangled MWCNT layer on the nanocomposite surface after exposure

512 to solar-like UV wavelengths is useful for assessing and mitigating the potential risks of

513 MWCNT epoxy nanocomposites during their life cycles.

514

518 recommendation or endorsement by the National Institute of Standards and Technology, nor

519 does it imply that it is necessarily the best available for the purpose.

524 **Supplementary Data**

525 Supporting information FTIR-ATR spectra, stack plot of XPS data from charge neutralized C

526 (1s) region, AFM image of unexposed MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite sample, SEM image of

527 freeze-fracture prepared cross-section of unexposed MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite sample, low

528 and high resolution AFM image comparisons, TEM and EFTEM images of MWCNT epoxy

529 nanocomposite samples after UR irradiation, SEM micrographs for size distribution of

530 MWCNTs used in the epoxy nanocomposites, figure describing preparation of epoxy

531 nanocomposite samples, and SEM images showing details for FIB sample preparation is

532 available in the online version of this article

533
534 **References**

535 [1] Baur, J.; Silverman, E., Challenges and opportunities in multifunctional nanocomposite
536 structures for aerospace applications. *MRS Bull.* **2007,** *32*, (4), 328-334.
537 [2] Lee, J.; Mahendra, S.; Alvarez, P. J. J., Nanomaterials in the construction industry: A review
538 of their applications and environmental health and safety considerations. *ACS Nano* **2010,** *4*, (7),
539 3580-3590.
540 [3] Nowack, B.; David, R. M.; Fissan, H.; Morris, H.; Shatkin, J. A.; Stintz, M., et al., Potential
541 release scenarios for carbon nanotubes used in composites. *Environ. Intl.* **2013,** *59*, (0), 1-11.
542 [4] Breuer, O.; Sundararaj, U., Big returns from small fibers: A review of polymer/carbon
543 nanotube composites. *Polym. Comp.* **2004,** *25*, (6), 630-645.
544 [5] Coleman, J. N.; Khan, U.; Blau, W. J.; Gun'ko, Y. K., Small but strong: A review of the
545 mechanical properties of carbon nanotube-polymer composites. *Carbon* **2006,** *44*, (9), 1624-
546 1652.

