Kit Revision Date: 11 February 2020

834ATH ATH Flame Retardant Epoxy: Encapsulating and Potting Compound Kit

MG Chemicals Multipart Product Kit

This product is a kit made up of multiple parts. Each part is an independently packaged chemical component and has independent hazard assessments.

Kit Content

Part	*Product Name*	*Product Use*
A	Flame Retardant Epoxy	Epoxy resin for use with hardeners to pot devices or encapsulate components
B	Flame Retardant Epoxy	Epoxy hardener for use with resins to pot devices or encapsulate components

Safety Data Sheets for each part listed above follow this cover sheet.

Transportation Instruction

Before offering this product kit for transport, read Section 14 for all parts listed above.

834ATH-A ATH Flame Retardant Epoxy: Encapsulating and Potting Compound (Part A)

MG Chemicals UK Limited

Version No: **A-1.00**
Safety Data Sheet (Conforms to Regulation (EU) No 2015/830)

Issue Date:**13/02/2020**
Revision Date: **25/03/2020**
L.REACH.GBR.EN

SECTION 1 IDENTIFICATION OF THE SUBSTANCE / MIXTURE AND OF THE COMPANY / UNDERTAKING

1.1. Product Identifier

Product name	834ATH-A
Synonyms	SDS Code: 834ATH-375ML, 834ATH-3L, 834ATH-60L
Other means of identification	ATH Flame Retardant Epoxy: Encapsulating and Potting Compound (Part A)

1.2. Relevant identified uses of the substance or mixture and uses advised against

Relevant identified uses	Epoxy resin for use with hardeners to pot devices or encapsulate components
Uses advised against	Not Applicable

1.3. Details of the supplier of the safety data sheet

Registered company name	**MG Chemicals UK Limited**	**MG Chemicals (Head office)**
Address	Heame House, 23 Bilston Street, Sedgely Dudley DY3 1JA United Kingdom	9347 - 193 Street Surrey V4N 4E7 British Columbia Canada
Telephone	+(44) 1663 362888	+(1) 800-201-8822
Fax	Not Available	+(1) 800-708-9888
Website	Not Available	www.mgchemicals.com
Email	sales@mgchemicals.com	Info@mgchemicals.com

1.4. Emergency telephone number

Association / Organisation	**Verisk 3E (Access code: 335388)**
Emergency telephone numbers	+(44) 20 35147487
Other emergency telephone numbers	+(0) 800 680 0425

SECTION 2 HAZARDS IDENTIFICATION

2.1. Classification of the substance or mixture

Classification according to regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 [CLP] [1]	H411 - Chronic Aquatic Hazard Category 2, H315 - Skin Corrosion/Irritation Category 2, H319 - Eye Irritation Category 2, H317 - Skin Sensitizer Category 1, H351 - Carcinogenicity Category 2
Legend:	*1. Classified by Chemwatch; 2. Classification drawn from Regulation (EU) No 1272/2008 - Annex VI*

2.2. Label elements

Hazard pictogram(s)	
SIGNAL WORD	**WARNING**

Hazard statement(s)

H411	Toxic to aquatic life with long lasting effects.
H315	Causes skin irritation.
H319	Causes serious eye irritation.
H317	May cause an allergic skin reaction.
H351	Suspected of causing cancer.

Precautionary statement(s) Prevention

P201	Obtain special instructions before use.

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P280	Wear protective gloves/protective clothing/eye protection/face protection.
P261	Avoid breathing mist/vapours/spray.
P273	Avoid release to the environment.
P272	Contaminated work clothing should not be allowed out of the workplace.

Precautionary statement(s) Response

P308+P313	IF exposed or concerned: Get medical advice/ attention.
P321	Specific treatment (see advice on this label).
P302+P352	IF ON SKIN: Wash with plenty of water and soap.
P305+P351+P338	IF IN EYES: Rinse cautiously with water for several minutes. Remove contact lenses, if present and easy to do. Continue rinsing.
P333+P313	If skin irritation or rash occurs: Get medical advice/attention.
P337+P313	If eye irritation persists: Get medical advice/attention.
P362+P364	Take off contaminated clothing and wash it before reuse.
P391	Collect spillage.

Precautionary statement(s) Storage

P405	Store locked up.

Precautionary statement(s) Disposal

P501	Dispose of contents/container to authorised hazardous or special waste collection point in accordance with any local regulation.

2.3. Other hazards

Cumulative effects may result following exposure*.

May produce discomfort of the respiratory system*.

May be harmful to the foetus/ embryo*.

SECTION 3 COMPOSITION / INFORMATION ON INGREDIENTS

3.1.Substances

See 'Composition on ingredients' in Section 3.2

3.2.Mixtures

1.CAS No 2.EC No 3.Index No 4.REACH No	%[weight]	Name	Classification according to regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 [CLP]
1.25068-38-6 2.500-033-5 3.603-074-00-8 4.01-2119456619-26-XXXX	50	bisphenol A/ diglycidyl ether polymer, high molecular weight	Eye Irritation Category 2, Chronic Aquatic Hazard Category 2, Skin Sensitizer Category 1, Skin Corrosion/Irritation Category 2; H319, H411, H317, H315 [2]
1.21645-51-2 2.244-492-7 3.Not Available 4.01-2119529246-39-XXXX	17	alumina hydrate	Not Applicable
1.84852-53-9 2.284-366-9 3.Not Available 4.01-2119474877-18-XXXX	14	decabromodiphenylethane	Not Applicable
1.68609-97-2 2.271-846-8 3.603-103-00-4 4.01-2119485289-22-XXXX	8	(C12-14)alkylglycidyl ether	Skin Sensitizer Category 1, Skin Corrosion/Irritation Category 2; H317, H315 [2]
1.138265-88-0 2.215-566-6 3.Not Available 4.01-2120773328-46-XXXX|01-2119691658-19-XXXX	6	zinc borate hydrate	Chronic Aquatic Hazard Category 1, Reproductive Toxicity Category 1B; H410, H360FD [1]
1.1309-64-4 2.215-175-0 3.051-005-00-X 4.01-2119475613-35-XXXX|01-2120763584-46-XXXX	3	antimony trioxide	Carcinogenicity Category 2; H351 [2]
1.64741-65-7. 2.265-067-2 3.649-275-00-4 4.01-2120009436-62-XXXX	1	naphtha petroleum, heavy alkylate	Aspiration Hazard Category 1, Specific target organ toxicity - single exposure Category 3 (narcotic effects), Flammable Liquid Category 3; H304, H336, H226 [1]
1.1333-86-4 2.215-609-9|422-130-0 3.Not Available 4.01-2119384822-32-	0.6	carbon black	Carcinogenicity Category 2; H351 [1]

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XXXX|01-2120767622-50-XXXX|01-0000016864-62-XXXX			

Legend:	*1. Classified by Chemwatch; 2. Classification drawn from Regulation (EU) No 1272/2008 - Annex VI; 3. Classification drawn from C&L; * EU IOELVs available*

SECTION 4 FIRST AID MEASURES

4.1. Description of first aid measures

Eye Contact	If this product comes in contact with the eyes: ▸ Wash out immediately with fresh running water. ▸ Ensure complete irrigation of the eye by keeping eyelids apart and away from eye and moving the eyelids by occasionally lifting the upper and lower lids. ▸ Seek medical attention without delay; if pain persists or recurs seek medical attention. ▸ Removal of contact lenses after an eye injury should only be undertaken by skilled personnel.
Skin Contact	If skin contact occurs: ▸ Immediately remove all contaminated clothing, including footwear. ▸ Flush skin and hair with running water (and soap if available). ▸ Seek medical attention in event of irritation.
Inhalation	▸ If fumes, aerosols or combustion products are inhaled remove from contaminated area. ▸ Other measures are usually unnecessary.
Ingestion	▸ Immediately give a glass of water. ▸ First aid is not generally required. If in doubt, contact a Poisons Information Centre or a doctor.

4.2 Most important symptoms and effects, both acute and delayed

See Section 11

4.3. Indication of any immediate medical attention and special treatment needed

Treat symptomatically.

- Chelation with British Anti-Lewisite (BAL) for serious antimony exposures should be employed.
- Dialyse as needed. The role of exchange diffusion is not clear.
- Be sure to monitor for dysrhythmias.

[Ellenhorn and Barceloux: Medical Toxicology]

SECTION 5 FIREFIGHTING MEASURES

5.1. Extinguishing media

- Foam.
- Dry chemical powder.
- BCF (where regulations permit).
- Carbon dioxide.
- Water spray or fog - Large fires only.

5.2. Special hazards arising from the substrate or mixture

Fire Incompatibility	▸ Avoid contamination with oxidising agents i.e. nitrates, oxidising acids, chlorine bleaches, pool chlorine etc. as ignition may result

5.3. Advice for firefighters

Fire Fighting	▸ Alert Fire Brigade and tell them location and nature of hazard. ▸ Wear full body protective clothing with breathing apparatus. ▸ Prevent, by any means available, spillage from entering drains or water course. ▸ Use water delivered as a fine spray to control fire and cool adjacent area. ▸ Avoid spraying water onto liquid pools. ▸ **DO NOT** approach containers suspected to be hot. ▸ Cool fire exposed containers with water spray from a protected location. ▸ If safe to do so, remove containers from path of fire.
Fire/Explosion Hazard	▸ Combustible. ▸ Slight fire hazard when exposed to heat or flame. ▸ Heating may cause expansion or decomposition leading to violent rupture of containers. ▸ On combustion, may emit toxic fumes of carbon monoxide (CO). ▸ May emit acrid smoke. ▸ Mists containing combustible materials may be explosive. Combustion products include: carbon dioxide (CO_2) aldehydes metal oxides other pyrolysis products typical of burning organic material. When aluminium oxide dust is dispersed in air, firefighters should wear protection against inhalation of dust particles, which can also contain hazardous substances from the fire absorbed on the alumina particles.

SECTION 6 ACCIDENTAL RELEASE MEASURES

Continued...

6.1. Personal precautions, protective equipment and emergency procedures

See section 8

6.2. Environmental precautions

See section 12

6.3. Methods and material for containment and cleaning up

Minor Spills	Environmental hazard - contain spillage. ▸ Clean up all spills immediately. ▸ Avoid breathing vapours and contact with skin and eyes. ▸ Control personal contact with the substance, by using protective equipment. ▸ Contain and absorb spill with sand, earth, inert material or vermiculite. ▸ Wipe up. ▸ Place in a suitable, labelled container for waste disposal.
Major Spills	Environmental hazard - contain spillage. Moderate hazard. ▸ Clear area of personnel and move upwind. ▸ Alert Fire Brigade and tell them location and nature of hazard. ▸ Wear breathing apparatus plus protective gloves. ▸ Prevent, by any means available, spillage from entering drains or water course. ▸ No smoking, naked lights or ignition sources. ▸ Increase ventilation. ▸ Stop leak if safe to do so. ▸ Contain spill with sand, earth or vermiculite. ▸ Collect recoverable product into labelled containers for recycling. ▸ Absorb remaining product with sand, earth or vermiculite. ▸ Collect solid residues and seal in labelled drums for disposal. ▸ Wash area and prevent runoff into drains. ▸ If contamination of drains or waterways occurs, advise emergency services.

6.4. Reference to other sections

Personal Protective Equipment advice is contained in Section 8 of the SDS.

SECTION 7 HANDLING AND STORAGE

7.1. Precautions for safe handling

Safe handling	▸ Avoid all personal contact, including inhalation. ▸ Wear protective clothing when risk of exposure occurs. ▸ Use in a well-ventilated area. ▸ Prevent concentration in hollows and sumps. ▸ **DO NOT** enter confined spaces until atmosphere has been checked. ▸ Avoid smoking, naked lights or ignition sources. ▸ Avoid contact with incompatible materials. ▸ When handling, **DO NOT** eat, drink or smoke. ▸ Keep containers securely sealed when not in use. ▸ Avoid physical damage to containers. ▸ Always wash hands with soap and water after handling. ▸ Work clothes should be laundered separately. ▸ Use good occupational work practice. ▸ Observe manufacturer's storage and handling recommendations contained within this SDS. ▸ Atmosphere should be regularly checked against established exposure standards to ensure safe working conditions. ▸ **DO NOT** allow clothing wet with material to stay in contact with skin
Fire and explosion protection	See section 5
Other information	▸ Store in original containers. ▸ Keep containers securely sealed. ▸ Store in a cool, dry, well-ventilated area. ▸ Store away from incompatible materials and foodstuff containers. ▸ Protect containers against physical damage and check regularly for leaks. ▸ Observe manufacturer's storage and handling recommendations contained within this SDS.

7.2. Conditions for safe storage, including any incompatibilities

Suitable container	▸ Metal can or drum ▸ Packaging as recommended by manufacturer. ▸ Check all containers are clearly labelled and free from leaks.
Storage incompatibility	For aluminas (aluminium oxide): Incompatible with hot chlorinated rubber. In the presence of chlorine trifluoride may react violently and ignite. -May initiate explosive polymerisation of olefin oxides including ethylene oxide. -Produces exothermic reaction above 200 C with halocarbons and an exothermic reaction at ambient temperatures with halocarbons in the presence of other metals. -Produces exothermic reaction with oxygen difluoride. -May form explosive mixture with oxygen difluoride. -Forms explosive mixtures with sodium nitrate. -Reacts vigorously with vinyl acetate. Aluminium oxide is an amphoteric substance, meaning it can react with both acids and bases, such as hydrofluoric acid and sodium hydroxide,

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	acting as an acid with a base and a base with an acid, neutralising the other and producing a salt. Glycidyl ethers: ▸ may form unstable peroxides on storage in air ,light, sunlight, UV light or other ionising radiation, trace metals - inhibitor should be maintained at adequate levels ▸ may polymerise in contact with heat, organic and inorganic free radical producing initiators ▸ may polymerise with evolution of heat in contact with oxidisers, strong acids, bases and amines ▸ react violently with strong oxidisers, permanganates, peroxides, acyl halides, alkalis, ammonium persulfate, bromine dioxide ▸ attack some forms of plastics, coatings, and rubber ▸ Avoid reaction with oxidising agents

7.3. Specific end use(s)

See section 1.2

SECTION 8 EXPOSURE CONTROLS / PERSONAL PROTECTION

8.1. Control parameters

Ingredient	DNELs Exposure Pattern Worker	PNECs Compartment
bisphenol A/ diglycidyl ether polymer, high molecular weight	Not Available	0.006 mg/L (Water (Fresh)) 0.0006 mg/L (Water - Intermittent release) 0.018 mg/L (Water (Marine)) 0.996 mg/kg sediment dw (Sediment (Fresh Water)) 0.0996 mg/kg sediment dw (Sediment (Marine)) 0.196 mg/kg soil dw (Soil) 10 mg/L (STP) 11 mg/kg food (Oral)
alumina hydrate	Inhalation 10.76 mg/m³ (Systemic, Chronic) Inhalation 10.76 mg/m³ (Local, Chronic) *Oral 4.74 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic) **	74.9 µg/L (Water (Fresh)) 20 mg/L (STP)
decabromodiphenylethane	Inhalation 71 mg/m³ (Systemic, Chronic) *Inhalation 17.4 mg/m³ (Systemic, Chronic) ** *Oral 5 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic) **	110 mg/L (Water (Fresh)) 110 mg/L (Water (Marine)) 100 mg/kg sediment dw (Sediment (Fresh Water)) 10 mg/kg sediment dw (Sediment (Marine)) 156 mg/kg soil dw (Soil) 2500 mg/L (STP) 222 mg/kg food (Oral)
(C12-14)alkylglycidyl ether	Dermal 1 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic) Inhalation 3.6 mg/m³ (Systemic, Chronic) *Dermal 0.5 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic) ** *Inhalation 0.87 mg/m³ (Systemic, Chronic) ** *Oral 0.5 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic) **	0.0072 mg/L (Water (Fresh)) 0.00072 mg/L (Water - Intermittent release) 0.072 mg/L (Water (Marine)) 66.77 mg/kg sediment dw (Sediment (Fresh Water)) 6.677 mg/kg sediment dw (Sediment (Marine)) 80.12 mg/kg soil dw (Soil) 10 mg/L (STP)
zinc borate hydrate	Dermal 1 585 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic) Inhalation 22.4 mg/m³ (Systemic, Chronic) *Dermal 1 205 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic) ** *Inhalation 8.3 mg/m³ (Systemic, Chronic) ** *Oral 2.4 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic) **	Not Available
antimony trioxide	Dermal 67 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic) Inhalation 0.315 mg/m³ (Local, Chronic) *Dermal 33.5 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic) ** *Oral 33.5 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic) ** *Inhalation 0.095 mg/m³ (Local, Chronic) **	0.113 mg/L (Water (Fresh)) 0.0113 mg/L (Water - Intermittent release) 11.2 mg/kg sediment dw (Sediment (Fresh Water)) 2.24 mg/kg sediment dw (Sediment (Marine)) 37 mg/kg soil dw (Soil) 2.55 mg/L (STP)
carbon black	Inhalation 1 mg/m³ (Systemic, Chronic) Inhalation 0.5 mg/m³ (Local, Chronic) *Inhalation 0.06 mg/m³ (Systemic, Chronic) **	5 mg/L (Water (Fresh)) 5 mg/L (Water - Intermittent release)

* Values for General Population

OCCUPATIONAL EXPOSURE LIMITS (OEL)

INGREDIENT DATA

Source	Ingredient	Material name	TWA	STEL	Peak	Notes
UK Workplace Exposure Limits (WELs)	antimony trioxide	Antimony and compounds except stibine (as Sb)	0.5 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
UK Workplace Exposure Limits (WELs)	carbon black	Carbon black	3.5 mg/m3	7 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available

EMERGENCY LIMITS

Ingredient	Material name	TEEL-1	TEEL-2	TEEL-3
bisphenol A/ diglycidyl ether polymer, high molecular weight	Epoxy resin includes EPON 1001, 1007, 820, ERL-2795	90 mg/m3	990 mg/m3	5,900 mg/m3
alumina hydrate	Aluminum hydroxide	8.7 mg/m3	73 mg/m3	440 mg/m3
antimony trioxide	Antimony trioxide	1.8 mg/m3	16 mg/m3	96 mg/m3
carbon black	Carbon black	9 mg/m3	99 mg/m3	590 mg/m3

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Ingredient	Original IDLH	Revised IDLH
bisphenol A/ diglycidyl ether polymer, high molecular weight	Not Available	Not Available
alumina hydrate	Not Available	Not Available
decabromodiphenylethane	Not Available	Not Available
(C12-14)alkylglycidyl ether	Not Available	Not Available
zinc borate hydrate	Not Available	Not Available
antimony trioxide	50 mg/m3	Not Available
naphtha petroleum, heavy alkylate	Not Available	Not Available
carbon black	1,750 mg/m3	Not Available

OCCUPATIONAL EXPOSURE BANDING

Ingredient	Occupational Exposure Band Rating	Occupational Exposure Band Limit
bisphenol A/ diglycidyl ether polymer, high molecular weight	E	≤ 0.01 mg/m³
(C12-14)alkylglycidyl ether	E	≤ 0.1 ppm
zinc borate hydrate	C	> 0.1 to ≤ milligrams per cubic meter of air (mg/m³)
Notes:	*Occupational exposure banding is a process of assigning chemicals into specific categories or bands based on a chemical's potency and the adverse health outcomes associated with exposure. The output of this process is an occupational exposure band (OEB), which corresponds to a range of exposure concentrations that are expected to protect worker health.*	

MATERIAL DATA

For aluminium oxide:
The experimental and clinical data indicate that aluminium oxide acts as an 'inert' material when inhaled and seems to have little effect on the lungs nor does it produce significant organic disease or toxic effects when exposures are kept under reasonable control.
[Documentation of the Threshold Limit Values], ACGIH, Sixth Edition
For epichlorohydrin
Odour Threshold Value: 0.08 ppm
NOTE: Detector tubes for epichlorohydrin, measuring in excess of 5 ppm, are commercially available.
Exposure at or below the recommended TLV-TWA is thought to minimise the potential for adverse respiratory, liver, kidney effects. Epichlorohydrin has been implicated as a human skin sensitiser, hence individuals who are hypersusceptible or otherwise unusually responsive to certain chemicals may NOT be adequately protected from adverse health effects.
Odour Safety Factor (OSF)
OSF=0.54 (EPICHLOROHYDRIN)

The wide-ranging effects of antimony compounds have made it difficult to recommend an exposure standard which characterises the toxicology of these substances. One criteria, reflecting the irritant properties of antimony pentachloride, produced a calculated value of 5.0 mg/m3 (as antimony), which on the basis of experience was felt to be too high but did act as an 'out-rider'. The present value reflects this thinking.

The TLV is based on the exposures to aluminium chloride and the amount of hydrolysed acid and the corresponding acid TLV to provide the same degree of freedom from irritation. Workers chronically exposed to aluminium dusts and fumes have developed severe pulmonary reactions including fibrosis, emphysema and pneumothorax. A much rarer encephalopathy has also been described.
NOTE H: Special requirements exist in relation to classification and labelling of this substance. This note applies to certain coal- and oil -derived substances and to certain entries for groups of substances in Annex VI. European Union (EU) List of harmonised classification and labelling hazardous substances, Table 3.1, Annex VI, Regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 (CLP) - up to the latest ATP
NOTE P: The classification as a carcinogen need not apply if it can be shown that the substance contains less than 0.01% w/w benzene (EINECS No 200-753-7). Note E shall also apply when the substance is classified as a carcinogen. This note applies only to certain complex oil-derived substances in Annex VI.
European Union (EU) List of harmonised classification and labelling hazardous substances, Table 3.1, Annex VI, Regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 (CLP) - up to the latest ATP

8.2. Exposure controls

8.2.1. Appropriate engineering controls

Engineering controls are used to remove a hazard or place a barrier between the worker and the hazard. Well-designed engineering controls can be highly effective in protecting workers and will typically be independent of worker interactions to provide this high level of protection.
The basic types of engineering controls are:
Process controls which involve changing the way a job activity or process is done to reduce the risk.
Enclosure and/or isolation of emission source which keeps a selected hazard 'physically' away from the worker and ventilation that strategically 'adds' and 'removes' air in the work environment. Ventilation can remove or dilute an air contaminant if designed properly. The design of a ventilation system must match the particular process and chemical or contaminant in use.
Employers may need to use multiple types of controls to prevent employee overexposure.

General exhaust is adequate under normal operating conditions. Local exhaust ventilation may be required in specific circumstances. If risk of overexposure exists, wear approved respirator. Correct fit is essential to obtain adequate protection. Provide adequate ventilation in warehouse or closed storage areas. Air contaminants generated in the workplace possess varying 'escape' velocities which, in turn, determine the 'capture velocities' of fresh circulating air required to effectively remove the contaminant.