547   [6] Petersen, E. J.; Zhang, L. W.; Mattison, N. T.; O'Carroll, D. M.; Whelton, A. J.; Uddin, N., et
548   al., Potential release pathways, environmental fate, and ecological risks of carbon nanotubes.
549   *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2011,** *45*, (23), 9837-9856.
550   [7] Gorham, J. M.; Nguyen, T.; Bernard, C.; Stanley, D.; Holbrook, R. D., Photo-induced surface
551   transformations of silica nanocomposites. *Surf. Interface Anal.* **2012,** *44*, (13), 1572-1581.
552   [8] Nguyen, T.; Pellegrin, B.; Bernard, C.; Rabb, S.; Stuztman, P.; Gorham, J. M., et al.,
553   Characterization of Surface Accumulation and Release of Nanosilica During Irradiation of
554   Polymer Nanocomposites by Ultraviolet Light. *J. Nanosci. Nanotechnol.* **2012,** *12*, (8), 6202-
555   6215.
556   [9] Gottschalk, F.; Nowack, B., The release of engineered nanomaterials to the environment. *J.*
557   *Environ. Monit.* **2011,** *13*, (5), 1145-1155.
558   [10] Asmatulu, R.; Mahmud, G. A.; Hille, C.; Misak, H. E., Effects of UV degradation on
559   surface hydrophobicity, crack, and thickness of MWCNT-based nanocomposite coatings.
560   *Progress in Organic Coatings* **2011,** *72*, (3), 553-561.
561   [11] Bello, D.; Wardle, B. L.; Yamamoto, N.; deVilloria, R. G.; Garcia, E. J.; Hart, A. J., et al.,
562   Exposure to nanoscale particles and fibers during machining of hybrid advanced composites
563   containing carbon nanotubes. *J. Nano. Res.* **2009,** *11*, (1), 231-249.
564   [12] Bello, D.; Wardle, B. L.; Zhang, J.; Yamamoto, N.; Santeufemio, C.; Hallock, M., et al.,
565   Characterization of Exposures To Nanoscale Particles and Fibers During Solid Core Drilling of
566   Hybrid Carbon Nanotube Advanced Composites. *Int. J. Occ. Saf. Environ. Health* **2010,** *16*, (4),
567   434-450.
568   [13] Cena, L. G.; Peters, T. M., Characterization and control of airborne particles emitted during
569   production of epoxy/carbon nanotube nanocomposites. *J. Occ. Environ. Hyg.* **2011,** *8*, (2), 86-92.
570   [14] Wohlleben, W.; Brill, S.; Meier, M. W.; Mertler, M.; Cox, G.; Hirth, S., et al., On the
571   Lifecycle of Nanocomposites: Comparing Released Fragments and their In-Vivo Hazards from
572   Three Release Mechanisms and Four Nanocomposites. *Small* **2011,** *7*, (16), 2384-2395.
573   [15] Huang, G. N.; Park, J. H.; Cena, L. G.; Shelton, B. L.; Peters, T. M., Evaluation of airborne
574   particle emissions from commercial products containing carbon nanotubes. *J. Nano. Res.* **2012,**
575   *14*, (11).
576   [16] Wohlleben, W.; Meier, M. W.; Vogel, S.; Landsiedel, R.; Cox, G.; Hirth, S., et al., Elastic
577   CNT–polyurethane nanocomposite: synthesis, performance and assessment of fragments
578   released during use. *Nanoscale* **2013,** *5*, (1), 369-380.
579   [17] Schlagenhauf, L.; Chu, B. T. T.; Buha, J.; Nuesch, F.; Wang, J., Release of Carbon
580   Nanotubes from an Epoxy-Based Nanocomposite during an Abrasion Process. *Environ. Sci.*
581   *Technol.* **2012,** *46*, (13), 7366-7372.
582   [18] Armentano, I.; Dottori, M.; Puglia, D.; Kenny, J. M., Effects of carbon nanotubes (CNTs)
583   on the processing and in-vitro degradation of poly(DL-lactide-co-glycolide)/CNT films. *J.*
584   *Mater. Sci.: Mater. Med.* **2008,** *19*, (6), 2377-2387.
585   [19] van der Zande, M.; Sitharaman, B.; Walboomers, X. F.; Tran, L.; Ananta, J. S.; Veltien, A.,
586   et al., In vivo magnetic resonance imaging of the distribution pattern of gadonanotubes released
587   from a degrading poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) scaffold. *Tiss. Eng. C* **2011,** *17*, (1), 19-26.
588   [20] Nguyen, T.; Pelligrin, B.; Bernard, C.; Gu, X.; Gorham, J. M.; Stutzman, P., et al., Fate of
589   nanoparticles during life cycle of polymer nanocomposites. *J. Phys. Conf. Ser.* **2011,** *304*,
590   012060.

591 [21] Hirth, S.; Cena, L.; Cox, G.; Tomović, Ž.; Peters, T.; Wohlleben, W., Scenarios and
592 methods that induce protruding or released CNTs after degradation of nanocomposite materials.
593 *J. Nano. Res.* **2013,** *15*, (4), 1-15.
594 [22] Petersen, E. J.; Henry, T. B., Methodological considerations for testing the ecotoxicity of
595 carbon nanotubes and fullerenes: Review. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem.* **2012,** *31*, (1), 60-72.
596 [23] Aschberger, K.; Johnston, H. J.; Stone, V.; Aitken, R. J.; Hankin, S. M.; Peters, S. A. K., et
597 al., Review of carbon nanotubes toxicity and exposure-Appraisal of human health risk
598 assessment based on open literature. *Crit. Rev. Toxicol.* **2010,** *40*, (9), 759-790.
599 [24] National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) *Current Intelligence*
600 *Bulletin 65: Occupational Exposure to Carbon Nanotubes and Nanofibers*; 2013; p 156.
601 [25] Petersen, E. J.; Akkanen, J.; Kukkonen, J. V. K.; Weber, W. J., Jr., Biological uptake and
602 depuration of carbon nanotubes by *Daphnia magna*. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2009,** *43*, (8), 2969-
603 2975.
604 [26] Petersen, E. J.; Pinto, R. A.; Mai, D. J.; Landrum, P. F.; Weber, W. J., Jr., Influence of
605 polyethyleneimine graftings of multi-walled carbon nanotubes on their accumulation and
606 elimination by and toxicity to *Daphnia magna*. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2011,** *45*, (3), 1133-1138.
607 [27] Petersen, E. J.; Huang, Q. G.; Weber, W. J., Jr., Relevance of octanol-water distribution
608 measurements to the potential ecological uptake of multi-walled carbon nanotubes. *Environ.*
609 *Toxicol. Chem.* **2010,** *29*, (5), 1106-1112.
610 [28] Petersen, E. J.; Pinto, R. A.; Zhang, L.; Huang, Q. G.; Landrum, P. F.; Weber, W. J., Effects
611 of polyethyleneimine-mediated functionalization of multi-walled carbon nanotubes on
612 earthworm bioaccumulation and sorption by soils. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2011,** *45*, (8), 3718–
613 3724.
614 [29] Ferguson, P. L.; Chandler, G. T.; Templeton, R. C.; Demarco, A.; Scrivens, W. A.;
615 Englehart, B. A., Influence of sediment-amendment with single-walled carbon nanotubes and
616 diesel soot on bioaccumulation of hydrophobic organic contaminants by benthic invertebrates.
617 *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2008,** *42*, (10), 3879-3885.
618 [30] Petersen, E. J.; Huang, Q. G.; Weber, W. J., Jr., Bioaccumulation of radio-labeled carbon
619 nanotubes by *Eisenia foetida*. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2008,** *42*, (8), 3090-3095.
620 [31] Petersen, E. J.; Huang, Q. G.; Weber, W. J., Jr., Ecological uptake and depuration of carbon
621 nanotubes by *Lumbriculus variegatus*. *Environ. Health Perspect.* **2008,** *116*, (4), 496-500.
622 [32] Petersen, E. J.; Nelson, B. C., Mechanisms and measurements of nanomaterial-induced
623 oxidative damage to DNA. *Anal. Bioanal. Chem.* **2010,** *398*, 613-650.
624 [33] Kamal, M.; Huang, B., Natural and Artificial Weathering of Polymers. In *Handbook of*
625 *Polymer Degradation*, Hamid, S.; Amin, M.; Maadhah, A., Eds. Marcel Dekker: New York,
626 1992; pp 127-178.
627 [34] Chin, J.; Byrd, E.; Embree, N.; Garver, J.; Dickens, B.; Finn, T., et al., Accelerated UV
628 weathering device based on integrating sphere technology. *Rev. Sci. Instrum.* **2004,** *75*, (11),
629 4951-4959.
630 [35] O'Carroll, D. M.; Liu, X.; Mattison, N. T.; Petersen, E. J., Impact of diameter on carbon
631 nanotube transport in sand. *J. Coll. Interf. Sci.* **2013,** *390*, 96-104.
632 [36] Robinson, J.; Linder, A.; Gemmel, A.; Poulsen, K. V.; Burkhard, H.; Högström, P., et al. In
633 *Comparison of standard UV test methods for the ageing of cables*, 60th IWCS Conference,
634 Charlotte, NC, 2011.
635 [37] Harrick, N. J., *Internal reflection spectroscopy*. 2nd ed.; Harrick Scientific Corporation:
636 Ossining, NY, 1979.

[38] Nečas, D.; Klapetek, P., Gwyddion: an open-source software for SPM data analysis. *Central Eur. J. Phys.* **2012,** *10*, (1), 181-188.

[39] Loos, J.; Alexeev, A.; Grossiord, N.; Koning, C. E.; Regev, O., Visualization of single-wall carbon nanotube (SWNT) networks in conductive polystyrene nanocomposites by charge contrast imaging. *Ultramicroscopy* **2005,** *104*, (2), 160-167.

[40] Mayer, J.; Giannuzzi, L. A.; Kamino, T.; Michael, J., TEM sample preparation and FIB-induced damage. *MRS Bull.* **2007,** *32*, (5), 400-407.

[41] Schaffer, B.; Grogger, W.; Kothleitner, G., Automated spatial drift correction for EFTEM image series. *Ultramicroscopy* **2004,** *102*, (1), 27-36.

[42] Walters, D. A.; Cleveland, J. P.; Thomson, N. H.; Hansma, P. K.; Wendman, M. A.; Gurley, G., et al., Short cantilevers for atomic force microscopy. *Rev. Sci. Instrum.* **1996,** *67*, (10), 3583-3590.

[43] Rabek, J. F., *Polymer Photodegradation: Mechanism and Experimental Methods*, Chapman & Hall: NY, 1995; pp 185-216.

[44] Bellenger, V.; Verdu, J., Oxidative skeleton breaking in epoxy-amine networks. *J. Appl. Polym. Sci.* **1985,** *30*, (1), 363-374.

[45] Rivaton, A.; Moreau, L.; Gardette, J. L., Photo-oxidation of phenoxy resins at long and short wavelengths - II. Mechanisms of formation of photoproducts. *Polym. Degrad. Stab.* **1997,** *58*, (3), 333-339.