Type of Contaminant:	Air Speed:
solvent, vapours, degreasing etc., evaporating from tank (in still air).	0.25-0.5 m/s (50-100 f/min)
aerosols, fumes from pouring operations, intermittent container filling, low speed conveyer transfers, welding, spray drift, plating acid fumes, pickling (released at low velocity into zone of active generation)	0.5-1 m/s (100-200 f/min.)
direct spray, spray painting in shallow booths, drum filling, conveyer loading, crusher dusts, gas discharge (active generation into zone of rapid air motion)	1-2.5 m/s (200-500 f/min.)
grinding, abrasive blasting, tumbling, high speed wheel generated dusts (released at high initial velocity into zone of very high rapid air motion).	2.5-10 m/s (500-2000 f/min.)

Within each range the appropriate value depends on:

Lower end of the range	Upper end of the range

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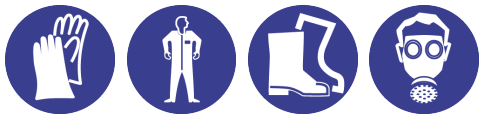
	1: Room air currents minimal or favourable to capture | 1: Disturbing room air currents 2: Contaminants of low toxicity or of nuisance value only. | 2: Contaminants of high toxicity 3: Intermittent, low production. | 3: High production, heavy use 4: Large hood or large air mass in motion | 4: Small hood-local control only Simple theory shows that air velocity falls rapidly with distance away from the opening of a simple extraction pipe. Velocity generally decreases with the square of distance from the extraction point (in simple cases). Therefore the air speed at the extraction point should be adjusted, accordingly, after reference to distance from the contaminating source. The air velocity at the extraction fan, for example, should be a minimum of 1-2 m/s (200-400 f/min) for extraction of solvents generated in a tank 2 meters distant from the extraction point. Other mechanical considerations, producing performance deficits within the extraction apparatus, make it essential that theoretical air velocities are multiplied by factors of 10 or more when extraction systems are installed or used.
8.2.2. Personal protection	
Eye and face protection	‣ Safety glasses with side shields. ‣ Chemical goggles. ‣ Contact lenses may pose a special hazard; soft contact lenses may absorb and concentrate irritants. A written policy document, describing the wearing of lenses or restrictions on use, should be created for each workplace or task. This should include a review of lens absorption and adsorption for the class of chemicals in use and an account of injury experience. Medical and first-aid personnel should be trained in their removal and suitable equipment should be readily available. In the event of chemical exposure, begin eye irrigation immediately and remove contact lens as soon as practicable. Lens should be removed at the first signs of eye redness or irritation - lens should be removed in a clean environment only after workers have washed hands thoroughly. [CDC NIOSH Current Intelligence Bulletin 59], [AS/NZS 1336 or national equivalent]
Skin protection	See Hand protection below
Hands/feet protection	**NOTE:** ‣ The material may produce skin sensitisation in predisposed individuals. Care must be taken, when removing gloves and other protective equipment, to avoid all possible skin contact. ‣ Contaminated leather items, such as shoes, belts and watch-bands should be removed and destroyed. The selection of suitable gloves does not only depend on the material, but also on further marks of quality which vary from manufacturer to manufacturer. Where the chemical is a preparation of several substances, the resistance of the glove material can not be calculated in advance and has therefore to be checked prior to the application. The exact break through time for substances has to be obtained from the manufacturer of the protective gloves and.has to be observed when making a final choice. Personal hygiene is a key element of effective hand care. Gloves must only be worn on clean hands. After using gloves, hands should be washed and dried thoroughly. Application of a non-perfumed moisturiser is recommended. Suitability and durability of glove type is dependent on usage. Important factors in the selection of gloves include: · frequency and duration of contact, · chemical resistance of glove material, · glove thickness and · dexterity Select gloves tested to a relevant standard (e.g. Europe EN 374, US F739, AS/NZS 2161.1 or national equivalent). · When prolonged or frequently repeated contact may occur, a glove with a protection class of 5 or higher (breakthrough time greater than 240 minutes according to EN 374, AS/NZS 2161.10.1 or national equivalent) is recommended. · When only brief contact is expected, a glove with a protection class of 3 or higher (breakthrough time greater than 60 minutes according to EN 374, AS/NZS 2161.10.1 or national equivalent) is recommended. · Some glove polymer types are less affected by movement and this should be taken into account when considering gloves for long-term use. · Contaminated gloves should be replaced. As defined in ASTM F-739-96 in any application, gloves are rated as: · Excellent when breakthrough time > 480 min · Good when breakthrough time > 20 min · Fair when breakthrough time < 20 min · Poor when glove material degrades For general applications, gloves with a thickness typically greater than 0.35 mm, are recommended. It should be emphasised that glove thickness is not necessarily a good predictor of glove resistance to a specific chemical, as the permeation efficiency of the glove will be dependent on the exact composition of the glove material. Therefore, glove selection should also be based on consideration of the task requirements and knowledge of breakthrough times. Glove thickness may also vary depending on the glove manufacturer, the glove type and the glove model. Therefore, the manufacturers' technical data should always be taken into account to ensure selection of the most appropriate glove for the task. Note: Depending on the activity being conducted, gloves of varying thickness may be required for specific tasks. For example: · Thinner gloves (down to 0.1 mm or less) may be required where a high degree of manual dexterity is needed. However, these gloves are only likely to give short duration protection and would normally be just for single use applications, then disposed of. · Thicker gloves (up to 3 mm or more) may be required where there is a mechanical (as well as a chemical) risk i.e. where there is abrasion or puncture potential Gloves must only be worn on clean hands. After using gloves, hands should be washed and dried thoroughly. Application of a non-perfumed moisturiser is recommended. When handling liquid-grade epoxy resins wear chemically protective gloves , boots and aprons. The performance, based on breakthrough times ,of: · Ethyl Vinyl Alcohol (EVAL laminate) is generally excellent · Butyl Rubber ranges from excellent to good · Nitrile Butyl Rubber (NBR) from excellent to fair. · Neoprene from excellent to fair · Polyvinyl (PVC) from excellent to poor As defined in ASTM F-739-96 · Excellent breakthrough time > 480 min · Good breakthrough time > 20 min · Fair breakthrough time < 20 min · Poor glove material degradation Gloves should be tested against each resin system prior to making a selection of the most suitable type. Systems include both the resin and any hardener, individually and collectively)

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	· **DO NOT** use cotton or leather (which absorb and concentrate the resin), natural rubber (latex), medical or polyethylene gloves (which absorb the resin). · **DO NOT** use barrier creams containing emulsified fats and oils as these may absorb the resin; silicone-based barrier creams should be reviewed prior to use. Replacement time should be considered when selecting the most appropriate glove. It may be more effective to select a glove with lower chemical resistance but which is replaced frequently than to select a more resistant glove which is reused many times
Body protection	See Other protection below
Other protection	▸ Overalls. ▸ P.V.C. apron. ▸ Barrier cream. ▸ Skin cleansing cream. ▸ Eye wash unit.

Respiratory protection

Type A Filter of sufficient capacity. (AS/NZS 1716 & 1715, EN 143:2000 & 149:2001, ANSI Z88 or national equivalent)

Where the concentration of gas/particulates in the breathing zone, approaches or exceeds the 'Exposure Standard' (or ES), respiratory protection is required. Degree of protection varies with both face-piece and Class of filter; the nature of protection varies with Type of filter.

Required Minimum Protection Factor	Half-Face Respirator	Full-Face Respirator	Powered Air Respirator
up to 10 x ES	A-AUS	-	A-PAPR-AUS / Class 1
up to 50 x ES	-	A-AUS / Class 1	-
up to 100 x ES	-	A-2	A-PAPR-2 ^

^ - Full-face
A(All classes) = Organic vapours, B AUS or B1 = Acid gasses, B2 = Acid gas or hydrogen cyanide(HCN), B3 = Acid gas or hydrogen cyanide(HCN), E = Sulfur dioxide(SO2), G = Agricultural chemicals, K = Ammonia(NH3), Hg = Mercury, NO = Oxides of nitrogen, MB = Methyl bromide, AX = Low boiling point organic compounds(below 65 degC)

- **Cartridge respirators should never be used for emergency ingress or in areas of unknown vapour concentrations or oxygen content.**
- **The wearer must be warned to leave the contaminated area immediately on detecting any odours through the respirator. The odour may indicate that the mask is not functioning properly, that the vapour concentration is too high, or that the mask is not properly fitted. Because of these limitations, only restricted use of cartridge respirators is considered appropriate.**
- **Cartridge performance is affected by humidity. Cartridges should be changed after 2 hr of continuous use unless it is determined that the humidity is less than 75%, in which case, cartridges can be used for 4 hr. Used cartridges should be discarded daily, regardless of the length of time used**

8.2.3. Environmental exposure controls

See section 12

SECTION 9 PHYSICAL AND CHEMICAL PROPERTIES

9.1. Information on basic physical and chemical properties

Appearance	Black

Physical state	Liquid	**Relative density (Water = 1)**	1.4
Odour	Slight	**Partition coefficient n-octanol / water**	Not Available
Odour threshold	Not Available	**Auto-ignition temperature (°C)**	Not Available
pH (as supplied)	Not Available	**Decomposition temperature**	Not Available
Melting point / freezing point (°C)	Not Available	**Viscosity (cSt)**	3300
Initial boiling point and boiling range (°C)	>150	**Molecular weight (g/mol)**	Not Available
Flash point (°C)	150	Taste	Not Available
Evaporation rate	Not Available	**Explosive properties**	Not Available
Flammability	Not Applicable	**Oxidising properties**	Not Available
Upper Explosive Limit (%)	Not Available	**Surface Tension (dyn/cm or mN/m)**	Not Available
Lower Explosive Limit (%)	Not Available	**Volatile Component (%vol)**	Not Available
Vapour pressure (kPa)	Not Available	**Gas group**	Not Available
Solubility in water	Immiscible	**pH as a solution (1%)**	Not Available
Vapour density (Air = 1)	Not Available	**VOC g/L**	Not Available

9.2. Other information

Not Available

SECTION 10 STABILITY AND REACTIVITY

10.1.Reactivity	See section 7.2

Continued...

10.2. Chemical stability	▸ Unstable in the presence of incompatible materials. ▸ Product is considered stable. ▸ Hazardous polymerisation will not occur.
10.3. Possibility of hazardous reactions	See section 7.2
10.4. Conditions to avoid	See section 7.2
10.5. Incompatible materials	See section 7.2
10.6. Hazardous decomposition products	See section 5.3

SECTION 11 TOXICOLOGICAL INFORMATION

11.1. Information on toxicological effects

Inhaled	The material is not thought to produce adverse health effects or irritation of the respiratory tract (as classified by EC Directives using animal models). Nevertheless, good hygiene practice requires that exposure be kept to a minimum and that suitable control measures be used in an occupational setting. Not normally a hazard due to non-volatile nature of product Inhalation of antimony and its compounds may produce respiratory and gastrointestinal tract discomfort with sore throat, shallow respiration, coughing, headaches, breathing difficulties, dizziness, weight loss, gingivitis, anaemia, eosinophilia and enzyme inhibition. Inflammation of the upper and lower respiratory tract may occur. Pulmonary congestion and oedema may also occur. Other symptoms include rhinitis, eye irritation, vomiting and diarrhoea, weight loss, dysomnia, hair loss and haematological disorders. Death due to circulatory failure has been described, with pathology showing acute congestion of the heart (myocardial failure), liver and kidneys.
Ingestion	Reactive diluents exhibit a range of ingestion hazards. Small amounts swallowed incidental to normal handling operations are not likely to cause injury. However, swallowing larger amounts may cause injury. Male rats exposed to a single oral dose of bisphenol A diglycidyl ether (BADGE) at 750, 1000, and 2000 mg/kg/day showed a significantly increase in the number of immature and maturing sperm on the testis. There were no significant differences with respect to sperm head count, sperm motility, and sperm abnormality in the BADGE treatment groups Acute toxic responses to aluminium are confined to the more soluble forms. Symptoms of borate poisoning include nausea, vomiting, diarrhoea, epigastric pain. These may be accompanied headache, weakness and a distinctive red skin rash. In severe cases there may be shock, increased heart rate and the skin may appear blue. Vomiting (which may be violent) is often persistent and vomitus and faeces may contain blood. Weakness, lethargy, headache, restlessness, tremors and intermittent convulsions may also occur. Poisoning produces central nervous system stimulation followed by depression, gastrointestinal disturbance (haemorrhagic gastro-enteritis), erythematous skin eruptions (giving rise to a boiled lobster appearance) and may also involve kidneys (producing oliguria, albuminuria, anuria) and, rarely, liver (hepatomegaly, jaundice). Toxic symptoms may be delayed for several hours. Ingested borates are readily absorbed and do not appear to be metabolised via the liver. Excretion occurs mainly through the kidneys in the urine with about half excreted in the first 12 hours and the remainder over 5-12 days. Borates are excreted primarily in the urine regardless of the route of administration. The borates (tetra-, di-, meta, or ortho- salts, in contrast to perborates) once solubilised in the acid of gastric juices, cannot be distinguished from each other on chemical or toxicological grounds. In humans acute gastroenteric (or percutaneous absorption of as little as 1 gm of sodium borate can result in severe gastrointestinal irritation, kidney damage. In adults the mean lethal dose of sodium borate or boric acid probably exceeds 30 gms (Gosselin) and death occurs due to vascular collapse in the early stages or to central nervous system depression in later stages. Children are thought to be more susceptible to the effects of borate intoxication. The material has **NOT** been classified by EC Directives or other classification systems as 'harmful by ingestion'. This is because of the lack of corroborating animal or human evidence. The material may still be damaging to the health of the individual, following ingestion, especially where pre-existing organ (e.g liver, kidney) damage is evident. Present definitions of harmful or toxic substances are generally based on doses producing mortality rather than those producing morbidity (disease, ill-health). Gastrointestinal tract discomfort may produce nausea and vomiting. In an occupational setting however, ingestion of insignificant quantities is not thought to be cause for concern. Ingestion of antimony compounds may produce violent irritation of the nose, throat, stomach and gastrointestinal tract, vomiting, purging with bloody stools, slow shallow respiration, pulmonary oedema, convulsions, loss of consciousness, coma, and death due to circulatory or respiratory failure. Early signs of antimony intoxication include: fatigue, muscle weakness, myopathy, nausea, low back pain, headache, and metallic taste. Later symptoms include blood disorders (haemolytic anemia, myoglobinuria, haematuria) and renal failure. The substance may cause cough, salivation, nausea, and diarrhoea. It may also cause dizziness, laryngitis, anaemia, muscular and neuralgic pains. Other symptoms of overexposure may include tightness of the chest, pain, swelling of the cervical glands, pustular eruptions ('antimony spots'), particularly on the scrotum, difficult urination, sexual disorders, nervousness, loss of sleep, leukopenia, unconsciousness and death. [NIOSHTIC] The minimum lethal dose in man, of antimony, is 130 mg (although 15000 mg has been survived). Antimony is a strong irritant and emetic but the emetic dose (30 mg by mouth) is dangerously high if vomiting fails to occur. Trivalent compounds are generally more lethal than pentavalent derivatives. The trivalent antimony compounds are cardiotoxic. The insoluble salts however are less likely to produce significant toxic effects. Antimony salts are poorly absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract. Most trivalent compounds of antimony are slowly excreted in the urine and bile. Antimony compounds are used medicinally, but therapeutic dose is close to the toxic dose. Antimony poisoning closely parallels arsenic poisoning although vomiting is probably more prominent as absorption from the gastrointestinal tract is generally lower. Like arsenic, antimony has a high affinity for sulfhydryl groups on many enzymes. Antimony is conjugated with glutathione and excreted in urine and feces. Therefore, excessive exposure to antimony has the potential to deplete intracellular glutathione pools. Temporary changes in heart rhythm occurs amongst humans while poisoned animals exhibit severe heart damage. Periodic medical examinations covering lungs, skin, nervous system, heart and gastro-intestinal tract are recommended for occupationally exposed workers. [ILO Encyclopedia]
Skin Contact	The material may accentuate any pre-existing dermatitis condition Skin contact is not thought to have harmful health effects (as classified under EC Directives); the material may still produce health damage following entry through wounds, lesions or abrasions. Contact with aluminas (aluminium oxides) may produce a form of irritant dermatitis accompanied by pruritus. Though considered non-harmful, slight irritation may result from contact because of the abrasive nature of the aluminium oxide particles. Bisphenol A diglycidyl ether (BADGE) may produce contact dermatitis characterised by erythema and oedema, with weeping followed by crusting and scaling. A liquid resin with a molecular weight of 350 produced severe skin irritation in rabbits when applied daily for 4 hours over 20 days. Following the initial contact there may be a discrete erythematous lesion, confined to the point of contact, which may persist for 48 hours to 10 days; the erythema may give way to a papular, vesicular rash with scaling. In animals uncured resin produces moderate ante-mortem depression, loss of body weight and diarrhoea. Local irritation, inflammation and death resulting from respiratory system depression are recorded. Higher molecular weight resins generally produce lower toxicity.

Continued...

	Skin contact with antimony compounds may result in redness and severe irritation with the formation of itchy papules, pustules, skin lesions/ small septic blisters (antimony spots) within a few hours. Rhinitis may also result from dermal contact. Open cuts, abraded or irritated skin should not be exposed to this material Entry into the blood-stream through, for example, cuts, abrasions, puncture wounds or lesions, may produce systemic injury with harmful effects. Examine the skin prior to the use of the material and ensure that any external damage is suitably protected. The material produces moderate skin irritation; evidence exists, or practical experience predicts, that the material either ▸ produces moderate inflammation of the skin in a substantial number of individuals following direct contact, and/or ▸ produces significant, but moderate, inflammation when applied to the healthy intact skin of animals (for up to four hours), such inflammation being present twenty-four hours or more after the end of the exposure period. Skin irritation may also be present after prolonged or repeated exposure; this may result in a form of contact dermatitis (nonallergic). The dermatitis is often characterised by skin redness (erythema) and swelling (oedema) which may progress to blistering (vesiculation), scaling and thickening of the epidermis. At the microscopic level there may be intercellular oedema of the spongy layer of the skin (spongiosis) and intracellular oedema of the epidermis.
Eye	Evidence exists, or practical experience predicts, that the material may cause severe eye irritation in a substantial number of individuals and/or may produce significant ocular lesions which are present twenty-four hours or more after instillation into the eye(s) of experimental animals. Eye contact may cause significant inflammation with pain. Corneal injury may occur; permanent impairment of vision may result unless treatment is prompt and adequate. Repeated or prolonged exposure to irritants may cause inflammation characterised by a temporary redness (similar to windburn) of the conjunctiva (conjunctivitis); temporary impairment of vision and/or other transient eye damage/ulceration may occur.
Chronic	On the basis, primarily, of animal experiments, concern has been expressed that the material may produce carcinogenic or mutagenic effects; in respect of the available information, however, there presently exists inadequate data for making a satisfactory assessment. Repeated or long-term occupational exposure is likely to produce cumulative health effects involving organs or biochemical systems. Practical experience shows that skin contact with the material is capable either of inducing a sensitisation reaction in a substantial number of individuals, and/or of producing a positive response in experimental animals. Chronic exposure to aluminas (aluminium oxides) of particle size 1.2 microns did not produce significant systemic or respiratory system effects in workers. Epidemiologic surveys have indicated an excess of nonmalignant respiratory disease in workers exposed to aluminum oxide during abrasives production. Very fine Al2O3 powder was not fibrogenic in rats, guinea pigs, or hamsters when inhaled for 6 to 12 months and sacrificed at periods up to 12 months following the last exposure. When hydrated aluminas were injected intratracheally, they produced dense and numerous nodules of advanced fibrosis in rats, a reticulin network with occasional collagen fibres in mice and guinea pigs, and only a slight reticulin network in rabbits. Shaver's disease, a rapidly progressive and often fatal interstitial fibrosis of the lungs, is associated with a process involving the fusion of bauxite (aluminium oxide) with iron, coke and silica at 2000 deg. C. The weight of evidence suggests that catalytically active alumina and the large surface area aluminas can induce lung fibrosis(aluminosis) in experimental animals, but only when given by the intra-tracheal route. The pertinence of such experiments in relation to workplace exposure is doubtful especially since it has been demonstrated that the most reactive of the aluminas (i.e. the chi and gamma forms), when given by inhalation, are non-fibrogenic in experimental animals. However rats exposed by inhalation to refractory aluminium fibre showed mild fibrosis and possibly carcinogenic effects indicating that fibrous aluminas might exhibit different toxicology to non-fibrous forms. Aluminium oxide fibres administered by the intrapleural route produce clear evidence of carcinogenicity. Saffil fibre an artificially produced form alumina fibre used as refractories, consists of over 95% alumina, 3-4 % silica. Animal tests for fibrogenic, carcinogenic potential and oral toxicity have included in-vitro, intraperitoneal injection, intrapleural injection, inhalation, and feeding. The fibre has generally been inactive in animal studies. Also studies of Saffil dust clouds show very low respirable fraction. There is general agreement that particle size determines that the degree of pathogenicity (the ability of a micro-organism to produce infectious disease) of elementary aluminium, or its oxides or hydroxides when they occur as dusts, fumes or vapours. Only those particles small enough to enter the alveolii (sub 5 um) are able to produce pathogenic effects in the lungs. Occupational exposure to aluminium compounds may produce asthma, chronic obstructive lung disease and pulmonary fibrosis. Long-term overexposure may produce dyspnoea, cough, pneumothorax, variable sputum production and nodular interstitial fibrosis; death has been reported. Chronic interstitial pneumonia with severe cavitations in the right upper lung and small cavities in the remaining lung tissue, have been observed in gross pathology. Shaver's Disease may result from occupational exposure to fumes or dusts; this may produce respiratory distress and fibrosis with large blebs. Animal studies produce no indication that aluminium or its compounds are carcinogenic. Because aluminium competes with calcium for absorption, increased amounts of dietary aluminium may contribute to the reduced skeletal mineralisation (osteopenia) observed in preterm infants and infants with growth retardation. In very high doses, aluminium can cause neurotoxicity, and is associated with altered function of the blood-brain barrier. A small percentage of people are allergic to aluminium and experience contact dermatitis, digestive disorders, vomiting or other symptoms upon contact or ingestion of products containing aluminium, such as deodorants or antacids. In those without allergies, aluminium is not as toxic as heavy metals, but there is evidence of some toxicity if it is consumed in excessive amounts. Although the use of aluminium cookware has not been shown to lead to aluminium toxicity in general, excessive consumption of antacids containing aluminium compounds and excessive use of aluminium-containing antiperspirants provide more significant exposure levels. Studies have shown that consumption of acidic foods or liquids with aluminium significantly increases aluminium absorption, and maltol has been shown to increase the accumulation of aluminium in nervous and osseus tissue. Furthermore, aluminium increases oestrogen-related gene expression in human breast cancer cells cultured in the laboratory These salts' estrogen-like effects have led to their classification as a metalloestrogen.Some researchers have expressed concerns that the aluminium in antiperspirants may increase the risk of breast cancer. After absorption, aluminium distributes to all tissues in animals and humans and accumulates in some, in particular bone. The main carrier of the aluminium ion in plasma is the iron binding protein, transferrin. Aluminium can enter the brain and reach the placenta and foetus. Aluminium may persist for a very long time in various organs and tissues before it is excreted in the urine. Although retention times for aluminium appear to be longer in humans than in rodents, there is little information allowing extrapolation from rodents to the humans. At high levels of exposure, some aluminium compounds may produce DNA damage in vitro and in vivo via indirect mechanisms. The database on carcinogenicity of aluminium compounds is limited. No indication of any carcinogenic potential was obtained in mice given aluminium potassium sulphate at high levels in the diet. Aluminium has shown neurotoxicity in patients undergoing dialysis and thereby chronically exposed parenterally to high concentrations of aluminium. It has been suggested that aluminium is implicated in the aetiology of Alzheimer's disease and associated with other neurodegenerative diseases in humans. However, these hypotheses remain controversial. Several compounds containing aluminium have the potential to produce neurotoxicity (mice, rats) and to affect the male reproductive system (dogs). In addition, after maternal exposure they have shown embryotoxicity (mice) and have affected the developing nervous system in the offspring (mice, rats). The available studies have a number of limitations and do not allow any dose-response relationships to be established. The combined evidence from several studies in mice, rats and dogs that used dietary administration of aluminium compounds produce lowest-observed-adverse-effect levels (LOAELs) for effects on neurotoxicity, testes, embryotoxicity, and the developing nervous system of 52, 75, 100, and 50 mg aluminium/kg bw/day, respectively. Similarly, the lowest no-observed-adverse-effect levels (NOAELs) for effects on these endpoints were reported at 30, 27, 100, and for effects on the developing nervous system, between 10 and 42 mg aluminium/kg bw per day, respectively. Controversy exists over whether aluminium is the cause of degenerative brain disease (Alzheimer's disease or AD). Several epidemiological studies show a possible correlation between the incidence of AD and high levels of aluminium in drinking water. A study in Toronto, for example, found a 2.6 times increased risk in people residing for at least 10 years in communities where drinking water contained more than 0.15 mg/l aluminium compared with communities where the aluminium level was lower than 0.1 mg/l. A neurochemical model has been suggested linking aluminium exposure to brain disease. Aluminium concentrates in brain regions, notably the hippocampus, cerebral cortex and amygdala where it preferentially binds to large pyramid-shaped cells - it does not bind to a substantial degree to the smaller interneurons. Aluminium displaces magnesium in key metabolic reactions in brain cells and also interferes with calcium metabolism and inhibits phosphoinositide metabolism.