[46] Mailhot, N.; Morlat-Theias, S.; Ouahioune, M.; Gardette, J. L., Study of the degradation of an epoxy/amine resin, 1 photo- and thermo-chemical mechanisms. *Macromol. Chem. Phys.* **2005,** *206*, (5), 575-584.

[47] Nguyen, T.; Gu, X.; Vanlandingham, M.; Byrd, E.; Ryntz, R.; Martin, J. W., Degradation modes of crosslinked coatings exposed to photolytic environment. *J. Coat. Technol. Res.* **2013,** *10*, (1), 1-14.

[48] Najafi, E.; Shin, K., Radiation resistant polymer-carbon nanotube nanocomposite thin films. *Colloids Surf., A* **2005,** *257-58*, 333-337.

[49] Parekh, B.; Debies, T.; Knight, P.; Santhanam, K. S. V.; Takacs, G. A., Surface functionalization of multiwalled carbon nanotubes with UV and vacuum UV photo-oxidation. *J. Adhes. Sci. Technol.* **2006,** *20*, (16), 1833-1846.

[50] Simmons, J. M.; Nichols, B. M.; Baker, S. E.; Marcus, M. S.; Castellini, O. M.; Lee, C. S., et al., Effect of ozone oxidation on single-walled carbon nanotubes. *J. Phys. Chem. B* **2006,** *110*, (14), 7113-7118.

[51] Daniels, H. R.; Brydson, R.; Brown, A.; Rand, B., Quantitative valence plasmon mapping in the TEM: viewing physical properties at the nanoscale. *Ultramicroscopy* **2003,** *96*, (3-4), 547-558.

[52] Gass, M. H.; Koziol, K. K. K.; Windle, A. H.; Midgley, P. A., Four-dimensional spectral tomography of carbonaceous nanocomposites. *Nano Lett.* **2006,** *6*, (3), 376-379.

[53] Kuhlbusch, T. A.; Asbach, C.; Fissan, H.; Gohler, D.; Stintz, M., Nanoparticle exposure at nanotechnology workplaces: a review. *Part. Fibre Toxicol.* **2011,** *8*, 22.

[54] Golanski, L.; Guiot, A.; Pras, M.; Malarde, M.; Tardif, F., Release-ability of nano fillers from different nanomaterials (toward the acceptability of nanoproduct). *J. Nano. Res.* **2012,** *14*, (7).
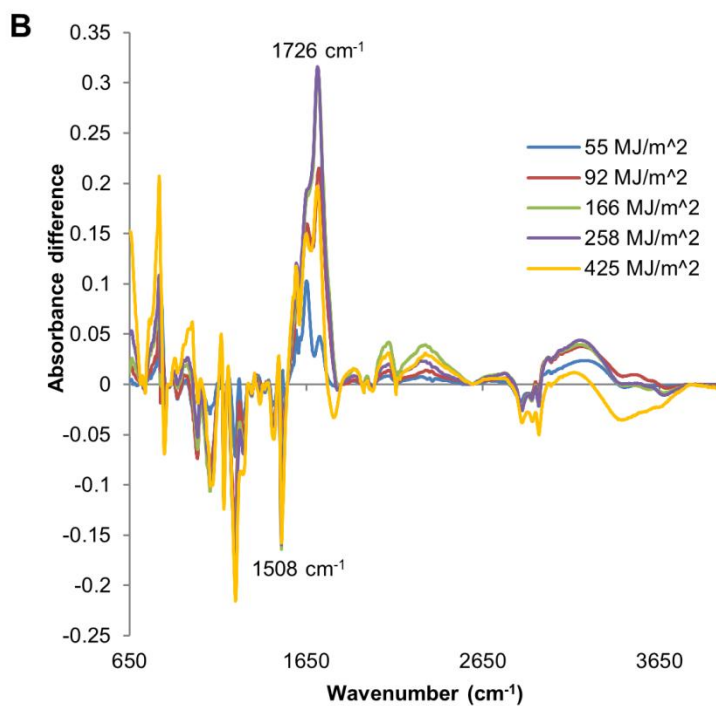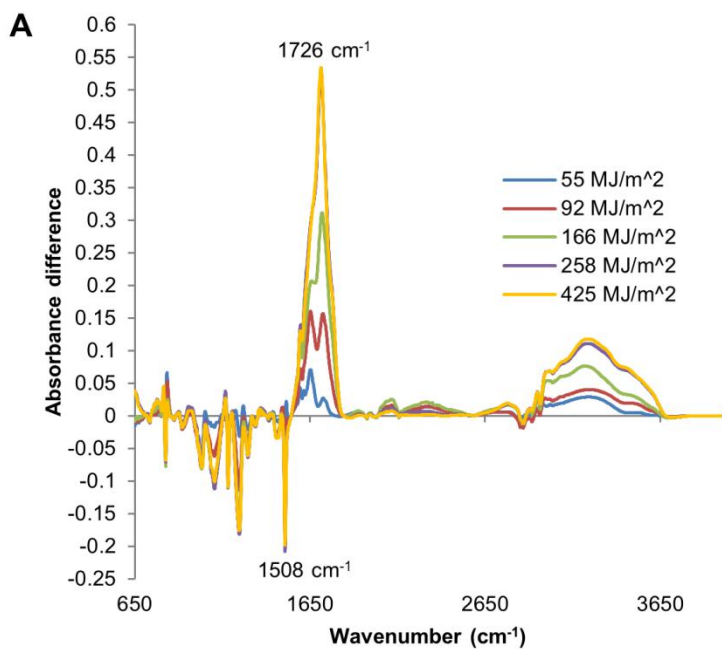
683
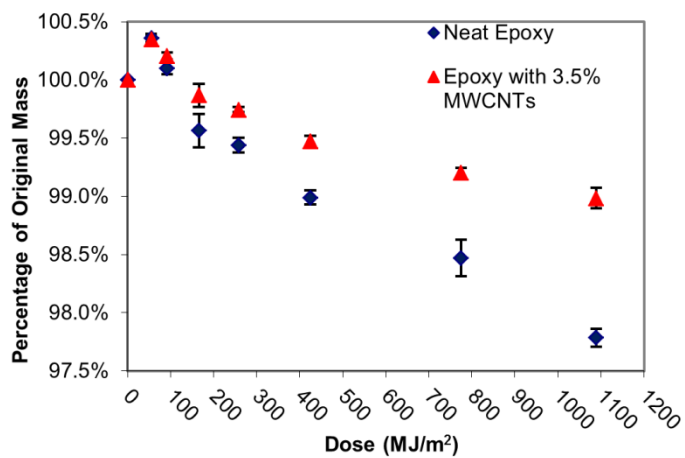
684