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Phosphoinositide normally controls calcium ion levels at critical concentrations.
Under the microscope the brain of AD sufferers show thickened fibrils (neurofibrillary tangles - NFT) and plaques consisting of amyloid protein deposited in the matrix between brain cells. Tangles result from alteration of 'tau' a brain cytoskeletal protein. AD tau is distinguished from normal tau because it is hyperphosphorylated. Aluminium hyperphosphorylates tau in vitro. When AD tau is injected into rat brain NFT-like aggregates form but soon degrade. Aluminium stabilises these aggregates rendering them resistant to protease degradation. Plaque formation is also enhanced by aluminium which induces the accumulation of amyloid precursor protein in the thread-like extensions of nerve cells (axons and dendrites). In addition aluminium has been shown to depress the activity of most neuro-transmitters similarly depressed in AD (acetylcholine, norepinephrine, glutamate and GABA).
Aluminium enters the brain in measurable quantities, even when trace levels are contained in a glass of tap water. Other sources of bioavailable aluminium include baking powder, antacids and aluminium products used for general food preparation and storage (over 12 months, aluminium levels in soft drink packed in aluminium cans rose from 0.05 to 0.9 mg/l). [*Walton, J and Bryson-Taylor, D. - Chemistry in Australia, August 1995*]
Bisphenol A diglycidyl ethers (BADGEs) produce sensitisation dermatitis characterised by a papular, vesicular eczema with considerable itching of the back of the hand, the forearm and face and neck. This lesion may persist for 10-14 days after withdrawal from exposure and recur immediately on re-exposure. This dermatitis may persist for longer periods following each exposure but is unlikely to become more intense. Lesions may develop a brownish colour and scaling occurs frequently. Lower molecular weight species produce sensitisation more readily.
In mice technical grades of bisphenol A diglycidyl ether produced epidermal tumours and a small increase in the incidence kidney tumours in males and of lymphoreticular/ haematopoietic tumours in females. Subcutaneous injection produced a small number of fibrosarcomas in rats. BADGE is listed as an IARC Group 3 carcinogen, meaning it is 'not classifiable as to its carcinogenicity to humans'. Concern has been raised over this possible carcinogenicity because BADGE is used in epoxy resins in the lining of some tin cans for foodstuffs, and unreacted BADGE may end up in the contents of those cans.
For some reactive diluents, prolonged or repeated skin contact may result in absorption of potentially harmful amounts or allergic skin reactions
Exposure to some reactive diluents (notably neopentylglycol diglycidyl ether, CAS RN:17557-23-2) has caused cancer in some animal testing.
All glycidyl ethers show genotoxic potential due their alkylating properties. Those glycidyl ethers that have been investigated in long term studies exhibit more or less marked carcinogenic potential. Alkylating agents may damage the stem cell which acts as the precursor to components of the blood. Loss of the stem cell may result in pancytopenia (a reduction in the number of red and white blood cells and platelets) with a latency period corresponding to the lifetime of the individual blood cells. Granulocytopenia (a reduction in granular leukocytes) develops within days and thrombocytopenia (a disorder involving platelets), within 1-2 weeks, whilst loss of erythrocytes (red blood cells) need months to become clinically manifest. Aplastic anaemia develops due to complete destruction of the stem cells.
Reported adverse effects in laboratory animals include sensitization, and skin and eye irritation, as well as mutagenic and tumorigenic activity..
Testicular abnormalities (including testicular atrophy with decreased spermatogenic activity) following exposure to glycidyl ethers have been reported. Haemopoietic abnormalities following exposure to glycidyl ethers, including alteration of the leukocyte count, atrophy of lymphoid tissue, and bone marrow cytotoxicity have also been reported. These abnormalities were usually observed along with pneumonia and/or toxemia, and therefore may be secondary effects. However, especially in light of the generalized reduction in leukocytes and the atrophy of lymphoid tissues, the observed haemopoietic abnormalities may have been predisposing factors to pneumonia. While none of the individual research reports are conclusive with respect to the ability of glycidyl ethers to produce permanent changes to the testes or haemopoietic system in laboratory animals, the pattern of displayed effects is reason for concern
Glycidyl ethers have been shown to cause allergic contact dermatitis in humans. Glycidyl ethers generally cause skin sensitization in experimental animals. Necrosis of the mucous membranes of the nasal cavities was induced in mice exposed to allyl glycidyl ether.
A study of workers with mixed exposures was inconclusive with regard to the effects of specific glycidyl ethers. Phenyl glycidyl ether, but not n-butyl glycidyl ether, induced morphological transformation in mammalian cells in vitro. n-Butyl glycidyl ether induced micronuclei in mice in vivo following intraperitoneal but not oral administration. Phenyl glycidyl ether did not induce micronuclei or chromosomal aberrations in vivo or chromosomal aberrations in animal cells in vitro. Alkyl C12 or C14 glycidyl ether did not induce DNA damage in cultured human cells or mutation in cultured animal cells. Allyl glycidyl ether induced mutation in Drosophila. The glycidyl ethers were generally mutagenic to bacteria.
Chronic intoxication with ionic bromides, historically, has resulted from medical use of bromides but not from environmental or occupational exposure; depression, hallucinosis, and schizophreniform psychosis can be seen in the absence of other signs of intoxication. Bromides may also induce sedation, irritability, agitation, delirium, memory loss, confusion, disorientation, forgetfulness (aphasias), dysarthria, weakness, fatigue, vertigo, stupor, coma, decreased appetite, nausea and vomiting, diarrhoea, hallucinations, an acne like rash on the face, legs and trunk, known as bronchoderma (seen in 25-30% of case involving bromide ion), and a profuse discharge from the nostrils (coryza). Ataxia and generalised hyperreflexia have also been observed. Correlation of neurologic symptoms with blood levels of bromide is inexact. The use of substances such as brompheniramine, as antihistamines, largely reflect current day usage of bromides; ionic bromides have been largely withdrawn from therapeutic use due to their toxicity.
In test animals, brominated vegetable oils (BVOs), historically used as emulsifiers in certain soda-based soft drinks, produced damage to the heart and kidneys in addition to increasing fat deposits in these organs. In extreme cases BVO caused testicular damage, stunted growth and produced lethargy and fatigue.
Brominism produces slurred speech, apathy, headache, decreased memory, anorexia and drowsiness, psychosis resembling paranoid schizophrenia, and personality changes
Several cases of foetal abnormalities have been described in mothers who took large doses of bromides during pregnancy.
Reproductive effects caused by bromide (which crosses the placenta) include central nervous system depression, brominism, and bronchoderma in the newborn.
Repeated or prolonged exposure to antimony and its compounds may produce stomatitis, dry throat, metallic taste, gingivitis, septal and laryngeal perforation, laryngitis, headache, dyspnea, indigestion, nausea, vomiting, diarrhoea, anorexia, anaemia, weight loss, pain and chest tightness, sleeplessness, muscular pain and weakness, dizziness, pharyngitis,tracheitis, bronchitis, pneumonitis, benign pneumoconiosis (with obstructive lung disease and emphysema) and haematological disorders. Degenerative changes of the liver and kidney may occur. Symptoms can be variable, and may including fatigue, myopathy (muscle aches and inflammation), hypotension, angina and immune dysregulation and hypertrophy of splenic follicles.
Antimony's deposition in body tissues and its detrimental effects depend upon the oxidation state of the element. The trivalent antimony compounds are cardiotoxic. Trivalent antimony affects liver functions, impairs enzymes, and may interfere with sulfur chemistry. If antimony impairs phosphofructokinase (PFK), then purine metabolism may be disrupted, resulting in elevated blood and/or urine levels of hypoxanthine, uric acid and possibly ammonia. Pentavalent antimony deposits in bone, kidney, and in organs of the endocrine system.
Chronic exposure to antimony compounds may result in itchiness, papules and pustules around sweat and sebaceous glands ('antimony spots'), but rarely around the face, and dermatitis.
Collapse and sudden death due to anaphylactic-type reactions have occurred. Therapeutic doses given intravenously cause nausea, vomiting, cough and abdominal pain and diarrhoea. Other side-effects include anorexia, chest, muscle and joint pains, pruritus, skin rashes, dizziness and oedema. Renal and hepatic damage occur rarely and haemolytic anaemia has been reported. Continuous treatment with small doses of antimony may give rise to subacute poisoning similar to chronic arsenic poisoning.
Smelter workers often show skin rashes on the forearms and thighs resembling chicken pox pustules.
Workers exposed to inorganic antimony compounds show a benign pneumoconiosis and obstructive lung disease - these are probably non-specific. Woman appear to more susceptible to systemic effects following exposure. Antimony crosses the placenta, is present in amniotic fluids, and is excreted in breast milk. There are suggestions that exposure may produce an increased incidence of spontaneous late abortions, premature births, and gynecological problems among female antimony smelter workers. An excess of deaths from lung cancer has been reported in smelter workers with more than 7 years exposure to relatively high levels of dust and fume. Animal studies demonstrate that the dust may produce pathological changes in cardiac muscle and may produce an interstitial pneumonitis and endogenous pneumonia. One animal study has also suggested that inhalation of the dust by rats induced a significantly increased incidence of carcinogenic tumours of the lungs and thorax.
Increased chromosome defects occur when human lymphocytes are incubated with a soluble antimony salt.
The inhalation data suggests that the myocardium is a target of antimony toxicity. It is possible that antimony affects circulating glucose by interfering with enzymes of the glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis pathways. The mechanism of action of antimony remains unclear. However, some studies suggest that antimony combines with sulfhydryl groups including those in several enzymes important for tissue respiration

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834ATH-A ATH Flame Retardant Epoxy: Encapsulating and Potting Compound (Part A)

TOXICITY	IRRITATION
Not Available	Not Available

bisphenol A/ diglycidyl ether polymer, high molecular weight

TOXICITY	IRRITATION
dermal (rat) LD50: >1200 mg/kg[2]	Eye (rabbit): 100 mg - mild
Oral (rat) LD50: >1000 mg/kg[2]	

alumina hydrate

TOXICITY	IRRITATION
Oral (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]

decabromodiphenylethane

TOXICITY	IRRITATION
dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[2]	Not Available
Oral (rat) LD50: >5000 mg/kg[2]	

(C12-14)alkylglycidyl ether

TOXICITY	IRRITATION
Oral (rat) LD50: >10000 mg/kg[2]	Eye (rabbit): mild [Ciba]
	Eye: adverse effect observed (irritating)[1]
	Skin (guinea pig): sensitiser
	Skin (human): Irritant
	Skin (human): non- sensitiser
	Skin (rabbit): moderate
	Skin : Moderate
	Skin: adverse effect observed (irritating)[1]

zinc borate hydrate

TOXICITY	IRRITATION
Dermal (rabbit) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Eye: adverse effect observed (irritating)[1]
Oral (rat) LD50: >5000 mg/kg[1]	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]

antimony trioxide

TOXICITY	IRRITATION
Oral (rat) LD50: >34000 mg/kg[2]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]

naphtha petroleum, heavy alkylate

TOXICITY	IRRITATION
Dermal (rabbit) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[2]	Not Available
Inhalation (rat) LC50: >3.83 mg/l/4H[2]	
Oral (rat) LD50: >7000 mg/kg[2]	

carbon black

TOXICITY	IRRITATION
dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
Oral (rat) LD50: >15400 mg/kg[2]	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]

Legend: *1. Value obtained from Europe ECHA Registered Substances - Acute toxicity 2.* Value obtained from manufacturer's SDS. Unless otherwise specified data extracted from RTECS - Register of Toxic Effect of chemical Substances*

834ATH-A ATH Flame Retardant Epoxy: Encapsulating and Potting Compound (Part A)

For aluminium compounds:
Aluminium present in food and drinking water is poorly absorbed through the gastrointestinal tract. The bioavailability of aluminium is dependent on the form in which it is ingested and the presence of dietary constituents with which the metal cation can complex Ligands in food can have a marked effect on absorption of aluminium, as they can either enhance uptake by forming absorbable (usually water soluble) complexes (e.g., with carboxylic acids such as citric and lactic), or reduce it by forming insoluble compounds (e.g., with phosphate or dissolved silicate).
Considering the available human and animal data it is likely that the oral absorption of aluminium can vary 10-fold based on chemical form alone. Although bioavailability appears to generally parallel water solubility, insufficient data are available to directly extrapolate from solubility in water to bioavailability.
For oral intake from food, the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) has derived a tolerable weekly intake (TWI) of 1 milligram (mg) of aluminium per kilogram of bodyweight. In its health assessment, the EFSA states a medium bioavailability of 0.1 % for all aluminium compounds which are ingested with food. This corresponds to a systemically available tolerable daily dose of 0.143 microgrammes (µg) per kilogramme (kg) of body weight. This means that for an adult weighing 60 kg, a systemically available dose of 8.6 µg per day is considered safe.

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Based on a neuro-developmental toxicity study of aluminium citrate administered via drinking water to rats, the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives (JECFA) established a Provisional Tolerable Weekly Intake (PTWI) of 2 mg/kg bw (expressed as aluminium) for all aluminium compounds in food, including food additives. The Committee on Toxicity of chemicals in food, consumer products and the environment (COT) considers that the derivation of this PTWI was sound and that it should be used in assessing potential risks from dietary exposure to aluminium.

The Federal Institute for Risk Assessment (BfR) of Germany has assessed the estimated aluminium absorption from antiperspirants. For this purpose, the data, derived from experimental studies, on dermal absorption of aluminium from antiperspirants for healthy and damaged skin was used as a basis. At about 10.5 µg, the calculated systemic intake values for healthy skin are above the 8.6 µg per day that are considered safe for an adult weighing 60 kg. If aluminium -containing antiperspirants are used on a daily basis, the tolerable weekly intake determined by the EFSA is therefore exceeded. The values for damaged skin, for example injuries from shaving, are many times higher. This means that in case of daily use of an aluminium-containing antiperspirant alone, the TWI may be completely exhausted. In addition, further aluminium absorption sources such as food, cooking utensils and other cosmetic products must be taken into account

Systemic toxicity after repeated exposure

No studies were located regarding dermal effects in animals following intermediate or chronic-duration dermal exposure to various forms of aluminium.

When orally administered to rats, aluminium compounds (including aluminium nitrate, aluminium sulfate and potassium aluminium sulfate) have produced various effects, including decreased gain in body weight and mild histopathological changes in the spleen, kidney and liver of rats (104 mg Al/kg bw/day) and dogs (88-93 mg Al/kg bw/day) during subchronic oral exposure. Effects on nerve cells, testes, bone and stomach have been reported at higher doses. Severity of effects increased with dose.

The main toxic effects of aluminium that have been observed in experimental animals are neurotoxicity and nephrotoxicity. Neurotoxicity has also been described in patients dialysed with water containing high concentrations of aluminium, but epidemiological data on possible adverse effects in humans at lower exposures are inconsistent

Reproductive and developmental toxicity:

Studies of reproductive toxicity in male mice (intraperitoneal or subcutaneous administration of aluminium nitrate or chloride) and rabbits (administration of aluminium chloride by gavage) have demonstrated the ability of aluminium to cause testicular toxicity, decreased sperm quality in mice and rabbits and reduced fertility in mice. No reproductive toxicity was seen in females given aluminium nitrate by gavage or dissolved in drinking water. Multi-generation reproductive studies in which aluminium sulfate and aluminium ammonium sulfate were administered to rats in drinking water, showed no evidence of reproductive toxicity

High doses of aluminium compounds given by gavage have induced signs of embryotoxicity in mice and rats in particular, reduced fetal body weight or pup weight at birth and delayed ossification. Developmental toxicity studies in which aluminium chloride was administered by gavage to pregnant rats showed evidence of foetotoxicity, but it was unclear whether the findings were secondary to maternal toxicity. A twelve-month neuro-development with aluminium citrate administered via the drinking water to Sprague-Dawley rats, was conducted according to Good Laboratory Practice (GLP). Aluminium citrate was selected for the study since it is the most soluble and bioavailable aluminium salt. Pregnant rats were exposed to aluminium citrate from gestational day 6 through lactation, and then the offspring were exposed post-weaning until postnatal day 364. An extensive functional observational battery of tests was performed at various times. Evidence of aluminium toxicity was demonstrated in the high (300 mg/kg bw/day of aluminium) and to a lesser extent, the mid-dose groups (100 mg/kg bw/day of aluminium). In the high-dose group, the main effect was renal damage, resulting in high mortality in the male offspring. No major neurological pathology or neurobehavioural effects were observed, other than in the neuromuscular subdomain (reduced grip strength and increased foot splay). Thus, the lowest observed adverse effect level (LOAEL) was 100 mg/kg bw/day and the no observed adverse effect level (NOAEL) was 30 mg/kg bw/day. Bioavailability of aluminium chloride, sulfate and nitrate and aluminium hydroxide was much lower than that of aluminium citrate This study was used by JECFA as key study to derive the PTWI.

Genotoxicity

Aluminium compounds were non-mutagenic in bacterial and mammalian cell systems, but some produced DNA damage and effects on chromosome integrity and segregation in vitro. Clastogenic effects were also observed in vivo when aluminium sulfate was administered at high doses by gavage or by the intraperitoneal route. Several indirect mechanisms have been proposed to explain the variety of genotoxic effects elicited by aluminium salts in experimental systems. Cross-linking of DNA with chromosomal proteins, interaction with microtubule assembly and mitotic spindle functioning, induction of oxidative damage, damage of lysosomal membranes with liberation of DNAase, have been suggested to explain the induction of structural chromosomal aberrations, sister chromatid exchanges, chromosome loss and formation of oxidized bases in experimental systems. The EFSA Panel noted that these indirect mechanisms of genotoxicity, occurring at relatively high levels of exposure, are unlikely to be of relevance for humans exposed to aluminium via the diet. Aluminium compounds do not cause gene mutations in either bacteria or mammalian cells. Exposure to aluminium compounds does result in both structural and numerical chromosome aberrations both in in-vitro and in-vivo mutagenicity tests. DNA damage is probably the result of indirect mechanisms. The DNA damage was observed only at high exposure levels.

Carcinogenicity.

The available epidemiological studies provide limited evidence that certain exposures in the aluminium production industry are carcinogenic to humans, giving rise to cancer of the lung and bladder. However, the aluminium exposure was confounded by exposure to other agents including polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, aromatic amines, nitro compounds and asbestos. There is no evidence of increased cancer risk in non-occupationally exposed persons.

Neurodegenerative diseases.

Following the observation that high levels of aluminium in dialysis fluid could cause a form of dementia in dialysis patients, a number of studies were carried out to determine if aluminium could cause dementia or cognitive impairment as a consequence of environmental exposure over long periods. Aluminium was identified, along with other elements, in the amyloid plaques that are one of the diagnostic lesions in the brain for Alzheimer disease, a common form of senile and pre-senile dementia. some of the epidemiology studies suggest the possibility of an association of Alzheimer disease with aluminium in water, but other studies do not confirm this association. All studies lack information on ingestion of aluminium from food and how concentrations of aluminium in food affect the association between aluminium in water and Alzheimer disease." There are suggestions that persons with some genetic variants may absorb more aluminium than others, but there is a need for more analytical research to determine whether aluminium from various sources has a significant causal association with Alzheimer disease and other neurodegenerative diseases.Aluminium is a neurotoxicant in experimental animals. However, most of the animal studies performed have several limitations and therefore cannot be used for quantitative risk assessment.

Contact sensitivity:

It has been suggested that the body burden of aluminium may be linked to different iseases. Macrophagic myofasciitis and chronic fatigue syndrome can be caused by aluminium-containing adjuvants in vaccines. Macrophagic myofasciitis (MMF) has been described as a disease in adults presenting with ascending myalgia and severe fatigue following exposure to aluminium hydroxide-containing vaccines The corresponding histological findings include aluminium-containing macrophages infiltrating muscle tissue at the injection site. The hypothesis is that the long-lasting granuloma triggers the development of the systemic syndrome.

Aluminium acts not only as an adjuvant,stimulating the immune system either to fend off infections or to tolerate antigens, it also acts as a sensitisers causing contact allergy and allergic contact dermatitis. In general, metal allergies are very common and aluminium is considered to be a weak allergen. A metal must be ionised to be able to act as a contact allergen, then it has to undergo haptenisation to be immunogenic and to initiate an immune response.Once inside the skin, the metal ions must bind to proteins to become immunologically reactive.The most important routes of exposure and sensitisation to aluminium are through aluminium-containing vaccines. One Swedish study showed a statistically significant association between contact allergy to aluminium and persistent itching nodules in children treated with allergen-specific immunotherapy (ASIT) Nodules were overrepresented in patients with contact allergy to aluminium

Other routes of sensitisation reported in the literature are the prolonged use of aluminium-containing antiperspirants, topical medication, and tattooing of the skin with aluminium-containing pigments. Most of the patients experienced eczematous reactions whereas tattooing caused granulomas. Even though aluminium is used extensively in industry, only a low number of cases of occupational skin sensitisation to aluminium have been reported Systemic allergic contact dermatitis in the form of flare-up reactions after re-exposure to aluminium has been documented: pruritic nodules at present and previous injection sites, eczema at the site of vaccination as well as at typically atopic localisations after vaccination with aluminium-containing vaccines and/or patch testing with aluminium, and also after use of aluminium-

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	containing toothpaste Bisphenol A diglycidyl ethers (BADGEs) produce sensitisation dermatitis characterised by a papular, vesicular eczema with considerable itching of the back of the hand, the forearm and face and neck. This lesion may persist for 10-14 days after withdrawal from exposure and recur immediately on re-exposure. This dermatitis may persist for longer periods following each exposure but is unlikely to become more intense. Lesions may develop a brownish colour and scaling occurs frequently. Lower molecular weight species produce sensitisation more readily. In mice technical grades of bisphenol A diglycidyl ether produced epidermal tumours and a small increase in the incidence kidney tumours in males and of lymphoreticular/ haematopoietic tumours in females. Subcutaneous injection produced a small number of fibrosarcomas in rats. BADGE is listed as an IARC Group 3 carcinogen, meaning it is 'not classifiable as to its carcinogenicity to humans'. Concern has been raised over this possible carcinogenicity because BADGE is used in epoxy resins in the lining of some tin cans for foodstuffs, and unreacted BADGE may end up in the contents of those cans. Bisphenol A exhibits hormone-like properties that raise concern about its suitability in consumer products and food containers. Bisphenol A is thought to be an endocrine disruptor which can mimic oestrogen and may lead to negative health effects. More specifically, bisphenol A closely mimics the structure and function of the hormone oestradiol with the ability to bind to and activate the same oestrogen receptor as the natural hormone.. Early developmental stages appear to be the period of greatest sensitivity to its effects and some studies have linked prenatal exposure to later physical and neurological difficulties. Regulatory bodies have determined safety levels for humans, but those safety levels are being questioned or are under review. A 2009 study on Chinese workers in bisphenol A factories found that workers were four times more likely to report erectile dysfunction, reduced sexual desire and overall dissatisfaction with their sex life than workers with no heightened bisphenol A exposure. Bisphenol A workers were also seven times more likely to have ejaculation difficulties. They were also more likely to report reduced sexual function within one year of beginning employment at the factory, and the higher the exposure, the more likely they were to have sexual difficulties. Bisphenol A in weak concentrations is sufficient to produce a negative reaction on the human testicle. The researchers found that a concentration equal to 2 ug/ litre of bisphenol A in the culture medium, a concentration equal to the average concentration generally found in the blood, urine and amniotic fluid of the population, was sufficient to produce the effects. The researchers believe that exposure of pregnant women to bisphenol A may be one of the causes of congenital masculinisation defects of the hypospadia and cryptorchidism types the frequency of which has doubled overall since the 70's. They also suggested that 'it is also possible that bisphenol A contributes to a reduction in the production of sperm and the increase in the incidence of testicular cancer in adults that have been observed in recent decades' One review has concluded that obesity may be increased as a function of bisphenol A exposure, which '...merits concern among scientists and public health officials' One study demonstrated that adverse neurological effects occur in non-human primates regularly exposed to bisphenol A at levels equal to the United States Environmental Protection Agency's (EPA) maximum safe dose of 50 ug/kg/day This research found a connection between bisphenol A and interference with brain cell connections vital to memory, learning, and mood. A further review concluded that bisphenol-A has been shown to bind to thyroid hormone receptor and perhaps have selective effects on its functions. Carcinogenicity studies have shown increases in leukaemia and testicular interstitial cell tumours in male rats. However, 'these studies have not been considered as convincing evidence of a potential cancer risk because of the doubtful statistical significance of the small differences in incidences from controls'. Another in vitro study has concluded that bisphenol A is able to induce neoplastic transformation in human breast epithelial cells.[whilst a further study concluded that maternal oral exposure to low concentrations of bisphenol A, during lactation, increases mammary carcinogenesis in a rodent model. In vitro studies have suggested that bisphenol A can promote the growth of neuroblastoma cells and potently promotes invasion and metastasis of neuroblastoma cells. Newborn rats exposed to a low-dose of bisphenol A (10 ug/kg) showed increased prostate cancer susceptibility when adults. At least one study has suggested that bisphenol A suppresses DNA methylation which is involved in epigenetic changes. Bisphenol A is the isopropyl adduct of 4,4'-dihydroxydiphenyl oxide (DHDPO). A series of DHDPO analogues have been investigated as potential oestrogen receptor/anti-tumour drug carriers in the development of a class of therapeutic drugs called 'cytostatic hormones'. Oestrogenic activity is induced with 1 to 100 mg/kg body weight in animal models. Bisphenol A sealants are frequently used in dentistry for treatment of dental pits and fissures. Samples of saliva collected from dental patients during a 1-hour period following application contain the monomer. A bisphenol-A sealant has been shown to be oestrogenic in vitro; such sealants may represent an additional source of xenoestrogens in humans and may be the cause of additional concerns in children. Concerns have been raised about the possible developmental effects on the foetus/embryo or neonate resulting from the leaching of bisphenol A from epoxy linings in metal cans which come in contact with food-stuffs. Many drugs, including naproxen, salicylic acid, carbamazepine and mefenamic acid can, in vitro, significantly inhibit bisphenol A glucuronidation (detoxification). All glycidyl ethers show genotoxic potential due their alkylating properties. Those glycidyl ethers that have been investigated in long term studies exhibit more or less marked carcinogenic potential. Alkylating agents may damage the stem cell which acts as the precursor to components of the blood. Loss of the stem cell may result in pancytopenia (a reduction in the number of red and white blood cells and platelets) with a latency period corresponding to the lifetime of the individual blood cells. Granulocytopenia (a reduction in granular leukocytes) develops within days and thrombocytopenia (a disorder involving platelets), within 1-2 weeks, whilst loss of erythrocytes (red blood cells) need months to become clinically manifest. Aplastic anaemia develops due to complete destruction of the stem cells. Reported adverse effects in laboratory animals include sensitization, and skin and eye irritation, as well as mutagenic and tumorigenic activity.. Testicular abnormalities (including testicular atrophy with decreased spermatogenic activity) following exposure to glycidyl ethers have been reported. Haemopoietic abnormalities following exposure to glycidyl ethers, including alteration of the leukocyte count, atrophy of lymphoid tissue, and bone marrow cytotoxicity have also been reported. These abnormalities were usually observed along with pneumonia and/or toxemia, and therefore may be secondary effects. However, especially in light of the generalized reduction in leukocytes and the atrophy of lymphoid tissues, the observed haemopoietic abnormalities may have been predisposing factors to pneumonia. While none of the individual research reports are conclusive with respect to the ability of glycidyl ethers to produce permanent changes to the testes or haemopoietic system in laboratory animals, the pattern of displayed effects is reason for concern Glycidyl ethers have been shown to cause allergic contact dermatitis in humans. Glycidyl ethers generally cause skin sensitization in experimental animals. Necrosis of the mucous membranes of the nasal cavities was induced in mice exposed to allyl glycidyl ether. A study of workers with mixed exposures was inconclusive with regard to the effects of specific glycidyl ethers. Phenyl glycidyl ether, but not n-butyl glycidyl ether, induced morphological transformation in mammalian cells in vitro. n-Butyl glycidyl ether induced micronuclei in mice in vivo following intraperitoneal but not oral administration. Phenyl glycidyl ether did not induce micronuclei or chromosomal aberrations in vivo or chromosomal aberrations in animal cells in vitro. Alkyl C12 or C14 glycidyl ether did not induce DNA damage in cultured human cells or mutation in cultured animal cells. Allyl glycidyl ether induced mutation in Drosophila. The glycidyl ethers were generally mutagenic to bacteria.
BISPHENOL A/ DIGLYCIDYL ETHER POLYMER, HIGH MOLECULAR WEIGHT	for RTECS No: SL 6475000: (liquid grade) Equivocal tumourigen by RTECS criteria Somnolence, dyspnea, peritonitis The material may produce severe irritation to the eye causing pronounced inflammation. Repeated or prolonged exposure to irritants may produce conjunctivitis. The material may cause skin irritation after prolonged or repeated exposure and may produce a contact dermatitis (nonallergic). This form of dermatitis is often characterised by skin redness (erythema) and swelling the epidermis. Histologically there may be intercellular oedema of the spongy layer (spongiosis) and intracellular oedema of the epidermis.
DECABROMODIPHENYLETHANE	The primary health concerns revolve around the potential of polybrominated fire retardants (PBFRs) to act as carcinogens, endocrine disruptors and neurodevelopmental toxicants based on data for some members of this class of chemicals. In addition, their structural similarities to the polychlorinated diphenyl ethers (PCDEs), nitrofen and polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) lends further support to concerns for health effects exerted by these chemicals. Three PBFRs, the penta-, octa- and decabromodipheyl ethers (BDPE)s, have been and remain of significant commercial interest. Nonetheless, the field of PBFRs is expanding and a diverse range of these chemicals are now available . Emphasis on the health effects of PBFRs is directed to certain chemical compounds within this class, namely decabromodipehyl ether (DBDPE), pentabromodipheyl ether

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	(PeBDPE), octabromodiphemyl ether (OBDPE) and hexabromocyclododecane (HBCD). Also discussed are the polybrominated biphenyls (PCBs) and tris(2,3-dibromopropylphosphate (TDBPP), though no longer used, due to their significant adverse health effects. The PBFRs are a structurally diverse group of chemical compounds, some of which share similarities in chemical structure while others vary significantly. Pharmacokinetic studies are limited for most of the chemicals . However, the available information indicates that some brominated flame retardants such as tetrabromodiphenyl ether (TBDPE), HBCD, TDBPP and PBBs are readily absorbed via the gastrointestinal tract. Data available for the polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDPE)s and PBBs indicate that the degree of gastrointestinal absorption is inversely proportional to the level of bromination. Dermal absorption has also been reported for TDBPP. They are generally of low acute toxicity with no or slight and transient irritation to the skin and eyes of experimental animals. Inhalation studies in animals revealed that exposure to PBDPEs caused transient respiratory difficulties. Like the PBDPEs, tetrabromobisphenol A (TBBPA) and its derivatives have low acute and repeated dose toxicity. They are neither skin or eye irritants nor skin sensitisers in experimental animals. Reversible respiratory effects were reported following inhalation exposure. With a few exceptions, mutagenicity studies indicate that the majority of the PBRs are neither mutagenic to microbial or eukaryotic organisms nor genotoxic in experimental *in vivo* and *in vitro* systems. TBDPE and HBCD caused an increase in the recombination frequency in some cell lines. Of the commercially and commonly used PBFRs, penta- and tetra-bromodiphenyl ethers appear to be of greatest significance where health effects are concerned. Evidence indicates that the liver, and possibly the thyroid, are the organs most sensitive to these chemicals. According to available data, they are endocrine disruptors and neurodevelopmental toxicants in experimental animals. Whether neurodevelopmental effects are a consequence of changes in thyroid hormone levels or are caused by direct neurotoxicity remain to be elucidated. The absence of clinical, physiological and biochemical correlates precludes any conclusions as to the nature of the mechanisms involved. PeBDPE has been classified as a hazardous chemical, Harmful- Danger of Serious Damage to Health by Prolonged Exposure in Contact with Skin and if Swallowed. A similar toxicity profile is apparent for TBDPE. OBDPE is another chemical of concern due to its adverse effects on reproduction in experimental animals. The two other groups with significant adverse health effects are TDBPP and PBBs. Although both have relatively low acute toxicity in experimental animals, evidence for carcinogenicity, endocrine disruption and reproductive effects exists. Little human data is available, however, epidemiological reports and follow up studies indicate that PBDPE, TDBPP and PBBs are absorbed and can be detected in the serum, adipose tissue and breast milk of directly and/or indirectly exposed individuals. The available evidence indicates that, in some countries, levels of these chemicals are increasing in animal and human tissues (including breast milk), which suggests they are bioaccumulative and persistent. Thyroid effects appear to be the major adverse health effect, with hypothyroidism seen in animals (e.g. OBDPE and PeBDPE, HBCD and PBB) and humans (e.g. DBDPE and deca-BB), although some PBFRs (e.g. DBDPE, TDBPP, HBCD and PBB) elicit carcinogenic effects in animal studies. **Blooming potential:** Blooming is defined as the migration (or more appropriately, diffusion) of an ingredient (e.g., plasticiser or flame retardant) in rubber or plastic material to the outer surface after curing. It is sometimes incorrectly referred to as 'leaching' or 'degassing'. Diffusion is generally considered to be a slow process. Blooming has been identified as a source of potential exposure (human and environmental) to PBFRs, particularly for low molecular weight additive PBFRs. It is generally accepted that 'reactive', PBFRs such as TBBPA (and derivatives) and esters of acrylic (propenoic) acid, which are directly incorporated into polymers (e.g., polyester or epoxy resins) via chemical reaction (i.e., covalent binding) have a low or negligible blooming potential, although such chemicals can also be used as non-reactive (i.e., additive) ingredients. So-called 'additive' PBFRs (e.g., PBDPEs, PBBs, HBCD) are more likely to be subject to blooming, as these compounds are not chemically bound to the polymer backbone. Additive PBFRs reside within the polymer matrix as discrete molecules, but may be subject to weak Van der Waals and electrostatic interaction both between PBFR molecules and with the polymer backbone. High molecular weight polymeric additive flame retardants such as brominated polystyrene are more likely to remain within the matrix due to the slow rate of diffusion. Other PBFRs may undergo both reactive and/or additive reactions with polymer matrices e.g., tetrabromophthalic anhydride and brominated polystyrenes. Increased temperature is also associated with an increase in the rate of PBFR migration. Release of PBFRs or degradation products may occur at high temperatures during thermal processing or recycling e.g. PBDPEs emissions have been reported during thermal recycling activities. Serious eye damage/ irritation Not irritant Respiratory or skin sensitisation Not a skin sensitizer Not mutagenic by the Ames Test. Did not induce chromosome aberrations in CHL cells when tested up to 5000 ug/mL in the presence or absence of S9 activation. Not clastogenic in chromosome aberration test with Human lymphocytes. Developmental toxicity Decabromodiphenyl ethane did not induce developmental effects in rats at doses up to 1250 mg/kg/d administered prenatally. (STOT) - Single exposure No effects on specific target organs have been identified (STOT) - Repeat exposure NOAEL 1000 mg/kg/day (13 weeks oral,rat) Does not meet classification criteria. *ICL SDS
ANTIMONY TRIOXIDE	The material may be irritating to the eye, with prolonged contact causing inflammation. Repeated or prolonged exposure to irritants may produce conjunctivitis. (intermittent) [CCINFO] Reproductive effector
NAPHTHA PETROLEUM, HEAVY ALKYLATE	For Low Boiling Point Naphthas (LBPNs): **Acute toxicity:** LBPNs generally have low acute toxicity by the oral (median lethal dose [LD50] in rats > 2000 mg/kg-bw), inhalation (LD50 in rats > 5000 mg/m3) and dermal (LD50 in rabbits > 2000 mg/kg-bw) routes of exposure Most LBPNs are mild to moderate eye and skin irritants in rabbits, with the exception of heavy catalytic cracked and heavy catalytic reformed naphthas, which have higher primary skin irritation indices. **Sensitisation:** LBPNs do not appear to be skin sensitizers, but a poor response in the positive control was also noted in these studies **Repeat dose toxicity:** The lowest-observed-adverse-effect concentration (LOAEC) and lowest-observed-adverse-effect level (LOAEL) values identified following short-term (2-89 days) and subchronic (greater than 90 days) exposure to the LBPN substances. These values were determined for a variety of endpoints after considering the toxicity data for all LBPNs in the group. Most of the studies were carried out by the inhalation route of exposure. Renal effects, including increased kidney weight, renal lesions (renal tubule dilation, necrosis) and hyaline droplet formation, observed in male rats exposed orally or by inhalation to most LBPNs, were considered species- and sex-specific These effects were determined to be due to a mechanism of action not relevant to humans -specifically, the interaction between hydrocarbon metabolites and alpha-2-microglobulin, an enzyme not produced in substantial amounts in female rats, mice and other species, including humans. The resulting nephrotoxicity and subsequent carcinogenesis in male rats were therefore not considered in deriving LOAEC/LOAEL values. Only a limited number of studies of short-term and subchronic duration were identified for site-restricted LBPNs. The lowest LOAEC identified in these studies, via the inhalation route, is 5475 mg/m3, based on a concentration-related increase in liver weight in both male and female rats following a 13-week exposure to light catalytic cracked naphtha. Shorter exposures of rats to this test substance resulted in nasal irritation at 9041 mg/m3 No systemic toxicity was reported following dermal exposure to light catalytic cracked naphtha, but skin irritation and accompanying histopathological changes were increased, in a dose-dependent manner, at doses as low as 30 mg/kg-bw per day when applied 5 days per week for 90 days in rats No non-cancer chronic toxicity studies (= 1 year) were identified for site-restricted LBPNs and very few non-cancer chronic toxicity studies were identified for other LBPNs. An LOAEC of 200 mg/m3 was noted in a chronic inhalation study that exposed mice and rats to unleaded gasoline (containing 2% benzene). This inhalation LOAEC was based on ocular discharge and ocular irritation in rats. At the higher concentration of 6170 mg/m3, increased kidney weight was observed in male and female rats (increased kidney weight was also observed in males only at 870 mg/m3). Furthermore, decreased body weight in male and female mice was also observed at 6170 mg/m3 A LOAEL of 714 mg/kg-bw was identified for dermal exposure based on local skin effects (inflammatory and degenerative skin changes) in mice following application of naphtha for 105 weeks. No systemic toxicity was reported. **Genotoxicity:** Although few genotoxicity studies were identified for the site-restricted LBPNs, the genotoxicity of several other LBPN substances has been evaluated using a variety of in vivo and in vitro assays. While in vivo genotoxicity assays were negative overall, the in vitro tests exhibited

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mixed results.
For in vivo genotoxicity tests, LBPNs exhibited negative results for chromosomal aberrations and micronuclei induction, but exhibited positive results in one sister chromatid exchange assay although this result was not considered definitive for clastogenic activity as no genetic material was unbalanced or lost. Mixtures that were tested, which included a number of light naphthas, displayed mixed results (i.e., both positive and negative for the same assay) for chromosomal aberrations and negative results for the dominant lethal mutation assay. Unleaded gasoline (containing 2% benzene) was tested for its ability to induce unscheduled deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) synthesis (UDS) and replicative DNA synthesis (RDS) in rodent hepatocytes and kidney cells. UDS and RDS were induced in mouse hepatocytes via oral exposure and RDS was induced in rat kidney cells via oral and inhalation exposure. Unleaded gasoline (benzene content not stated) exhibited negative results for chromosomal aberrations and the dominant lethal mutation assay and mixed results for atypical cell foci in rodent renal and hepatic cells.
For in vitro genotoxicity studies, LBPNs were negative for six out of seven Ames tests, and were also negative for UDS and for forward mutations LBPNs exhibited mixed or equivocal results for the mouse lymphoma and sister chromatid exchange assays, as well as for cell transformation and positive results for one bacterial DNA repair assay. Mixtures that were tested, which included a number of light naphthas, displayed negative results for the Ames and mouse lymphoma assays Gasoline exhibited negative results for the Ames test battery, the sister chromatid exchange assay and for one mutagenicity assay . Mixed results were observed for UDS and the mouse lymphoma assay.
While the majority of in vivo genotoxicity results for LBPN substances are negative, the potential for genotoxicity of LBPNs as a group cannot be discounted based on the mixed in vitro genotoxicity results.
Carcinogenicity:
Although a number of epidemiological studies have reported increases in the incidence of a variety of cancers, the majority of these studies are considered to contain incomplete or inadequate information. Limited data, however, are available for skin cancer and leukemia incidence, as well as mortality among petroleum refinery workers. It was concluded that there is limited evidence supporting the view that working in petroleum refineries entails a carcinogenic risk (Group 2A carcinogen). IARC (1989a) also classified gasoline as a Group 2B carcinogen; it considered the evidence for carcinogenicity in humans from gasoline to be inadequate and noted that published epidemiological studies had several limitations, including a lack of exposure data and the fact that it was not possible to separate the effects of combustion products from those of gasoline itself. Similar conclusions were drawn from other reviews of epidemiological studies for gasoline (US EPA 1987a, 1987b).
Thus, the evidence gathered from these epidemiological studies is considered to be inadequate to conclude on the effect
s of human exposure to LBPN substances.
No inhalation studies assessing the carcinogenicity of the site-restricted LBPNs were identified. Only unleaded gasoline has been examined for its carcinogenic potential, in several inhalation studies. In one study, rats and mice were exposed to 0, 200, 870 or 6170 mg/m3 of a 2% benzene formulation of the test substance, via inhalation, for approximately 2 years. A statistically significant increase in hepatocellular adenomas and carcinomas, as well as a non-statistical increase in renal tumours, were observed at the highest dose in female mice. A dose-dependent increase in the incidence of primary renal neoplasms was also detected in male rats, but this was not considered to be relevant to humans, as discussed previously.Carcinogenicity was also assessed for unleaded gasoline, via inhalation, as part of initiation/promotion studies. In these studies, unleaded gasoline did not appear to initiate tumour formation, but did show renal cell and hepatic tumour promotion ability, when rats and mice were exposed, via inhalation, for durations ranging from 13 weeks to approximately 1 year using an initiation/promotion protocol However, further examination of data relevant to the composition of unleaded gasoline demonstrated that this is a highly-regulated substance; it is expected to contain a lower percentage of benzene and has a discrete component profile when compared to other substances in the LBPN group.
Both the European Commission and the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) have classified LBPN substances as carcinogenic. All of these substances were classified by the European Commission (2008) as Category 2 (R45: may cause cancer) (benzene content = 0.1% by weight). IARC has classified gasoline, an LBPN, as a Group 2B carcinogen (possibly carcinogenic to humans) and “occupational exposures in petroleum refining” as Group 2A carcinogens (probably carcinogenic to humans).
Several studies were conducted on experimental animals to investigate the dermal carcinogenicity of LBPNs. The majority of these studies were conducted through exposure of mice to doses ranging from 694-1351 mg/kg-bw, for durations ranging from 1 year to the animals' lifetime or until a tumour persisted for 2 weeks. Given the route of exposure, the studies specifically examined the formation of skin tumours. Results for carcinogenicity via dermal exposure are mixed. Both malignant and benign skin tumours were induced with heavy catalytic cracked naphtha, light catalytic cracked naphtha, light
straight-run naphtha and naphtha Significant increases in squamous cell carcinomas were also observed when mice were dermally treated with Stoddard solvent, but the latter was administered as a mixture (90% test substance), and the details of the study were not available. In contrast, insignificant increases in tumour formation or no tumours were observed when light alkylate naphtha, heavy catalytic reformed naphtha, sweetened naphtha, light catalytically cracked naphtha
or unleaded gasoline was dermally applied to mice. Negative results for skin tumours were also observed in male mice dermally exposed to sweetened naphtha using an initiation/promotion protocol.
Reproductive/ Developmental toxicity:
No reproductive or developmental toxicity was observed for the majority of LBPN substances evaluated. Most of these studies were carried out by inhalation exposure in rodents.
NOAEC values for reproductive toxicity following inhalation exposure ranged from 1701 mg/m3 (CAS RN 8052-41-3) to 27 687 mg/m3 (CAS RN 64741-63-5) for the LBPNs group evaluated, and from 7690 mg/m3 to 27 059 mg/m3 for the site-restricted light catalytic cracked and full-range catalytic reformed naphthas. However, a decreased number of pups per litter and higher frequency of post-implantation loss were observed following inhalation exposure of female rats to hydrotreated heavy naphtha (CAS RN 64742-48-9) at a concentration of 4679 mg/m3, 6 hours per day, from gestational days 7-20. For dermal exposures, NOAEL values of 714 mg/kg-bw (CAS RN 8030-30-6) and 1000 mg/kg-bw per day (CAS RN 68513-02-0) were noted . For oral exposures, no adverse effects on reproductive parameters were reported when rats were given site-restricted light catalytic cracked naphtha at 2000 mg/kg on gestational day 13 .
For most LBPNs, no treatment-related developmental effects were observed by the different routes of exposure However, developmental toxicity was observed for a few naphthas. Decreased foetal body weight and an increased incidence of ossification variations were observed when rat dams were exposed to light aromatized solvent naphtha, by gavage, at 1250 mg/kg-bw per day. In addition, pregnant rats exposed by inhalation to hydrotreated heavy naphtha at 4679 mg/m3 delivered pups with higher birth weights. Cognitive and memory impairments were also observed in the offspring.
Low Boiling Point Naphthas [Site-Restricted]
Studies indicate that normal, branched and cyclic paraffins are absorbed from the mammalian gastrointestinal tract and that the absorption of n-paraffins is inversely proportional to the carbon chain length,with little absorption above C30. With respect to the carbon chain lengths likely to be present in mineral oil, n-paraffins may be absorbed to a greater extent that iso- or cyclo-paraffins.
The major classes of hydrocarbons have been shown to be well absorbed by the gastrointestinal tract in various species. In many cases, the hydrophobic hydrocarbons are ingested in association with dietary lipids. The dependence of hydrocarbon absorption on concomitant triglyceride digestion and absorption,is known as the 'hydrocarbon continuum hypothesis', and asserts that a series of solubilising phases in the intestinal lumen, created by dietary triglycerides and their digestion products, afford hydrocarbons a route to the lipid phase of the intestinal absorptive cell (enterocyte) membrane. While some hydrocarbons may traverse the mucosal epithelium unmetabolised and appear as solutes in lipoprotein particles in intestinal lymph, there is evidence that most hydrocarbons partially separate from nutrient lipids and undergo metabolic transformation in the enterocyte. The enterocyte may play a major role in determining the proportion of an absorbed hydrocarbon that, by escaping initial biotransformation, becomes available for deposition in its unchanged form in peripheral tissues such as adipose tissue, or in the liver.
for petroleum:
Altered mental state, drowsiness, peripheral motor neuropathy, irreversible brain damage (so-called Petrol Sniffer's Encephalopathy), delirium, seizures, and sudden death have been reported from repeated overexposure to some hydrocarbon solvents, naphthas, and gasoline
This product may contain benzene which is known to cause acute myeloid leukaemia and n-hexane which has been shown to metabolize to compounds which are neuropathic.
This product contains toluene. There are indications from animal studies that prolonged exposure to high concentrations of toluene may lead to hearing loss.
This product contains ethyl benzene and naphthalene from which there is evidence of tumours in rodents