685 **Figure 1.** Mass loss as a function of UV radiation dose for neat epoxy and 3.5% MWCNT epoxy

686 nanocomposite samples exposed to UV at 50 ºC and 75% relative humidity. Results are the

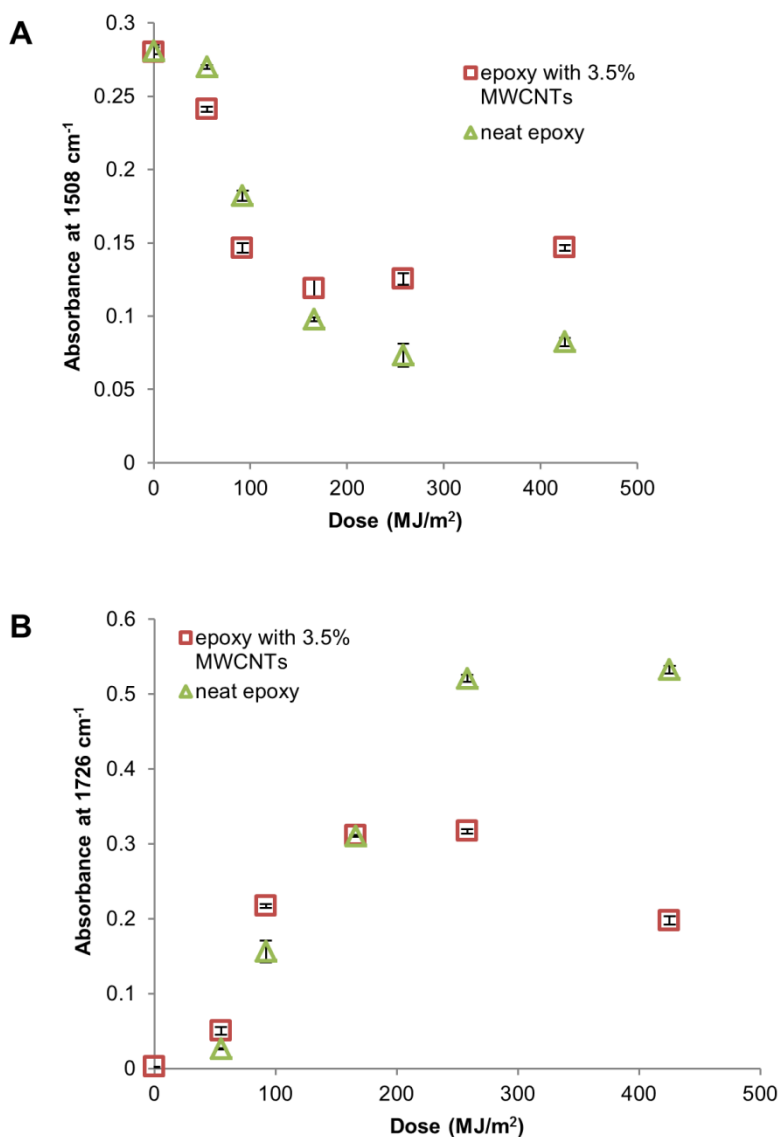687 average of five specimens, and error bars represent one standard deviation.