Continued...

	Carcinogenicity: Inhalation exposure to mice causes liver tumours, which are not considered relevant to humans. Inhalation exposure to rats causes kidney tumours which are not considered relevant to humans. **Mutagenicity:** There is a large database of mutagenicity studies on gasoline and gasoline blending streams, which use a wide variety of endpoints and give predominantly negative results. All in vivo studies in animals and recent studies in exposed humans (e.g. petrol service station attendants) have shown negative results in mutagenicity assays. **Reproductive Toxicity:** Repeated exposure of pregnant rats to high concentrations of toluene (around or exceeding 1000 ppm) can cause developmental effects, such as lower birth weight and developmental neurotoxicity, on the foetus. However, in a two-generation reproductive study in rats exposed to gasoline vapour condensate, no adverse effects on the foetus were observed. **Human Effects:** Prolonged/ repeated contact may cause defatting of the skin which can lead to dermatitis and may make the skin more susceptible to irritation and penetration by other materials. Lifetime exposure of rodents to gasoline produces carcinogenicity although the relevance to humans has been questioned. Gasoline induces kidney cancer in male rats as a consequence of accumulation of the alpha2-microglobulin protein in hyaline droplets in the male (but not female) rat kidney. Such abnormal accumulation represents lysosomal overload and leads to chronic renal tubular cell degeneration, accumulation of cell debris, mineralisation of renal medullary tubules and necrosis. A sustained regenerative proliferation occurs in epithelial cells with subsequent neoplastic transformation with continued exposure. The alpha2-microglobulin is produced under the influence of hormonal controls in male rats but not in females and, more importantly, not in humans.
CARBON BLACK	Inhalation (rat) TCLo: 50 mg/m3/6h/90D-I Nil reported
834ATH-A ATH Flame Retardant Epoxy: Encapsulating and Potting Compound (Part A) & BISPHENOL A/ DIGLYCIDYL ETHER POLYMER, HIGH MOLECULAR WEIGHT & (C12-14)ALKYLGLYCIDYL ETHER	The following information refers to contact allergens as a group and may not be specific to this product. Contact allergies quickly manifest themselves as contact eczema, more rarely as urticaria or Quincke's oedema. The pathogenesis of contact eczema involves a cell-mediated (T lymphocytes) immune reaction of the delayed type. Other allergic skin reactions, e.g. contact urticaria, involve antibody-mediated immune reactions. The significance of the contact allergen is not simply determined by its sensitisation potential: the distribution of the substance and the opportunities for contact with it are equally important. A weakly sensitising substance which is widely distributed can be a more important allergen than one with stronger sensitising potential with which few individuals come into contact. From a clinical point of view, substances are noteworthy if they produce an allergic test reaction in more than 1% of the persons tested.
834ATH-A ATH Flame Retardant Epoxy: Encapsulating and Potting Compound (Part A) & BISPHENOL A/ DIGLYCIDYL ETHER POLYMER, HIGH MOLECULAR WEIGHT	In mice, dermal application of bisphenol A diglycidyl ether (BADGE) (1, 10, or 100 mg/kg) for 13 weeks produced mild to moderate chronic active dermatitis. At the high dose, spongiosis and epidermal micro abscess formation were observed. In rats, dermal application of BADGE (10, 100, or 1000 mg/kg) for 13 weeks resulted in a decrease in body weight at the high dose. The no-observable effect level (NOEL) for dermal exposure was 100 mg/kg for both sexes. In a separate study, application of BADGE (same doses) five times per week for ~13 weeks not only caused a decrease in body weight but also produced chronic dermatitis at all dose levels in males and at >100 mg/kg in females (as well as in a satellite group of females given 1000 mg/kg). **Reproductive and Developmental Toxicity**: BADGE (50, 540, or 750 mg/kg) administered to rats via gavage for 14 weeks (P1) or 12 weeks (P2) produced decreased body weight in all males at the mid dose and in both males and females at the high dose, but had no reproductive effects. The NOEL for reproductive effects was 750 mg/kg. **Carcinogenicity:** IARC concluded that 'there is limited evidence for the carcinogenicity of bisphenol A diglycidyl ether in experimental animals.' Its overall evaluation was 'Bisphenol A diglycidyl ether is not classifiable as to its carcinogenicity to humans (Group 3). In a lifetime tumourigenicity study in which 90-day-old C3H mice received three dermal applications per week of BADGE (undiluted dose) for 23 months, only one out of 32 animals developed a papilloma after 16 months. A retest, in which skin paintings were done for 27 months, however, produced no tumours (Weil et al., 1963). In another lifetime skin-painting study, BADGE (dose n.p.) was also reported to be noncarcinogenic to the skin of C3H mice; it was, however, weakly carcinogenic to the skin of C57BL/6 mice (Holland et al., 1979; cited by Canter et al., 1986). In a two-year bioassay, female Fisher 344 rats dermally exposed to BADGE (1, 100, or 1000 mg/kg) showed no evidence of dermal carcinogenicity but did have low incidences of tumours in the oral cavity (U.S. EPA, 1997). **Genotoxicity**: In S. typhimurium strains TA100 and TA1535, BADGE (10-10,000 ug/plate) was mutagenic with and without S9; negative results were obtained in TA98 and TA1537 (Canter et al., 1986; Pullin, 1977). In a spot test, BADGE (0.05 or 10.00 mg) failed to show mutagenicity in strains TA98 and TA100 (Wade et al., 1979). Negative results were also obtained in the body fluid test using urine of female BDF and ICR mice (1000 mg/kg BADGE), the mouse host-mediated assay (1000 mg/kg), micronucleus test (1000 mg/kg), and dominant lethal assay (~3000 mg/kg). **Immunotoxicity:** Intracutaneous injection of diluted BADGE (0.1 mL) three times per week on alternate days (total of 8 injections) followed by a three-week incubation period and a challenge dose produced sensitisation in 19 of 20 guinea pigs - **Consumer exposure** to BADGE is almost exclusively from migration of BADGE from can coatings into food. Using a worst-case scenario that assumes BADGE migrates at the same level into all types of food, the estimated per capita daily intake for a 60-kg individual is approximately 0.16 ug/kg body weight/day. A review of one- and two-generation reproduction studies and developmental investigations found no evidence of reproductive or endocrine toxicity, the upper ranges of dosing being determined by maternal toxicity. The lack of endocrine toxicity in the reproductive and developmental toxicological tests is supported by negative results from both in vivo and in vitro assays designed specifically to detect oestrogenic and androgenic properties of BADGE. An examination of data from sub-chronic and chronic toxicological studies support a NOAEL of 50 mg/ kg/body weight day from the 90-day study, and a NOAEL of 15 mg/kg body weigh/day (male rats) from the 2-year carcinogenicity study. Both NOAELS are considered appropriate for risk assessment. Comparing the estimated daily human intake of 0.16 ug/kg body weight/day with the NOAELS of 50 and 15 mg/kg body weight/day shows human exposure to BADGE from can coatings is between 250,000 and 100,000-fold lower than the NOAELs from the most sensitive toxicology tests. These large margins of safety together with lack of reproductive, developmental, endocrine and carcinogenic effects supports the continued use of BADGE for use in articles intended to come into contact with foodstuffs. The chemical structure of hydroxylated diphenylalkanes or bisphenols consists of two phenolic rings joined together through a bridging carbon. This class of endocrine disruptors that mimic oestrogens is widely used in industry, particularly in plastics Bisphenol A (BPA) and some related compounds exhibit oestrogenic activity in human breast cancer cell line MCF-7, but there were remarkable differences in activity. Several derivatives of BPA exhibited significant thyroid hormonal activity towards rat pituitary cell line GH3, which releases growth hormone in a thyroid hormone-dependent manner. However, BPA and several other derivatives did not show such activity. Results suggest that the 4-hydroxyl group of the A-phenyl ring and the B-phenyl ring of BPA derivatives are required for these hormonal activities, and substituents at the 3,5-positions of the phenyl rings and the bridging alkyl moiety markedly influence the activities. Bisphenols promoted cell proliferation and increased the synthesis and secretion of cell type-specific proteins. When ranked by proliferative potency, the longer the alkyl substituent at the bridging carbon, the lower the concentration needed for maximal cell yield; the most active compound contained two propyl chains at the bridging carbon. Bisphenols with two hydroxyl groups in the para position and an angular configuration are suitable for appropriate hydrogen bonding to the acceptor site of the oestrogen receptor.
834ATH-A ATH Flame Retardant Epoxy: Encapsulating and Potting Compound (Part A) & (C12-14)ALKYLGLYCIDYL ETHER	Oxiranes (including glycidyl ethers and alkyl oxides, and epoxides) exhibit many common characteristics with respect to animal toxicology. One such oxirane is ethyloxirane; data presented here may be taken as representative. for 1,2-butylene oxide (ethyloxirane): Ethyloxirane increased the incidence of tumours of the respiratory system in male and female rats exposed via inhalation. Significant increases in nasal papillary adenomas and combined alveolar/bronchiolar adenomas and carcinomas were observed in male rats exposed to 1200 mg/m3 ethyloxirane via inhalation for 103 weeks. There was also a significant positive trend in the incidence of combined alveolar/bronchiolar adenomas and carcinomas. Nasal papillary adenomas were also observed in 2/50 high-dose female rats with none occurring in control or low-dose animals. In mice exposed chronically via inhalation, one male mouse developed a squamous cell papilloma in the nasal cavity (300 mg/m3) but other tumours were not observed. Tumours were not observed in mice exposed chronically via dermal exposure. When trichloroethylene containing 0.8% ethyloxirane was administered orally to mice for up to 35 weeks, followed by 0.4% from weeks 40 to 69, squamous-cell carcinomas of the forestomach occurred in 3/49 males (p=0.029, age-adjusted) and 1/48 females at week 106. Trichloroethylene administered alone did not induce these tumours and they were not observed in control animals . Two structurally related substances, oxirane (ethylene oxide) and methyloxirane (propylene oxide), which are also direct-acting alkylating agents, have been classified

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	as carcinogenic
ALUMINA HYDRATE & ZINC BORATE HYDRATE & CARBON BLACK	No significant acute toxicological data identified in literature search.
DECABROMODIPHENYLETHANE & ANTIMONY TRIOXIDE	Asthma-like symptoms may continue for months or even years after exposure to the material ceases. This may be due to a non-allergenic condition known as reactive airways dysfunction syndrome (RADS) which can occur following exposure to high levels of highly irritating compound. Key criteria for the diagnosis of RADS include the absence of preceding respiratory disease, in a non-atopic individual, with abrupt onset of persistent asthma-like symptoms within minutes to hours of a documented exposure to the irritant. A reversible airflow pattern, on spirometry, with the presence of moderate to severe bronchial hyperreactivity on methacholine challenge testing and the lack of minimal lymphocytic inflammation, without eosinophilia, have also been included in the criteria for diagnosis of RADS. RADS (or asthma) following an irritating inhalation is an infrequent disorder with rates related to the concentration of and duration of exposure to the irritating substance. Industrial bronchitis, on the other hand, is a disorder that occurs as result of exposure due to high concentrations of irritating substance (often particulate in nature) and is completely reversible after exposure ceases. The disorder is characterised by dyspnea, cough and mucus production.
DECABROMODIPHENYLETHANE	Specific Target Organ Toxicity
ANTIMONY TRIOXIDE & CARBON BLACK	**WARNING:** This substance has been classified by the IARC as Group 2B: Possibly Carcinogenic to Humans.

Acute Toxicity	✗	**Carcinogenicity**	✓
Skin Irritation/Corrosion	✓	**Reproductivity**	✗
Serious Eye Damage/Irritation	✓	**STOT - Single Exposure**	✗
Respiratory or Skin sensitisation	✓	**STOT - Repeated Exposure**	✗
Mutagenicity	✗	**Aspiration Hazard**	✗

Legend: ✗ *– Data either not available or does not fill the criteria for classification*
✓ *– Data available to make classification*

SECTION 12 ECOLOGICAL INFORMATION

12.1. Toxicity

834ATH-A ATH Flame Retardant Epoxy: Encapsulating and Potting Compound (Part A)

ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available

bisphenol A/ diglycidyl ether polymer, high molecular weight

ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
EC50	48	Crustacea	ca.2mg/L	2

alumina hydrate

ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
LC50	96	Fish	0.001-0.134mg/L	2
EC50	48	Crustacea	0.7364mg/L	2
EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.001-0.05mg/L	2
NOEC	168	Crustacea	0.001-mg/L	2

decabromodiphenylethane

ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
EC50	48	Crustacea	0.019mg/L	2
EC50	96	Algae or other aquatic plants	110mg/L	2

(C12-14)alkylglycidyl ether

ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
LC50	96	Fish	>5-mg/L	2
EC50	48	Crustacea	6.07mg/L	2
NOEC	48	Crustacea	<10mg/L	2

zinc borate hydrate

ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
LC50	96	Fish	0.001-0.58mg/L	2
EC50	48	Crustacea	0.001-0.014mg/L	2
NOEC	504	Crustacea	0.001-0.75mg/L	2

antimony trioxide

ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
LC50	96	Fish	0.93mg/L	2
EC50	48	Crustacea	1mg/L	2
EC50	96	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.61mg/L	2
NOEC	720	Fish	>0.0075mg/L	2

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naphtha petroleum, heavy alkylate

ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	=13mg/L	1
NOEC	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	=0.1mg/L	1

carbon black

ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
LC50	96	Fish	>100mg/L	2
EC50	48	Crustacea	>100mg/L	2
EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	>10-mg/L	2
EC10	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	>10-mg/L	2
NOEC	96	Fish	>=1-mg/L	2

Legend: *Extracted from 1. IUCLID Toxicity Data 2. Europe ECHA Registered Substances - Ecotoxicological Information - Aquatic Toxicity 3. EPIWIN Suite V3.12 (QSAR) - Aquatic Toxicity Data (Estimated) 4. US EPA, Ecotox database - Aquatic Toxicity Data 5. ECETOC Aquatic Hazard Assessment Data 6. NITE (Japan) - Bioconcentration Data 7. METI (Japan) - Bioconcentration Data 8. Vendor Data*

Very toxic to aquatic organisms, may cause long-term adverse effects in the aquatic environment.
Do NOT allow product to come in contact with surface waters or to intertidal areas below the mean high water mark. Do not contaminate water when cleaning equipment or disposing of equipment wash-waters.
Wastes resulting from use of the product must be disposed of on site or at approved waste sites.
For bisphenol A and related bisphenols:
Environmental fate:
Biodegradability (28 d) 89% - Easily biodegradable
Bioconcentration factor (BCF) 7.8 mg/l
Bisphenol A, its derivatives and analogues, can be released from polymers, resins and certain substances by metabolic products
Substance does not meet the criteria for PBT or vPvB according to Regulation (EC) No 1907/2006, Annex XIII
As an environmental contaminant, bisphenol A interferes with nitrogen fixation at the roots of leguminous plants associated with the bacterial symbiont Sinorhizobium meliloti. Despite a half-life in the soil of only 1-10 days, its ubiquity makes it an important pollutant. According to Environment Canada, 'initial assessment shows that at low levels, bisphenol A can harm fish and organisms over time. Studies also indicate that it can currently be found in municipal wastewater.' However, a study conducted in the United States found that 91-98% of bisphenol A may be removed from water during treatment at municipal water treatment plants.
Ecotoxicity:
Fish LC50 (96 h): 4.6 mg/l (freshwater fish); 11 mg/l (saltwater fish): NOEC 0.016 mg/l (freshwater fish- 144 d); 0.064 mg/l (saltwater fish 164 d)
Fresh water invertebrates EC50 (48 h): 10.2 mg/l: NOEC 0.025 mg/l - 328 d)
Marine water invertebrate EC50 (96 h): 1.1 mg/l; NOEC 0.17 mg/l (28 d)
Freshwater algae (96 h): 2.73 mg/l
Marine water algae (96 h): 1.1 mg/l
Fresh water plant EC50 (7 d): 20 mg/l: NOEC 7.8 mg/l
In general, studies have shown that bisphenol A can affect growth, reproduction and development in aquatic organisms.
Among freshwater organisms, fish appear to be the most sensitive species. Evidence of endocrine-related effects in fish, aquatic invertebrates, amphibians and reptiles has been reported at environmentally relevant exposure levels lower than those required for acute toxicity. There is a widespread variation in reported values for endocrine-related effects, but many fall in the range of 1 ug/L to 1 mg/L
A 2009 review of the biological impacts of plasticisers on wildlife published by the Royal Society with a focus on annelids (both aquatic and terrestrial), molluscs, crustaceans, insects, fish and amphibians concluded that bisphenol A has been shown to affect reproduction in all studied animal groups, to impair development in crustaceans and amphibians and to induce genetic aberrations.
A large 2010 study of two rivers in Canada found that areas contaminated with hormone-like chemicals including bisphenol A showed females made up 85 per cent of the population of a certain fish, while females made up only 55 per cent in uncontaminated areas.
Although abundant data are available on the toxicity of bisphenol-A (2,2-bis (4-hydroxydiphenyl)propane;(BPA) A variety of BPs were examined for their acute toxicity against Daphnia magna, mutagenicity, and oestrogenic activity using the Daphtoxkit (Creasel Ltd.), the umu test system, and the yeast two-hybrid system, respectively, in comparison with BPA. BPA was moderately toxic to D. magna (48-h EC50 was 10 mg/l) according to the current U.S. EPA acute toxicity evaluation standard, and it was weakly oestrogenic with 5 orders of magnitude lower activity than that of the natural estrogen 17 beta-oestradiol in the yeast screen, while no mutagenicity was observed. All seven BPs tested here showed moderate to slight acute toxicity, no mutagenicity, and weak oestrogenic activity as well as BPA. Some of the BPs showed considerably higher oestrogenic activity than BPA, and others exhibited much lower activity. Bisphenol S (bis(4-hydroxydiphenyl)sulfone) and bis(4-hydroxyphenyl)sulfide) showed oestrogenic activity.
Biodegradation is a major mechanism for eliminating various environmental pollutants. Studies on the biodegradation of bisphenols have mainly focused on bisphenol A. A number of BPA-degrading bacteria have been isolated from enrichments of sludge from wastewater treatment plants. The first step in the biodegradation of BPA is the hydroxylation of the carbon atom of a methyl group or the quaternary carbon in the BPA molecule. Judging from these features of the biodegradation mechanisms, it is possible that the same mechanism used for BPA is used to biodegrade all bisphenols that have at least one methyl or methylene group bonded at the carbon atom between the two phenol groups. However, bisphenol F ([bis(4-hydroxyphenyl)methane; BPF), which has no substituent at the bridging carbon, is unlikely to be metabolised by such a mechanism. Nevertheless BPF is readily degraded by river water microorganisms under aerobic conditions. From this evidence, it was clear that a specific mechanism for biodegradation of BPF does exist in the natural ecosystem,
Algae can enhance the photodegradation of bisphenols. The photodegradation rate of BPF increased with increasing algae concentration. Humic acid and Fe3+ ions also enhanced the photodegradation of BPF. The effect of pH value on the BPF photodegradation was also important.

Significant environmental findings are limited. Oxiranes (including glycidyl ethers and alkyl oxides, and epoxides) exhibit common characteristics with respect to environmental fate and ecotoxicology. One such oxirane is ethyloxirane and data presented here may be taken as representative.
for 1,2-butylene oxide (ethyloxirane):
Environmental fate: Ethyloxirane is highly soluble in water and has a very low soil-adsorption coefficient, which suggests that if released to water, adsorption of ethyloxirane to sediment and suspended solids is not expected. Volatilisation of ethyloxirane from water surfaces would be expected based on the moderate estimated Henry's Law constant. If ethyloxirane is released to soil, it is expected to have low adsorption and thus very high mobility. Volatilisation from moist soil and dry soil surfaces is expected, based on its vapour pressure. It is expected that ethyloxirane exists solely as a vapour in ambient atmosphere, based on its very high vapour pressure. Ethyloxirane may also be removed from the atmosphere by wet deposition processes, considering its relatively high water solubility.
Persistence: The half-life in air is about 5.6 days from the reaction of ethyloxirane with photochemically produced hydroxyl radicals which indicates that this chemical meets the persistence criterion in air (half-life of = 2 days)*.
Ethyloxirane is hydrolysable, with a half-life of 6.5 days, and biodegradable up to 100% degradation and is not expected to persist in water. A further model-predicted biodegradation half-life of 15 days in water was obtained and used to predict the half-life of this chemical in soil and sediment by applying Boethling's extrapolation factors (t1/2water : t1/2 soil : t1/2sediment = 1: 1: 4) (Boethling 1995). According to these values, it can be concluded that ethyloxirane does not meet the persistence criteria in water and soil (half-lives = 182 days) and sediments (half-life = 365 days).
Experimental and modelled log Kow values of 0.68 and 0.86, respectively, indicate that the potential for bioaccumulation of ethyloxirane in organisms is likely to be low. Modelled bioaccumulation -factor (BAF) and bioconcentration -factor (BCF) values of 1 to 17 L/kg indicate that ethyloxirane does not meet the bioaccumulation criteria (BCF/BAF = 5000)*
Ecotoxicity:
Experimental ecotoxicological data for ethyloxirane (OECD 2001) indicate low to moderate toxicity to aquatic organisms. For fish and water flea, acute LC50/EC50 values vary within a narrow range of 70-215 mg/L; for algae, toxicity values exceed 500 mg/L, while for bacteria they are close to 5000 mg/L

* *Persistence and Bioaccumulation Regulations* (Canada 2000).

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For boron and borates:

Environmental fate:

Boron is generally found in nature bound to oxygen and is never found as the free element. Atmospheric boron may be in the form of particulate matter or aerosols as borides, boron oxides, borates, boranes, organoboron compounds, trihalide boron compounds, or borazines. Borates are relatively soluble in water, and will probably be removed from the atmosphere by precipitation and dry deposition. The half-life of airborne particles is usually on the order of days, depending on the size of the particle and atmospheric conditions. Boron readily hydrolyses in water to form the electrically neutral, weak monobasic acid boric acid (H3BO3) and the monovalent ion, B(OH)4-. In concentrated solutions, boron may polymerise, leading to the formation of complex and diverse molecular arrangements. Because most environmentally relevant boron minerals are highly soluble in water, it is unlikely that mineral equilibria will control the fate of boron in water. Boron was found to not be significantly removed during the conventional treatment of waste water. Boron may, however, be co-precipitated with aluminum, silicon, or iron to form hydroxyborate compounds on the surfaces of minerals.

Waterborne boron may be adsorbed by soils and sediments. Adsorption-desorption reactions are expected to be the only significant mechanism that will influence the fate of boron in water. The extent of boron adsorption depends on the pH of the water and the chemical composition of the soil. The greatest adsorption is generally observed at pH 7.5-9.0. the single most important property of soil that will influence the mobility of boron is the abundance of amorphous aluminum oxide. The extent of boron adsorption has also been attributed to the levels of iron oxide, and to a lesser extent, the organic matter present in the soil, although other studies found that the amount of organic matter present was not important. The adsorption of boron may not be reversible in some soils. The lack of reversibility may be the result of solid-phase formation on mineral surfaces and/or the slow release of boron by diffusion from the interior of clay minerals.

It is unlikely that boron is bioconcentrated significantly by organisms from water. A bioconcentration factor (BCF) relates the concentration of a chemical in the tissues of aquatic and terrestrial animals or plants to the concentration of the chemical in water or soil. The BCFs of boron in marine and freshwater plants, fish, and invertebrates were estimated to be <100. Experimentally measured BCFs for fish have ranged from 52 to 198. These BCFs suggest that boron is not significantly bioconcentrated.

As an element, boron itself cannot be degraded in the environment; however, it may undergo various reactions that change the form of boron (e.g., precipitation, polymerization, and acid-base reactions) depending on conditions such as its concentration in water and pH. In nature, boron in generally found in its oxygenated form. In aqueous solution, boron is normally present as boric acid and borate ions, with the dominant form of inorganic boron in natural aqueous systems as undissociated boric acid. Boric acid acts as an electron acceptor in aqueous solution, accepting an hydroxide ion from water to form (B(OH)4)-ion. In dilute solution, the favored form of boron is B(OH)4. In more concentrated solutions (>0.1 M boric acid) and at neutral to alkaline pH (6–11), polymeric species are formed (e.g., B3O3(OH)4-, B5O6(OH)4-, B3O3(OH)52-, and B4O5(OH)42-)

Most boron compounds are transformed to borates in soil due to the presence of moisture. Borates themselves are not further degraded in soil. However, borates can exist in a variety of forms in soil. Borates are removed from soils by water leaching and by assimilation by plants.

The most appreciable boron exposure to the general population is likely to be ingestion of food and to a lesser extent in water. As boron is a natural component of the environment, individuals will have some exposure from foods and drinking water

Boron-containing salts (borates) are ubiquitous in the environment. Surface soil, unpolluted waterways and seawater all typically contain significant amounts of boron as borate. Boron is an essential micronutrient for healthy growth of plants, however, it can be harmful to boron sensitive plants in higher quantities. In some areas such as the American Southwest, boron occurs naturally in surface waters in concentrations that have been shown to be toxic to commercially important plants.

Based on the collected information regarding aquatic toxicity, boron is not regarded as dangerous to aquatic organisms. The concentration in treated municipal waste water is a factor 100 lower than the NOEC-value for *Daphnia magna*.

No quality criteria exist for the concentration of boron in soil and compost. Boron is added to farmland when sewage sludge is applied as a soil improving agent, but there is not sufficient data to evaluate its effect on soil organisms. Being an essential micro-nutrient, no adverse effects of boron are expected at low concentrations.

Ecotoxicity:

In aquatic environments low concentrations of borates generally promote the growth of algae, whereas higher concentrations inhibited algal growth. In a growth inhibition test with *Scenedesmus subspicatus,* an EC50 value of 34 mg B/l was determined. Boric acid toxicity in Daphnia 48 h-LC50 (static test) was found to be 95 mg B/l. In a separate study it was concluded that chronic effects of boron to Daphnia may occur at a concentration of > 10 mg/l.

The toxicity of boron in fish is often higher in soft water than in hard water. The acute toxicity of boron towards *Danio rerio* (96 h-LC50) has been determined to 14.2 mg B/l . In a fish early life stage test with rainbow trout NOEC levels of boron have been determined in the range between 0.009 and 0.103 mg B/l, whereas the EC50 ranged from 27 to 100 mg B/l dependent on the water hardness.

Antimony exists in the atmosphere in low concentrations. Urban air contains 0.05 to 0.06 ppm of antimony. There are very low concentrations in water due to minimal solubility. Volatilisation from water is not likely. The soil usually contains 0.1 to 10 mg/kg dry weight. Antimony concentrations in freshwater fish are low, approximately 3 mg/kg wet weight.

Little is known of the adsorptive behavior of antimony, its compounds, and ions in soils and sediments. The binding of antimony to soil is determined by the nature of the soil and the form of antimony deposited on the soil. Some forms of antimony may bind to inorganic and organic ligands. On the other hand, a mineral form would be unavailable for binding. Some studies suggest that antimony is fairly mobile under diverse environmental conditions, while others suggest that it is strongly adsorbed to soil.Since antimony has an anionic character (e.g. Sb(OH)i), it is expected to have little affinity for organic carbon. It is not expected that cation exchange, which generally dominates adsorption to clay, would be important for anionic antimony. Antimony is known to form coprecipitates with hydrous iron, manganese, and aluminum oxides in soil and sediment. Antimony adsorbs strongly to colloidal material in soil. The partition coefficient of antimony to 0.05-0.003 um colloids was 1,300. Antimony adsorbed to such material can be transported with the colloids in groundwater.

Leaching experiments performed with river sediment samples from a mining district in Idaho indicated that Sb(V) was the major species released during leaching. The fraction of antimony leached from sediment with deionized water after 10 days was highly correlated with the free iron and manganese oxide content of the sediment. The release of antimony from the sediment increased at low pH and increased sharply at high pH. The form of released antimony was also sensitive to pH. At pH 2.7, the bulk of antimony released was as Sb(II1); at pH 4.3, the concentrations of tri- and pentavalent antimony were comparable; and at pH 6.3 and above, Sb(V) was the predominant species.

Antimony does not appear to bioconcentrate appreciably in fish and aquatic organisms. No detectable bioconcentration occurred during a 28-day test in bluegills (EPA 1980). Only low levels of antimony have been reported in fish and aquatic organisms collected off the coast of Africa, Australia, and the Danube River in Austria. Bioconcentration factors for antimony ranged from 0.15 to 390. A study of the distribution of antimony around a smelter site indicated that antimony occurring in plants results from surface deposition. Uptake from soil is minor and appears to be correlated with the amount of available antimony (that which is soluble or easily exchangeable).Antimony bioconcentration was measured in voles, shrews, rabbits, and invertebrates around a smelter. Analysis of antimony in organs of the small mammals, compared with estimates of their antimony intake from food, showed that, although the amount of antimony in the organs was elevated, it was low compared to the amount ingested. The results suggest that antimony does not biomagnify from lower to higher trophic levels in the food chain.

Thermodynamically, most dissolved antimony in natural waters under aerobic conditions should be present in the +5 oxidation state as antimonate species. At 0.001 M total antimony, the dominant species were Sb(OH)6? and Sb(OH)5 0. A small quantity of polymeric hydroxy species were found, but these will be less significant when the total antimony concentration is low, such as in natural water. While industrial inputs will commonly contain antimony in the +3 oxidation state (e.g., antimony trioxide), it is not known how fast antimonite would oxidize to antimonate under natural conditions. Under reducing conditions, trivalent species such as Sb(OH) 3 0, Sb(OH) 4? , and Sb2S4 4- may be significant. Antimony compounds may undergo photochemical reactions, but these do not appear to be significant in determining their aquatic fate. Antimony trioxide suspensions strongly absorb ultraviolet radiation below 325 nm and darken. The process is reversible, and when the light is removed, the white color slowly returns. The effect is believed to be due to peroxide radical formation on the crystal surface. Both water and oxygen seem to be necessary for the reoxidation of the reduced antimony.

Antimony can be reduced and methylated by microorganisms in the aquatic environment, similar to arsenic, and become mobilized. This reaction is most likely to occur in reducing environments, such as in bed sediment. In the case of arsenic, this reaction may be mediated by fungi and bacteria, but it is not known whether this is the case with antimony. The resulting trimethylstibine is initially oxidized by atmospheric oxygen to a mixture of trimethylstilbine oxide ((CH3)3SbOH) and trimethylstibinic acid ((CH3)2SbO3H), and then to antimony oxides and insoluble polymers. The rate constant is estimated to be of the order of 0.1 to 0.2 L/molsec. Trimethylstibine has a high vapor pressure, 103 mmHg at 25 deg C, and might volatilize before it is completely oxidized. The oxidation product, (CH3)3SbO, is much more soluble than trimethylstibine; therefore, oxidation will reduce volatilization. Oxidation of trimethylstibine in the gas phase is very rapid; the rate is 0.11/mmHg-sec or 2000 L/mol-sec. Trimethylstibine has been shown to react with alkyl iodides and bromides; this results in the formation of quaternary salts. Should antimony occur in a landfill with alkyl halides, the formation of quaternary salts should greatly enhance antimony's mobility.

There is evidence that phytoplankton can reduce Sb(V) to the Sb(III). Sb(III) decreases to very low levels at the base of the seasonal thermocline and remains low down to the sediment where increasing levels are again observed. Sb(III) only accounts for 44% of the inorganic antimony in the anoxic zone, and speciation in this region is unclear. Thermodynamically, the antimony should be in the trivalent state. Thiocomplexes are thought to account for some of the antimony in this zone. Methylated antimony species existed throughout the water column and made up 10% of total antimony. Monomethyl antimony species were more abundant in surface waters and in the anoxic zone. There was no sharp increase in methyl antimony near the sediment, which would be expected if these species were formed biosynthetically. Since the highest antimony concentration is at the surface, it is unlikely that antimony is taken up by phytoplankton, as is the case with arsenic. A decrease in antimony concentration with depth suggests scavenging by particulate matter and, at lower depths, by iron hydroxyoxides.

For aluminium and its compounds and salts:

Despite its prevalence in the environment, no known form of life uses aluminium salts metabolically. In keeping with its pervasiveness, aluminium is well tolerated by plants and animals.Owing to their prevalence, potential beneficial (or otherwise) biological roles of aluminium compounds are of continuing interest.

Environmental fate:

Aluminium occurs in the environment in the form of silicates, oxides and hydroxides, combined with other elements such as sodium, fluorine and arsenic complexes with organic matter.

Acidification of soils releases aluminium as a transportable solution. Mobilisation of aluminium by acid rain results in aluminium becoming available for plant uptake.

As an element, aluminum cannot be degraded in the environment, but may undergo various precipitation or ligand exchange reactions. Aluminum in compounds has only one

Continued...

oxidation state (+3), and would not undergo oxidation-reduction reactions under environmental conditions. Aluminum can be complexed by various ligands present in the environment (e.g., fulvic and humic acids). The solubility of aluminum in the environment will depend on the ligands present and the pH.
The trivalent aluminum ion is surrounded by six water molecules in solution. The hydrated aluminum ion, [Al(H2O)6]3+, undergoes hydrolysis, in which a stepwise deprotonation of the coordinated water ligands forms bound hydroxide ligands (e.g., [Al(H2O)5(OH)]2+, [Al(H2O)4(OH)2]+). The speciation of aluminum in water is pH dependent. The hydrated trivalent aluminum ion is the predominant form at pH levels below 4. Between pH 5 and 6, the predominant hydrolysis products are Al(OH)2+ and Al(OH)2+, while the solid Al(OH)3 is most prevalent between pH 5.2 and 8.8. The soluble species Al(OH)4- is the predominant species above pH 9, and is the only species present above pH 10. Polymeric aluminum hydroxides appear between pH 4.7 and 10.5, and increase in size until they are transformed into colloidal particles of amorphous Al(OH)3, which crystallise to gibbsite in acid waters. Polymerisation is affected by the presence of dissolved silica; when enough silica is present, aluminum is precipitated as poorly crystallised clay mineral species.
Hydroxyaluminum compounds are considered amphoteric (e.g., they can act as both acids and bases in solution). Because of this property, aluminum hydroxides can act as buffers and resist pH changes within the narrow pH range of 4-5.
Monomeric aluminum compounds, typified by aluminum fluoride, chloride, and sulfate, are considered reactive or labile compounds, whereas polymeric aluminum species react much more slowly in the environment. Aluminum has a stronger attraction for fluoride in an acidic environment compared to other inorganic ligand.
The adsorption of aluminum onto clay surfaces can be a significant factor in controlling aluminum mobility in the environment, and these adsorption reactions, measured in one study at pH 3.0-4.1, have been observed to be very rapid. However, clays may act either as a sink or a source for soluble aluminum depending on the degree of aluminum saturation on the clay surface.
Within the pH range of 5-6, aluminum complexes with phosphate and is removed from solution. Because phosphate is a necessary nutrient in ecological systems, this immobilization of both aluminum and phosphate may result in depleted nutrient states in surface water.
Plant species and cultivars of the same species differ considerably in their ability to take up and translocate aluminum to above-ground parts. Tea leaves may contain very high concentrations of aluminum, >5,000 mg/kg in old leaves. Other plants that may contain high levels of aluminum include Lycopodium (Lycopodiaceae), a few ferns, Symplocos (Symplocaceae), and Orites (Proteaceae). Aluminum is often taken up and concentrated in root tissue. In sub-alpine ecosystems, the large root biomass of the Douglas fir, *Abies amabilis*, takes up aluminum and immobilizes it, preventing large accumulation in above-ground tissue. It is unclear to what extent aluminum is taken up into root food crops and leafy vegetables. An uptake factor (concentration of aluminum in the plant/concentration of aluminum in soil) of 0.004 for leafy vegetables and 0.00065 for fruits and tubers has been reported, but the pH and plant species from which these uptake factors were derived are unclear. Based upon these values, however, it is clear that aluminum is not taken up in plants from soil, but is instead biodiluted.
Aluminum concentrations in rainbow trout from an alum-treated lake, an untreated lake, and a hatchery were highest in gill tissue and lowest in muscle. Aluminum residue analyses in brook trout have shown that whole-body aluminum content decreases as the fish advance from larvae to juveniles. These results imply that the aging larvae begin to decrease their rate of aluminum uptake, to eliminate aluminum at a rate that exceeds uptake, or to maintain approximately the same amount of aluminum while the body mass increases. The decline in whole-body aluminum residues in juvenile brook trout may be related to growth and dilution by edible muscle tissue that accumulated less aluminum than did the other tissues.
The greatest fraction of the gill-associated aluminum was not sorbed to the gill tissue, but to the gill mucus. It is thought that mucus appears to retard aluminum transport from solution to the membrane surface, thus delaying the acute biological response of the fish. It has been reported that concentrations of aluminum in whole-body tissue of the Atlantic salmon exposed to high concentrations of aluminum ranging from 3 ug/g (for fish exposed to 33 ug/L) to 96 ug/g (for fish exposed to 264 ug/L) at pH 5.5. After 60 days of exposure, BCFs ranged from 76 to 190 and were directly related to the aluminum exposure concentration. In acidic waters (pH 4.6-5.3) with low concentrations of calcium (0.5-1.5 mg Ca/L), labile aluminum between 25 and 75 ug/L is toxic. Because aluminum is toxic to many aquatic species, it is not bioaccumulated to a significant degree (BCF <300) in most fish and shellfish; therefore, consumption of contaminated fish does not appear to be a significant source of aluminum exposure in humans.
Bioconcentration of aluminum has also been reported for several aquatic invertebrate species. BCF values ranging from 0.13 to 0.5 in the whole-body were reported for the snail.
Bioconcentration of aluminum has also been reported for aquatic insects.

Ecotoxicity:

Freshwater species pH >6.5

Fish: Acute LC50 (48-96 h) 5 spp: 0.6 (*Salmo salar)* - 106 mg/L; Chronic NOEC (8-28 d): 7 spp,NOEC, 0.034-7.1 mg/L. The lowest measured chronic figure was an 8-d LC50 of 0.17 mg/L for *Micropterus* sp.
Amphibian: Acute LC50 (4 d): *Bufo americanus*, 0.86-1.66 mg/L; Chronic LC50 (8-d) 2.28 mg/L
Crustaceans LC50 (48 h): 1 sp 2.3-36 9 mg/L; Chronic NOEC (7-28 d) 3 spp, 0.136-1.72 mg/L
Algae EC50 (96 h): population growth, 0.46-0.57 mg/L; 2 spp, chronic NOEC, 0.8-2.0 mg/L

Freshwater species pH <6.5 (all between pH 4.5 and 6.0)

Fish LC50 (24-96 h): 4 spp, 0.015 (*S. trutta*) - 4.2 mg/L; chronic data on *Salmo trutta*, LC50 (21-42 d) 0.015- 0.105 mg/L
Amphibians LC50 (4-5 d): 2 spp, 0.540-2.670 m/L (absolute range 0.40-5.2 mg/L)
Alga: 1 sp NOEC growth 2.0 mg/L
Among freshwater aquatic plants, single-celled plants are generally the most sensitive to aluminium. Fish are generally more sensitive to aluminium than aquatic invertebrates. Aluminium is a gill toxicant to fish, causing both ionoregulatory and respiratory effects.
The bioavailability and toxicity of aluminium is generally greatest in acid solutions. Aluminium in acid habitats has been observed to be toxic to fish and phytoplankton. Aluminium is generally more toxic over the pH range 4.4.5.4, with a maximum toxicity occurring around pH 5.0.5.2. The inorganic single unit aluminium species (Al(OH)2 +) is thought to be the most toxic. Under very acid conditions, the toxic effects of the high H+ concentration appear to be more important than the effects of low concentrations of aluminium; at approximately neutral pH values, the toxicity of aluminium is greatly reduced. The solubility of aluminium is also enhanced under alkaline conditions, due to its amphoteric character, and some researchers found that the acute toxicity of aluminium increased from pH 7 to pH 9. However, the opposite relationship was found in other studies. The uptake and toxicity of aluminium in freshwater organisms generally decreases with increasing water hardness under acidic, neutral and alkaline conditions. Complexing agents such as fluoride, citrate and humic substances reduce the availability of aluminium to organisms, resulting in lower toxicity. Silicon can also reduce aluminium toxicity to fish.
Drinking Water Standards:
aluminium: 200 ug/l (UK max.)
200 ug/l (WHO guideline)
chloride: 400 mg/l (UK max.)
250 mg/l (WHO guideline)
fluoride: 1.5 mg/l (UK max.)
1.5 mg/l (WHO guideline)
nitrate: 50 mg/l (UK max.)
50 mg/l (WHO guideline)
sulfate: 250 mg/l (UK max.)
Soil Guideline: none available.
Air Quality Standards: none available.

Environmental fate:

Bromide ion may be introduced to the environment after the dissociation of various salts and complexes or the degradation of organobromide compounds.
Bromides may also affect the growth of micro-organisms and have been used for this purpose in industry.
Bromides in drinking water are occasionally subject to disinfection processes involving ozone of chlorine. Bromide may be oxidised to produce hypobromous acid which in turn may react with natural organic matter to form brominated compounds. The formation of bromoform has been well documented, as has the formation of bromoacetic acids, bromopicrin, cyanogen bromide, and bromoacetone. Bromates may also be formed following ozonation or chlorination if pH is relatively high. Bromates may be animal carcinogens.
Bromine reservoirs, such as HBr and BrONO2, are much more easily broken up by sunlight ; causing bromine to be from 10 to 100 times more effective than chlorine at destroying ozone. From 30-60% of bromocarbons released to the atmosphere are man-made (methyl bromide fumigants and halon fire extinguishers) and both compounds are restricted by international agreement

Ecotoxicity:

Although not a significant toxin in mammalian or avian systems it is highly toxic to rainbow trout and Daphnia magna.
Fish LC50 (96 h): bluegill sunfish: 0.52 mg/L (as Br2); rainbow trout 0.23 mg/L (as Br2); sheepshead minnow 0.19 mg/L (as Br2)
Daphnia magna LC50 (48 h): 0.71 mg/L (as Br2)
Eastern oysters EC50 (96 h): 0.54 mg/L (as Br2)
Mysid Shrimp LC50 (LC50): 0.17 mg/L (as Br2)
[*Nalco]
DO NOT discharge into sewer or waterways.

12.2. Persistence and degradability

Continued...