688

Figure 2. Difference FTIR-ATR spectra recorded at different UV irradiation doses for (A) neat epoxy, and (B) 3.5 % MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite.
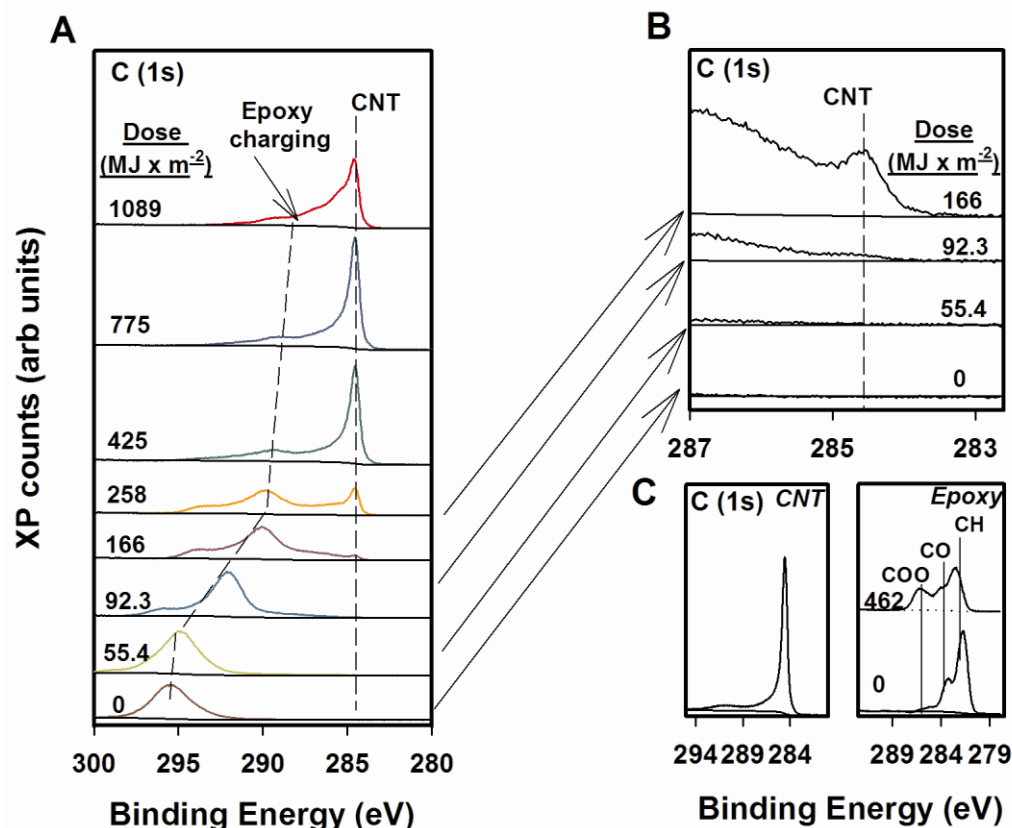
693

694

Figure 3. Changes in FTIR-ATR intensity for (A) 1508 cm^{-1} and (B) 1726 cm^{-1} bands for neat epoxy and 3.5% MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite samples before and after UV irradiation with varying doses. Each data point was the average of three specimens, and the error bars represent one standard deviation.

699

Figure 4. XPS results of the surface transformations of MWCNT epoxy nanocomposites with increasing dose of UV irradiation. A) Stack plot of the C (1s) region from 0 to 1089 MJ/m^2. B) Magnification of low dose studies with a focus on the CNT component of the C (1s) region. C) Control spectra of pure CNT powder (left) and epoxy (right). The pure epoxy sample has a reference at 0 and 462 MJ/m^2 UV dose.
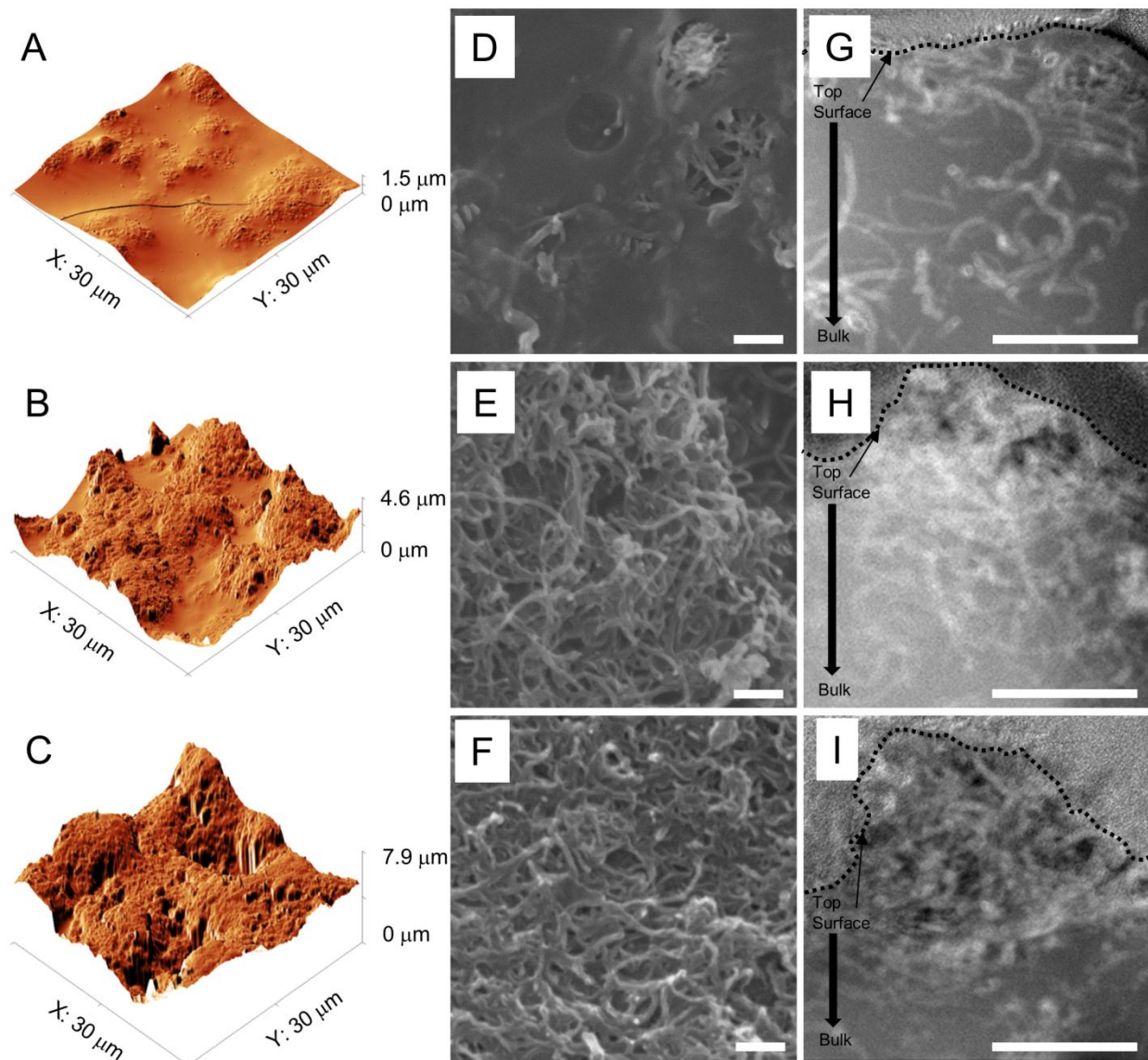
707
708
Figure 5. Microscopic evaluation of MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite samples using AFM (A, B, C), SEM (D, E, F), and EFTEM (G, H, I). The samples were exposed to UV doses of 166 MJ/m^2 (A, D, G), 425 MJ/m^2 (B, E, H), and 1089 MJ/m^2 (C, F, I). 3D AFM images and SEM images are of the surface while EFTEM images are of cross-sections prepared by a focused ion beam. The boundary of the top surface of the nanocomposite is highlighted by the dash line. Scale bars for SEM and EFTEM images are 200 nm.