Ingredient	Persistence: Water/Soil	Persistence: Air
	No Data available for all ingredients	No Data available for all ingredients

12.3. Bioaccumulative potential

Ingredient	Bioaccumulation
	No Data available for all ingredients

12.4. Mobility in soil

Ingredient	Mobility
	No Data available for all ingredients

12.5.Results of PBT and vPvB assessment

	P	B	T
Relevant available data	Not Applicable	Not Applicable	Not Applicable
PBT Criteria fulfilled?	Not Applicable	Not Applicable	Not Applicable

12.6. Other adverse effects

No data available

SECTION 13 DISPOSAL CONSIDERATIONS

13.1. Waste treatment methods

Product / Packaging disposal	▸ Containers may still present a chemical hazard/ danger when empty. ▸ Return to supplier for reuse/ recycling if possible. Otherwise: ▸ If container can not be cleaned sufficiently well to ensure that residuals do not remain or if the container cannot be used to store the same product, then puncture containers, to prevent re-use, and bury at an authorised landfill. ▸ Where possible retain label warnings and SDS and observe all notices pertaining to the product. Legislation addressing waste disposal requirements may differ by country, state and/ or territory. Each user must refer to laws operating in their area. In some areas, certain wastes must be tracked. A Hierarchy of Controls seems to be common - the user should investigate: ▸ Reduction ▸ Reuse ▸ Recycling ▸ Disposal (if all else fails) This material may be recycled if unused, or if it has not been contaminated so as to make it unsuitable for its intended use. If it has been contaminated, it may be possible to reclaim the product by filtration, distillation or some other means. Shelf life considerations should also be applied in making decisions of this type. Note that properties of a material may change in use, and recycling or reuse may not always be appropriate. ▸ **DO NOT** allow wash water from cleaning or process equipment to enter drains. ▸ It may be necessary to collect all wash water for treatment before disposal. ▸ In all cases disposal to sewer may be subject to local laws and regulations and these should be considered first. ▸ Where in doubt contact the responsible authority. ▸ Recycle wherever possible or consult manufacturer for recycling options. ▸ Consult State Land Waste Authority for disposal. ▸ Bury or incinerate residue at an approved site. ▸ Recycle containers if possible, or dispose of in an authorised landfill.
Waste treatment options	Not Available
Sewage disposal options	Not Available

SECTION 14 TRANSPORT INFORMATION

Labels Required

	NOT REGULATED by Ground ADR Special Provision 375 NOT REGULATED by Air IATA Special Provision A197 NOT REGULATED by Sea IMDG per 2.10.2.7 NOT REGULATED by ADN Special Provision 274 (The provision of 3.1.2.8 apply)

Land transport (ADR)

14.1. **UN number**	3082
14.2. **UN proper shipping name**	ENVIRONMENTALLY HAZARDOUS SUBSTANCE, LIQUID, N.O.S. (contains zinc borate hydrate, naphtha petroleum, heavy alkylate and bisphenol A/ diglycidyl ether polymer, high molecular weight)
14.3. **Transport hazard class(es)**	Class: 9 Subrisk: Not Applicable
14.4. **Packing group**	III
14.5. **Environmental hazard**	Environmentally hazardous

Continued...

14.6. **Special precautions for user**	Hazard identification (Kemler)	90
	Classification code	M6
	Hazard Label	9
	Special provisions	274 335 375 601
	Limited quantity	5 L
	Tunnel Restriction Code	3 (-)

Air transport (ICAO-IATA / DGR)

14.1. **UN number**	3082	
14.2. **UN proper shipping name**	Environmentally hazardous substance, liquid, n.o.s. * (contains zinc borate hydrate, naphtha petroleum, heavy alkylate and bisphenol A/ diglycidyl ether polymer, high molecular weight)	
14.3. **Transport hazard class(es)**	ICAO/IATA Class	9
	ICAO / IATA Subrisk	Not Applicable
	ERG Code	9L
14.4. **Packing group**	III	
14.5. **Environmental hazard**	Environmentally hazardous	
14.6. **Special precautions for user**	Special provisions	A97 A158 A197
	Cargo Only Packing Instructions	964
	Cargo Only Maximum Qty / Pack	450 L
	Passenger and Cargo Packing Instructions	964
	Passenger and Cargo Maximum Qty / Pack	450 L
	Passenger and Cargo Limited Quantity Packing Instructions	Y964
	Passenger and Cargo Limited Maximum Qty / Pack	30 kg G

Sea transport (IMDG-Code / GGVSee)

14.1. **UN number**	3082	
14.2. **UN proper shipping name**	ENVIRONMENTALLY HAZARDOUS SUBSTANCE, LIQUID, N.O.S. (contains zinc borate hydrate, naphtha petroleum, heavy alkylate and bisphenol A/ diglycidyl ether polymer, high molecular weight)	
14.3. **Transport hazard class(es)**	IMDG Class	9
	IMDG Subrisk	Not Applicable
14.4. **Packing group**	III	
14.5. **Environmental hazard**	Marine Pollutant	
14.6. **Special precautions for user**	EMS Number	F-A , S-F
	Special provisions	274 335 969
	Limited Quantities	5 L

Inland waterways transport (ADN)

14.1. **UN number**	3082	
14.2. **UN proper shipping name**	ENVIRONMENTALLY HAZARDOUS SUBSTANCE, LIQUID, N.O.S. (contains zinc borate hydrate, naphtha petroleum, heavy alkylate and bisphenol A/ diglycidyl ether polymer, high molecular weight)	
14.3. **Transport hazard class(es)**	9	Not Applicable
14.4. **Packing group**	III	
14.5. **Environmental hazard**	Environmentally hazardous	
14.6. **Special precautions for user**	Classification code	M6
	Special provisions	274; 335; 375; 601
	Limited quantity	5 L
	Equipment required	PP
	Fire cones number	0

14.7. Transport in bulk according to Annex II of MARPOL and the IBC code

Not Applicable

SECTION 15 REGULATORY INFORMATION

15.1. Safety, health and environmental regulations / legislation specific for the substance or mixture

BISPHENOL A/ DIGLYCIDYL ETHER POLYMER, HIGH MOLECULAR WEIGHT IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Continued...

Chemical Footprint Project - Chemicals of High Concern List
Europe EC Inventory
Europe ECHA Registered Substances - Classification and Labelling - DSD-DPD
European Union (EU) Annex I to Directive 67/548/EEC on Classification and Labelling of Dangerous Substances - updated by ATP: 31
European Union (EU) No-Longer Polymers List (NLP) (67/548/EEC)
European Union (EU) Regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 on Classification, Labelling and Packaging of Substances and Mixtures - Annex VI

ALUMINA HYDRATE IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Europe EC Inventory
Europe ECHA Registered Substances - Classification and Labelling - DSD-DPD
Europe European Customs Inventory of Chemical Substances
European Union - European Inventory of Existing Commercial Chemical Substances (EINECS)

DECABROMODIPHENYLETHANE IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Chemical Footprint Project - Chemicals of High Concern List
EU European Chemicals Agency (ECHA) Community Rolling Action Plan (CoRAP) List of Substances
Europe EC Inventory
Europe ECHA Registered Substances - Classification and Labelling - DSD-DPD
Europe European Customs Inventory of Chemical Substances
European Union - European Inventory of Existing Commercial Chemical Substances (EINECS)

(C12-14)ALKYLGLYCIDYL ETHER IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Chemical Footprint Project - Chemicals of High Concern List
EU European Chemicals Agency (ECHA) Community Rolling Action Plan (CoRAP) List of Substances
Europe EC Inventory
Europe ECHA Registered Substances - Classification and Labelling - DSD-DPD
Europe European Customs Inventory of Chemical Substances
European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC) Priority List for REACH Authorisation
European Union - European Inventory of Existing Commercial Chemical Substances (EINECS)
European Union (EU) Annex I to Directive 67/548/EEC on Classification and Labelling of Dangerous Substances - updated by ATP: 31
European Union (EU) Regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 on Classification, Labelling and Packaging of Substances and Mixtures - Annex VI

ZINC BORATE HYDRATE IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Europe EC Inventory
European Union - European Inventory of Existing Commercial Chemical Substances (EINECS)

ANTIMONY TRIOXIDE IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Chemical Footprint Project - Chemicals of High Concern List
EU European Chemicals Agency (ECHA) Community Rolling Action Plan (CoRAP) List of Substances
EU REACH Regulation (EC) No 1907/2006 - Annex XVII - Restrictions on the manufacture, placing on the market and use of certain dangerous substances, mixtures and articles
Europe EC Inventory
Europe ECHA Registered Substances - Classification and Labelling - DSD-DPD
Europe European Customs Inventory of Chemical Substances
European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC) Priority List for REACH Authorisation
European Union - European Inventory of Existing Commercial Chemical Substances (EINECS)
European Union (EU) Annex I to Directive 67/548/EEC on Classification and Labelling of Dangerous Substances - updated by ATP: 31
European Union (EU) Regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 on Classification, Labelling and Packaging of Substances and Mixtures - Annex VI
International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) - Agents Classified by the IARC Monographs
International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) - Agents Classified by the IARC Monographs - Group 2B : Possibly carcinogenic to humans
UK Workplace Exposure Limits (WELs)

NAPHTHA PETROLEUM, HEAVY ALKYLATE IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Chemical Footprint Project - Chemicals of High Concern List
EU REACH Regulation (EC) No 1907/2006 - Annex XVII - Restrictions on the manufacture, placing on the market and use of certain dangerous substances, mixtures and articles
EU REACH Regulation (EC) No 1907/2006 - Annex XVII (Appendix 2) Carcinogens: category 1B (Table 3.1)/category 2 (Table 3.2)
EU REACH Regulation (EC) No 1907/2006 - Annex XVII (Appendix 4) Mutagens: category 1B (Table 3.1)/category 2 (Table 3.2)
Europe EC Inventory
Europe European Customs Inventory of Chemical Substances
European Union - European Inventory of Existing Commercial Chemical Substances (EINECS)
European Union (EU) Annex I to Directive 67/548/EEC on Classification and Labelling of Dangerous Substances - updated by ATP: 31
European Union (EU) Regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 on Classification, Labelling and Packaging of Substances and Mixtures - Annex VI

CARBON BLACK IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Chemical Footprint Project - Chemicals of High Concern List
EU European Chemicals Agency (ECHA) Community Rolling Action Plan (CoRAP) List of Substances
Europe EC Inventory
Europe ECHA Registered Substances - Classification and Labelling - DSD-DPD
Europe European Customs Inventory of Chemical Substances
European List of Notified Chemical Substances - ELINCS - 6th publication - COM(2003) 642, 29.10.2003
European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC) Priority List for REACH Authorisation
European Union - European Inventory of Existing Commercial Chemical Substances (EINECS)
International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) - Agents Classified by the IARC Monographs
International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) - Agents Classified by the IARC Monographs - Group 2B : Possibly carcinogenic to humans
International WHO List of Proposed Occupational Exposure Limit (OEL) Values for Manufactured Nanomaterials (MNMS)
UK Workplace Exposure Limits (WELs)

This safety data sheet is in compliance with the following EU legislation and its adaptations - as far as applicable - : Directives 98/24/EC, - 92/85/EEC, - 94/33/EC, - 2008/98/EC, - 2010/75/EU; Commission Regulation (EU) 2015/830; Regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 as updated through ATPs.

15.2. Chemical safety assessment

No Chemical Safety Assessment has been carried out for this substance/mixture by the supplier.

National Inventory Status

National Inventory	Status
Australia - AICS	No (decabromodiphenylethane)
Canada - DSL	No (decabromodiphenylethane)
Canada - NDSL	No (antimony trioxide; bisphenol A/ diglycidyl ether polymer, high molecular weight; (C12-14)alkylglycidyl ether; zinc borate hydrate; alumina hydrate; naphtha petroleum, heavy alkylate; carbon black; decabromodiphenylethane)
China - IECSC	Yes

Continued...

Europe - EINEC / ELINCS / NLP	Yes
Japan - ENCS	No ((C12-14)alkylglycidyl ether; naphtha petroleum, heavy alkylate)
Korea - KECI	Yes
New Zealand - NZIoC	Yes
Philippines - PICCS	Yes
USA - TSCA	Yes
Taiwan - TCSI	Yes
Mexico - INSQ	No (bisphenol A/ diglycidyl ether polymer, high molecular weight; (C12-14)alkylglycidyl ether; decabromodiphenylethane)
Vietnam - NCI	Yes
Russia - ARIPS	No (naphtha petroleum, heavy alkylate; decabromodiphenylethane)
Legend:	*Yes = All CAS declared ingredients are on the inventory* *No = One or more of the CAS listed ingredients are not on the inventory and are not exempt from listing(see specific ingredients in brackets)*

SECTION 16 OTHER INFORMATION

Revision Date	25/03/2020
Initial Date	13/02/2020

Full text Risk and Hazard codes

H226	Flammable liquid and vapour.
H304	May be fatal if swallowed and enters airways.
H336	May cause drowsiness or dizziness.
H360FD	May damage fertility. May damage the unborn child.
H410	Very toxic to aquatic life with long lasting effects.

Other information

Classification of the preparation and its individual components has drawn on official and authoritative sources as well as independent review by the Chemwatch Classification committee using available literature references.
The SDS is a Hazard Communication tool and should be used to assist in the Risk Assessment. Many factors determine whether the reported Hazards are Risks in the workplace or other settings. Risks may be determined by reference to Exposures Scenarios. Scale of use, frequency of use and current or available engineering controls must be considered.
For detailed advice on Personal Protective Equipment, refer to the following EU CEN Standards:
EN 166 Personal eye-protection
EN 340 Protective clothing
EN 374 Protective gloves against chemicals and micro-organisms
EN 13832 Footwear protecting against chemicals
EN 133 Respiratory protective devices

Definitions and abbreviations

PC—TWA: Permissible Concentration-Time Weighted Average
PC—STEL: Permissible Concentration-Short Term Exposure Limit
IARC: International Agency for Research on Cancer
ACGIH: American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists
STEL: Short Term Exposure Limit
TEEL: Temporary Emergency Exposure Limit。
IDLH: Immediately Dangerous to Life or Health Concentrations
OSF: Odour Safety Factor
NOAEL :No Observed Adverse Effect Level
LOAEL: Lowest Observed Adverse Effect Level
TLV: Threshold Limit Value
LOD: Limit Of Detection
OTV: Odour Threshold Value
BCF: BioConcentration Factors
BEI: Biological Exposure Index

Reason for Change

A-1.00 - Update to the emergency phone number information.

834ATH-B ATH Flame Retardant Epoxy: Encapsulating and Potting Compound (Part B)

MG Chemicals UK Limited

Version No: **A-1.00**
Safety Data Sheet (Conforms to Regulation (EU) No 2015/830)

Issue Date:**13/02/2020**
Revision Date: **25/03/2020**
L.REACH.GBR.EN

SECTION 1 IDENTIFICATION OF THE SUBSTANCE / MIXTURE AND OF THE COMPANY / UNDERTAKING

1.1. Product Identifier

Product name	834ATH-B
Synonyms	SDS Code: 834ATH-B; 834ATH-375ML, 834ATH-3L, 834ATH-60L
Other means of identification	ATH Flame Retardant Epoxy: Encapsulating and Potting Compound (Part B)

1.2. Relevant identified uses of the substance or mixture and uses advised against

Relevant identified uses	Epoxy hardener for use with resins to pot devices or encapsulate components
Uses advised against	Not Applicable

1.3. Details of the supplier of the safety data sheet

Registered company name	**MG Chemicals UK Limited**	**MG Chemicals (Head office)**
Address	Heame House, 23 Bilston Street, Sedgely Dudley DY3 1JA United Kingdom	9347 - 193 Street Surrey V4N 4E7 British Columbia Canada
Telephone	+(44) 1663 362888	+(1) 800-201-8822
Fax	Not Available	+(1) 800-708-9888
Website	Not Available	www.mgchemicals.com
Email	sales@mgchemicals.com	Info@mgchemicals.com

1.4. Emergency telephone number

Association / Organisation	**Verisk 3E (Access code: 335388)**
Emergency telephone numbers	+(44) 20 35147487
Other emergency telephone numbers	+(0) 800 680 0425

SECTION 2 HAZARDS IDENTIFICATION

2.1. Classification of the substance or mixture

Classification according to regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 [CLP] [1]	H411 - Chronic Aquatic Hazard Category 2, H318 - Serious Eye Damage Category 1, H315 - Skin Corrosion/Irritation Category 2, H361 - Reproductive Toxicity Category 2, H317 - Skin Sensitizer Category 1, H351 - Carcinogenicity Category 2
Legend:	*1. Classified by Chemwatch; 2. Classification drawn from Regulation (EU) No 1272/2008 - Annex VI*

2.2. Label elements

Hazard pictogram(s)	
SIGNAL WORD	**DANGER**

Hazard statement(s)

H411	Toxic to aquatic life with long lasting effects.
H318	Causes serious eye damage.
H315	Causes skin irritation.
H361	Suspected of damaging fertility or the unborn child.
H317	May cause an allergic skin reaction.
H351	Suspected of causing cancer.

Precautionary statement(s) Prevention

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P201	Obtain special instructions before use.
P280	Wear protective gloves/protective clothing/eye protection/face protection.
P261	Avoid breathing mist/vapours/spray.
P273	Avoid release to the environment.
P272	Contaminated work clothing should not be allowed out of the workplace.

Precautionary statement(s) Response

P305+P351+P338	IF IN EYES: Rinse cautiously with water for several minutes. Remove contact lenses, if present and easy to do. Continue rinsing.
P308+P313	IF exposed or concerned: Get medical advice/ attention.
P310	Immediately call a POISON CENTER/doctor/physician/first aider.
P321	Specific treatment (see advice on this label).
P302+P352	IF ON SKIN: Wash with plenty of water.
P333+P313	If skin irritation or rash occurs: Get medical advice/attention.
P362+P364	Take off contaminated clothing and wash it before reuse.
P391	Collect spillage.

Precautionary statement(s) Storage

P405	Store locked up.

Precautionary statement(s) Disposal

P501	Dispose of contents/container to authorised hazardous or special waste collection point in accordance with any local regulation.

2.3. Other hazards

Skin contact may produce health damage*.

Cumulative effects may result following exposure*.

Possible respiratory sensitizer*.

SECTION 3 COMPOSITION / INFORMATION ON INGREDIENTS

3.1.Substances

See 'Composition on ingredients' in Section 3.2

3.2.Mixtures

1.CAS No 2.EC No 3.Index No 4.REACH No	%[weight]	Name	Classification according to regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 [CLP]
1.68410-23-1 2.Not Available 3.Not Available 4.01-2119972323-38-XXXX	54	C18 fatty acid dimers/ tetraethylenepentamine polyamides	Specific target organ toxicity - single exposure Category 3 (respiratory tract irritation), Serious Eye Damage Category 1, Skin Corrosion/Irritation Category 2; H335, H318, H315 [1]
1.21645-51-2 2.244-492-7 3.Not Available 4.01-2119529246-39-XXXX	17	alumina hydrate	Not Applicable
1.84852-53-9 2.284-366-9 3.Not Available 4.01-2119474877-18-XXXX	13	decabromodiphenylethane	Not Applicable
1.138265-88-0 2.215-566-6 3.Not Available 4.01-2120773328-46-XXXX|01-2119691658-19-XXXX	6	zinc borate hydrate	Chronic Aquatic Hazard Category 1, Reproductive Toxicity Category 1B; H410, H360FD [1]
1.112-24-3 2.203-950-6 3.612-059-00-5 4.Not Available	4	triethylenetetramine	Acute Toxicity (Dermal) Category 4, Chronic Aquatic Hazard Category 3, Skin Sensitizer Category 1, Skin Corrosion/Irritation Category 1B; H312, H412, H317, H314 [2]
1.1309-64-4 2.215-175-0 3.051-005-00-X 4.01-2119475613-35-XXXX|01-2120763584-46-XXXX	2	antimony trioxide	Carcinogenicity Category 2; H351 [2]
1.64741-65-7. 2.265-067-2 3.649-275-00-4 4.01-2120009436-62-XXXX	1	naphtha petroleum, heavy alkylate	Aspiration Hazard Category 1, Specific target organ toxicity - single exposure Category 3 (narcotic effects), Flammable Liquid Category 3; H304, H336, H226 [1]

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1.108-65-6 2.203-603-9 3.607-195-00-7 4.01-2119475791-29-XXXX	0.8	propylene glycol monomethyl ether acetate, alpha-isomer *	Flammable Liquid Category 3; H226 [2]
1.1333-86-4 2.215-609-9|422-130-0 3.Not Available 4.01-2119384822-32-XXXX|01-2120767622-50-XXXX|01-0000016864-62-XXXX	0.7	carbon black	Carcinogenicity Category 2; H351 [1]
Legend:	*1. Classified by Chemwatch; 2. Classification drawn from Regulation (EU) No 1272/2008 - Annex VI; 3. Classification drawn from C&L; * EU IOELVs available*		

SECTION 4 FIRST AID MEASURES

4.1. Description of first aid measures

Eye Contact	If this product comes in contact with the eyes: ▸ Immediately hold eyelids apart and flush the eye continuously with running water. ▸ Ensure complete irrigation of the eye by keeping eyelids apart and away from eye and moving the eyelids by occasionally lifting the upper and lower lids. ▸ Continue flushing until advised to stop by the Poisons Information Centre or a doctor, or for at least 15 minutes. ▸ Transport to hospital or doctor without delay. ▸ Removal of contact lenses after an eye injury should only be undertaken by skilled personnel.
Skin Contact	If skin contact occurs: ▸ Immediately remove all contaminated clothing, including footwear. ▸ Flush skin and hair with running water (and soap if available). ▸ Seek medical attention in event of irritation.
Inhalation	▸ If fumes, aerosols or combustion products are inhaled remove from contaminated area. ▸ Other measures are usually unnecessary.
Ingestion	▸ If swallowed do **NOT** induce vomiting. ▸ If vomiting occurs, lean patient forward or place on left side (head-down position, if possible) to maintain open airway and prevent aspiration. ▸ Observe the patient carefully. ▸ Never give liquid to a person showing signs of being sleepy or with reduced awareness; i.e. becoming unconscious. ▸ Give water to rinse out mouth, then provide liquid slowly and as much as casualty can comfortably drink. ▸ Seek medical advice.

4.2 Most important symptoms and effects, both acute and delayed

See Section 11

4.3. Indication of any immediate medical attention and special treatment needed

Treat symptomatically.
- Chelation with British Anti-Lewisite (BAL) for serious antimony exposures should be employed.
- Dialyse as needed. The role of exchange diffusion is not clear.
- Be sure to monitor for dysrhythmias.

[Ellenhorn and Barceloux: Medical Toxicology]

SECTION 5 FIREFIGHTING MEASURES

5.1. Extinguishing media

- Foam.
- Dry chemical powder.
- BCF (where regulations permit).
- Carbon dioxide.
- Water spray or fog - Large fires only.