715

716
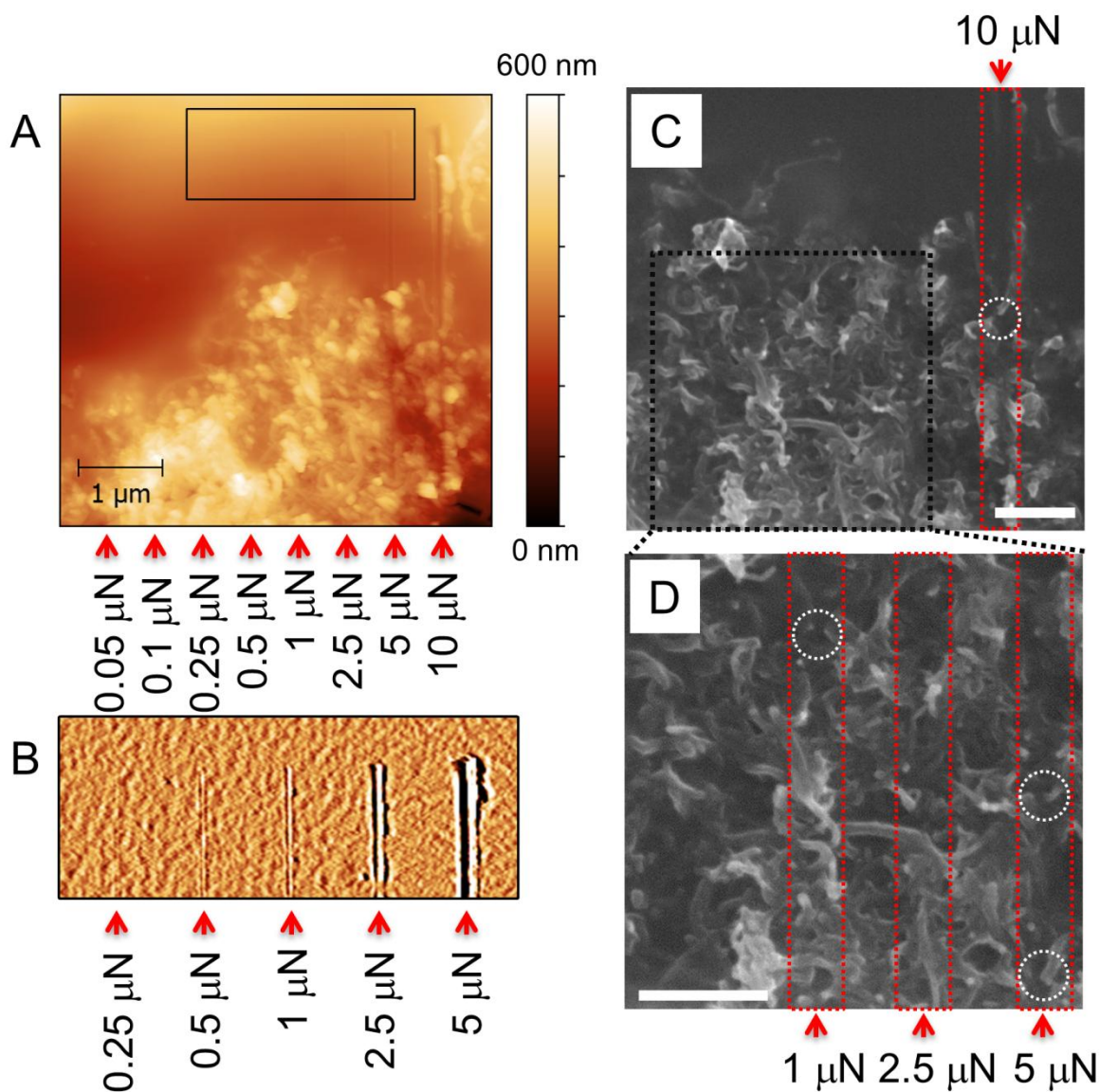
Figure 6. AFM scratch lithography on the MWCNT epoxy nanocomposite sample exposed to 425 MJ/m^2 UV dose. The normal force at each scratch path is indicated by arrows. (A) AFM topography image after scratching and (B) filtered AFM topography image of the boxed region shown in part A. (C, D) Post scratch lithography examination in SEM. SEM scale bars are 500nm. Specific breaks in MWCNTs are highlighted by circles.

722