5.2. Special hazards arising from the substrate or mixture

Fire Incompatibility	▸ Avoid contamination with oxidising agents i.e. nitrates, oxidising acids, chlorine bleaches, pool chlorine etc. as ignition may result

5.3. Advice for firefighters

Fire Fighting	▸ Alert Fire Brigade and tell them location and nature of hazard. ▸ Wear full body protective clothing with breathing apparatus. ▸ Prevent, by any means available, spillage from entering drains or water course. ▸ Use water delivered as a fine spray to control fire and cool adjacent area. ▸ Avoid spraying water onto liquid pools. ▸ **DO NOT** approach containers suspected to be hot. ▸ Cool fire exposed containers with water spray from a protected location. ▸ If safe to do so, remove containers from path of fire.
Fire/Explosion Hazard	▸ Combustible. ▸ Slight fire hazard when exposed to heat or flame. ▸ Heating may cause expansion or decomposition leading to violent rupture of containers.

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	▸ On combustion, may emit toxic fumes of carbon monoxide (CO). ▸ May emit acrid smoke. ▸ Mists containing combustible materials may be explosive. Combustion products include: carbon dioxide (CO_2) nitrogen oxides (NOx) metal oxides other pyrolysis products typical of burning organic material. When aluminium oxide dust is dispersed in air, firefighters should wear protection against inhalation of dust particles, which can also contain hazardous substances from the fire absorbed on the alumina particles.

SECTION 6 ACCIDENTAL RELEASE MEASURES

6.1. Personal precautions, protective equipment and emergency procedures

See section 8

6.2. Environmental precautions

See section 12

6.3. Methods and material for containment and cleaning up

Minor Spills

Environmental hazard - contain spillage.
- Clean up all spills immediately.
- Avoid breathing vapours and contact with skin and eyes.
- Control personal contact with the substance, by using protective equipment.
- Contain and absorb spill with sand, earth, inert material or vermiculite.
- Wipe up.
- Place in a suitable, labelled container for waste disposal.

Major Spills

Environmental hazard - contain spillage.
Chemical Class: bases
For release onto land: recommended sorbents listed in order of priority.

SORBENT TYPE	RANK	APPLICATION	COLLECTION	LIMITATIONS

LAND SPILL - SMALL

cross-linked polymer - particulate	1	shovel	shovel	R,W,SS
cross-linked polymer - pillow	1	throw	pitchfork	R, DGC, RT
sorbent clay - particulate	2	shovel	shovel	R, I, P
foamed glass - pillow	2	throw	pitchfork	R, P, DGC, RT
expanded minerals - particulate	3	shovel	shovel	R, I, W, P, DGC
foamed glass - particulate	4	shovel	shovel	R, W, P, DGC,

LAND SPILL - MEDIUM

cross-linked polymer -particulate	1	blower	skiploader	R,W, SS
sorbent clay - particulate	2	blower	skiploader	R, I, P
expanded mineral - particulate	3	blower	skiploader	R, I,W, P, DGC
cross-linked polymer - pillow	3	throw	skiploader	R, DGC, RT
foamed glass - particulate	4	blower	skiploader	R, W, P, DGC
foamed glass - pillow	4	throw	skiploader	R, P, DGC., RT

Legend
DGC: Not effective where ground cover is dense
R; Not reusable
I: Not incinerable
P: Effectiveness reduced when rainy
RT:Not effective where terrain is rugged
SS: Not for use within environmentally sensitive sites
W: Effectiveness reduced when windy
Reference: Sorbents for Liquid Hazardous Substance Cleanup and Control;
R.W Melvold et al: Pollution Technology Review No. 150: Noyes Data Corporation 1988
Moderate hazard.
- Clear area of personnel and move upwind.
- Alert Fire Brigade and tell them location and nature of hazard.
- Wear breathing apparatus plus protective gloves.
- Prevent, by any means available, spillage from entering drains or water course.
- No smoking, naked lights or ignition sources.
- Increase ventilation.
- Stop leak if safe to do so.
- Contain spill with sand, earth or vermiculite.
- Collect recoverable product into labelled containers for recycling.
- Absorb remaining product with sand, earth or vermiculite.
- Collect solid residues and seal in labelled drums for disposal.
- Wash area and prevent runoff into drains.
- If contamination of drains or waterways occurs, advise emergency services.

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6.4. Reference to other sections

Personal Protective Equipment advice is contained in Section 8 of the SDS.

SECTION 7 HANDLING AND STORAGE

7.1. Precautions for safe handling

Safe handling	‣ Avoid all personal contact, including inhalation. ‣ Wear protective clothing when risk of exposure occurs. ‣ Use in a well-ventilated area. ‣ Prevent concentration in hollows and sumps. ‣ **DO NOT** enter confined spaces until atmosphere has been checked. ‣ Avoid smoking, naked lights or ignition sources. ‣ Avoid contact with incompatible materials. ‣ When handling, **DO NOT** eat, drink or smoke. ‣ Keep containers securely sealed when not in use. ‣ Avoid physical damage to containers. ‣ Always wash hands with soap and water after handling. ‣ Work clothes should be laundered separately. ‣ Use good occupational work practice. ‣ Observe manufacturer's storage and handling recommendations contained within this SDS. ‣ Atmosphere should be regularly checked against established exposure standards to ensure safe working conditions. ‣ **DO NOT** allow clothing wet with material to stay in contact with skin
Fire and explosion protection	See section 5
Other information	‣ Store in original containers. ‣ Keep containers securely sealed. ‣ Store in a cool, dry, well-ventilated area. ‣ Store away from incompatible materials and foodstuff containers. ‣ Protect containers against physical damage and check regularly for leaks. ‣ Observe manufacturer's storage and handling recommendations contained within this SDS.

7.2. Conditions for safe storage, including any incompatibilities

Suitable container	‣ **DO NOT** use aluminium, galvanised or tin-plated containers ‣ Metal can or drum ‣ Packaging as recommended by manufacturer. ‣ Check all containers are clearly labelled and free from leaks.
Storage incompatibility	For aluminas (aluminium oxide): Incompatible with hot chlorinated rubber. In the presence of chlorine trifluoride may react violently and ignite. -May initiate explosive polymerisation of olefin oxides including ethylene oxide. -Produces exothermic reaction above 200 C with halocarbons and an exothermic reaction at ambient temperatures with halocarbons in the presence of other metals. -Produces exothermic reaction with oxygen difluoride. -May form explosive mixture with oxygen difluoride. -Forms explosive mixtures with sodium nitrate. -Reacts vigorously with vinyl acetate. Aluminium oxide is an amphoteric substance, meaning it can react with both acids and bases, such as hydrofluoric acid and sodium hydroxide, acting as an acid with a base and a base with an acid, neutralising the other and producing a salt. ‣ Avoid strong acids, acid chlorides, acid anhydrides and chloroformates. ‣ Avoid contact with copper, aluminium and their alloys. ‣ Avoid reaction with oxidising agents

7.3. Specific end use(s)

See section 1.2

SECTION 8 EXPOSURE CONTROLS / PERSONAL PROTECTION

8.1. Control parameters

Ingredient	DNELs Exposure Pattern Worker	PNECs Compartment
alumina hydrate	Inhalation 10.76 mg/m³ (Systemic, Chronic) Inhalation 10.76 mg/m³ (Local, Chronic) *Oral 4.74 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic)* *	74.9 µg/L (Water (Fresh)) 20 mg/L (STP)
decabromodiphenylethane	Inhalation 71 mg/m³ (Systemic, Chronic) *Inhalation 17.4 mg/m³ (Systemic, Chronic)* * *Oral 5 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic)* *	110 mg/L (Water (Fresh)) 110 mg/L (Water (Marine)) 100 mg/kg sediment dw (Sediment (Fresh Water)) 10 mg/kg sediment dw (Sediment (Marine)) 156 mg/kg soil dw (Soil) 2500 mg/L (STP) 222 mg/kg food (Oral)
zinc borate hydrate	Dermal 1 585 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic) Inhalation 22.4 mg/m³ (Systemic, Chronic) *Dermal 1 205 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic)* * *Inhalation 8.3 mg/m³ (Systemic, Chronic)* * *Oral 2.4 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic)* *	Not Available

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antimony trioxide	Dermal 67 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic) Inhalation 0.315 mg/m³ (Local, Chronic) *Dermal 33.5 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic) ** *Oral 33.5 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic) ** *Inhalation 0.095 mg/m³ (Local, Chronic) **	0.113 mg/L (Water (Fresh)) 0.0113 mg/L (Water - Intermittent release) 11.2 mg/kg sediment dw (Sediment (Fresh Water)) 2.24 mg/kg sediment dw (Sediment (Marine)) 37 mg/kg soil dw (Soil) 2.55 mg/L (STP)
propylene glycol monomethyl ether acetate, alpha-isomer	Dermal 796 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic) Inhalation 275 mg/m³ (Systemic, Chronic) Inhalation 550 mg/m³ (Local, Acute) *Dermal 320 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic) ** *Inhalation 33 mg/m³ (Systemic, Chronic) ** *Oral 36 mg/kg bw/day (Systemic, Chronic) ** *Inhalation 33 mg/m³ (Local, Chronic) **	0.635 mg/L (Water (Fresh)) 0.0635 mg/L (Water - Intermittent release) 6.35 mg/L (Water (Marine)) 3.29 mg/kg sediment dw (Sediment (Fresh Water)) 0.329 mg/kg sediment dw (Sediment (Marine)) 0.29 mg/kg soil dw (Soil) 100 mg/L (STP)
carbon black	Inhalation 1 mg/m³ (Systemic, Chronic) Inhalation 0.5 mg/m³ (Local, Chronic) *Inhalation 0.06 mg/m³ (Systemic, Chronic) **	5 mg/L (Water (Fresh)) 5 mg/L (Water - Intermittent release)

* Values for General Population

OCCUPATIONAL EXPOSURE LIMITS (OEL)

INGREDIENT DATA

Source	Ingredient	Material name	TWA	STEL	Peak	Notes
UK Workplace Exposure Limits (WELs)	antimony trioxide	Antimony and compounds except stibine (as Sb)	0.5 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
EU Consolidated List of Indicative Occupational Exposure Limit Values (IOELVs)	propylene glycol monomethyl ether acetate, alpha-isomer	1-Methoxypropyl-2-acetate	50 ppm / 275 mg/m3	550 mg/m3 / 100 ppm	Not Available	Skin
UK Workplace Exposure Limits (WELs)	propylene glycol monomethyl ether acetate, alpha-isomer	1-Methoxypropyl acetate	50 ppm / 274 mg/m3	548 mg/m3 / 100 ppm	Not Available	Sk
UK Workplace Exposure Limits (WELs)	carbon black	Carbon black	3.5 mg/m3	7 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available

EMERGENCY LIMITS

Ingredient	Material name	TEEL-1	TEEL-2	TEEL-3
C18 fatty acid dimers/ tetraethylenepentamine polyamides	C-18 Unsaturated fatty acid, dimers, reaction products with polyethylenepolyamines; (Versamid 140 polyamide resin; Versamid 125)	30 mg/m3	330 mg/m3	2,000 mg/m3
alumina hydrate	Aluminum hydroxide	8.7 mg/m3	73 mg/m3	440 mg/m3
triethylenetetramine	Triethylenetetramine	3 ppm	14 ppm	83 ppm
antimony trioxide	Antimony trioxide	1.8 mg/m3	16 mg/m3	96 mg/m3
propylene glycol monomethyl ether acetate, alpha-isomer	Propylene glycol monomethyl ether acetate, alpha-isomer; (1-Methoxypropyl-2-acetate)	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
carbon black	Carbon black	9 mg/m3	99 mg/m3	590 mg/m3

Ingredient	Original IDLH	Revised IDLH
C18 fatty acid dimers/ tetraethylenepentamine polyamides	Not Available	Not Available
alumina hydrate	Not Available	Not Available
decabromodiphenylethane	Not Available	Not Available
zinc borate hydrate	Not Available	Not Available
triethylenetetramine	Not Available	Not Available
antimony trioxide	50 mg/m3	Not Available
naphtha petroleum, heavy alkylate	Not Available	Not Available
propylene glycol monomethyl ether acetate, alpha-isomer	Not Available	Not Available
carbon black	1,750 mg/m3	Not Available

OCCUPATIONAL EXPOSURE BANDING

Ingredient	Occupational Exposure Band Rating	Occupational Exposure Band Limit
C18 fatty acid dimers/ tetraethylenepentamine polyamides	E	≤ 0.1 ppm
zinc borate hydrate	C	> 0.1 to ≤ milligrams per cubic meter of air (mg/m³)
triethylenetetramine	E	≤ 0.1 ppm
Notes:	*Occupational exposure banding is a process of assigning chemicals into specific categories or bands based on a chemical's potency and the adverse health outcomes associated with exposure. The output of this process is an occupational exposure band (OEB), which corresponds to a range of exposure concentrations that are expected to protect worker health.*	

MATERIAL DATA

For aluminium oxide:
The experimental and clinical data indicate that aluminium oxide acts as an 'inert' material when inhaled and seems to have little effect on the lungs nor does it produce significant

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organic disease or toxic effects when exposures are kept under reasonable control.
[Documentation of the Threshold Limit Values], ACGIH, Sixth Edition
The wide-ranging effects of antimony compounds have made it difficult to recommend an exposure standard which characterises the toxicology of these substances. One criteria, reflecting the irritant properties of antimony pentachloride, produced a calculated value of 5.0 mg/m3 (as antimony), which on the basis of experience was felt to be too high but did act as an 'out-rider'. The present value reflects this thinking.
Polyamide hardeners have much reduced volatility, toxicity and are much less irritating to the skin and eyes than amine hardeners. However commercial polyamides may contain a percentage of residual unreacted amine and all unnecessary contact should be avoided.

The TLV is based on the exposures to aluminium chloride and the amount of hydrolysed acid and the corresponding acid TLV to provide the same degree of freedom from irritation.
Workers chronically exposed to aluminium dusts and fumes have developed severe pulmonary reactions including fibrosis, emphysema and pneumothorax. A much rarer encephalopathy has also been described.
for propylene glycol monomethyl ether acetate (PGMEA)
Saturated vapour concentration: 4868 ppm at 20 C.
A two-week inhalation study found nasal effects to the nasal mucosa in animals at concentrations up to 3000 ppm. Differences in the teratogenic potential of the alpha (commercial grade) and beta isomers of PGMEA may be explained by the formation of different metabolites. The beta-isomer is thought to be oxidised to methoxypropionic acid, a homologue to methoxyacetic acid which is a known teratogen. The alpha- form is conjugated and excreted. PGMEA mixture (containing 2% to 5% beta isomer) is a mild skin and eye irritant, produces mild central nervous system effects in animals at 3000 ppm and produces mild CNS impairment and upper respiratory tract and eye irritation in humans at 1000 ppm. In rats exposed to 3000 ppm PGMEA produced slight foetotoxic effects (delayed sternabral ossification) - no effects on foetal development were seen in rabbits exposed at 3000 ppm.

NOTE H: Special requirements exist in relation to classification and labelling of this substance. This note applies to certain coal- and oil -derived substances and to certain entries for groups of substances in Annex VI. European Union (EU) List of harmonised classification and labelling hazardous substances, Table 3.1, Annex VI, Regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 (CLP) - up to the latest ATP
NOTE P: The classification as a carcinogen need not apply if it can be shown that the substance contains less than 0.01% w/w benzene (EINECS No 200-753-7). Note E shall also apply when the substance is classified as a carcinogen. This note applies only to certain complex oil-derived substances in Annex VI.
European Union (EU) List of harmonised classification and labelling hazardous substances, Table 3.1, Annex VI, Regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 (CLP) - up to the latest ATP

8.2. Exposure controls

8.2.1. Appropriate engineering controls

Engineering controls are used to remove a hazard or place a barrier between the worker and the hazard. Well-designed engineering controls can be highly effective in protecting workers and will typically be independent of worker interactions to provide this high level of protection.
The basic types of engineering controls are:
Process controls which involve changing the way a job activity or process is done to reduce the risk.
Enclosure and/or isolation of emission source which keeps a selected hazard 'physically' away from the worker and ventilation that strategically 'adds' and 'removes' air in the work environment. Ventilation can remove or dilute an air contaminant if designed properly. The design of a ventilation system must match the particular process and chemical or contaminant in use.
Employers may need to use multiple types of controls to prevent employee overexposure.

General exhaust is adequate under normal operating conditions. If risk of overexposure exists, wear SAA approved respirator. Correct fit is essential to obtain adequate protection. Provide adequate ventilation in warehouse or closed storage areas. Air contaminants generated in the workplace possess varying 'escape' velocities which, in turn, determine the 'capture velocities' of fresh circulating air required to effectively remove the contaminant.

Type of Contaminant:	Air Speed:
solvent, vapours, degreasing etc., evaporating from tank (in still air)	0.25-0.5 m/s (50-100 f/min)
aerosols, fumes from pouring operations, intermittent container filling, low speed conveyer transfers, welding, spray drift, plating acid fumes, pickling (released at low velocity into zone of active generation)	0.5-1 m/s (100-200 f/min.)
direct spray, spray painting in shallow booths, drum filling, conveyer loading, crusher dusts, gas discharge (active generation into zone of rapid air motion)	1-2.5 m/s (200-500 f/min)
grinding, abrasive blasting, tumbling, high speed wheel generated dusts (released at high initial velocity into zone of very high rapid air motion).	2.5-10 m/s (500-2000 f/min.)

Within each range the appropriate value depends on:

Lower end of the range	Upper end of the range
1: Room air currents minimal or favourable to capture	1: Disturbing room air currents
2: Contaminants of low toxicity or of nuisance value only	2: Contaminants of high toxicity
3: Intermittent, low production.	3: High production, heavy use
4: Large hood or large air mass in motion	4: Small hood - local control only

Simple theory shows that air velocity falls rapidly with distance away from the opening of a simple extraction pipe. Velocity generally decreases with the square of distance from the extraction point (in simple cases). Therefore the air speed at the extraction point should be adjusted, accordingly, after reference to distance from the contaminating source. The air velocity at the extraction fan, for example, should be a minimum of 1-2 m/s (200-400 f/min.) for extraction of solvents generated in a tank 2 meters distant from the extraction point. Other mechanical considerations, producing performance deficits within the extraction apparatus, make it essential that theoretical air velocities are multiplied by factors of 10 or more when extraction systems are installed or used.

8.2.2. Personal protection

Eye and face protection

- Safety glasses with side shields.
- Chemical goggles.
- Contact lenses may pose a special hazard; soft contact lenses may absorb and concentrate irritants. A written policy document, describing the wearing of lenses or restrictions on use, should be created for each workplace or task. This should include a review of lens absorption and adsorption for the class of chemicals in use and an account of injury experience. Medical and first-aid personnel should be trained in their removal and suitable equipment should be readily available. In the event of chemical exposure, begin eye irrigation immediately and remove contact lens as soon as practicable. Lens should be removed at the first signs of eye redness or irritation - lens should be removed in a clean environment only after workers have washed hands thoroughly. [CDC NIOSH Current Intelligence Bulletin 59], [AS/NZS 1336 or national equivalent]

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Skin protection	See Hand protection below
Hands/feet protection	**NOTE:** ▸ The material may produce skin sensitisation in predisposed individuals. Care must be taken, when removing gloves and other protective equipment, to avoid all possible skin contact. ▸ Contaminated leather items, such as shoes, belts and watch-bands should be removed and destroyed. The selection of suitable gloves does not only depend on the material, but also on further marks of quality which vary from manufacturer to manufacturer. Where the chemical is a preparation of several substances, the resistance of the glove material can not be calculated in advance and has therefore to be checked prior to the application. The exact break through time for substances has to be obtained from the manufacturer of the protective gloves and.has to be observed when making a final choice. Personal hygiene is a key element of effective hand care. Gloves must only be worn on clean hands. After using gloves, hands should be washed and dried thoroughly. Application of a non-perfumed moisturiser is recommended. Suitability and durability of glove type is dependent on usage. Important factors in the selection of gloves include: · frequency and duration of contact, · chemical resistance of glove material, · glove thickness and · dexterity Select gloves tested to a relevant standard (e.g. Europe EN 374, US F739, AS/NZS 2161.1 or national equivalent). · When prolonged or frequently repeated contact may occur, a glove with a protection class of 5 or higher (breakthrough time greater than 240 minutes according to EN 374, AS/NZS 2161.10.1 or national equivalent) is recommended. · When only brief contact is expected, a glove with a protection class of 3 or higher (breakthrough time greater than 60 minutes according to EN 374, AS/NZS 2161.10.1 or national equivalent) is recommended. · Some glove polymer types are less affected by movement and this should be taken into account when considering gloves for long-term use. · Contaminated gloves should be replaced. As defined in ASTM F-739-96 in any application, gloves are rated as: · Excellent when breakthrough time > 480 min · Good when breakthrough time > 20 min · Fair when breakthrough time < 20 min · Poor when glove material degrades For general applications, gloves with a thickness typically greater than 0.35 mm, are recommended. It should be emphasised that glove thickness is not necessarily a good predictor of glove resistance to a specific chemical, as the permeation efficiency of the glove will be dependent on the exact composition of the glove material. Therefore, glove selection should also be based on consideration of the task requirements and knowledge of breakthrough times. Glove thickness may also vary depending on the glove manufacturer, the glove type and the glove model. Therefore, the manufacturers' technical data should always be taken into account to ensure selection of the most appropriate glove for the task. Note: Depending on the activity being conducted, gloves of varying thickness may be required for specific tasks. For example: · Thinner gloves (down to 0.1 mm or less) may be required where a high degree of manual dexterity is needed. However, these gloves are only likely to give short duration protection and would normally be just for single use applications, then disposed of. · Thicker gloves (up to 3 mm or more) may be required where there is a mechanical (as well as a chemical) risk i.e. where there is abrasion or puncture potential Gloves must only be worn on clean hands. After using gloves, hands should be washed and dried thoroughly. Application of a non-perfumed moisturiser is recommended. When handling liquid-grade epoxy resins wear chemically protective gloves , boots and aprons. The performance, based on breakthrough times ,of: · Ethyl Vinyl Alcohol (EVAL laminate) is generally excellent · Butyl Rubber ranges from excellent to good · Nitrile Butyl Rubber (NBR) from excellent to fair. · Neoprene from excellent to fair · Polyvinyl (PVC) from excellent to poor As defined in ASTM F-739-96 · Excellent breakthrough time > 480 min · Good breakthrough time > 20 min · Fair breakthrough time < 20 min · Poor glove material degradation Gloves should be tested against each resin system prior to making a selection of the most suitable type. Systems include both the resin and any hardener, individually and collectively) · **DO NOT** use cotton or leather (which absorb and concentrate the resin), natural rubber (latex), medical or polyethylene gloves (which absorb the resin). · **DO NOT** use barrier creams containing emulsified fats and oils as these may absorb the resin; silicone-based barrier creams should be reviewed prior to use. Replacement time should be considered when selecting the most appropriate glove. It may be more effective to select a glove with lower chemical resistance but which is replaced frequently than to select a more resistant glove which is reused many times
Body protection	See Other protection below
Other protection	▸ Overalls. ▸ P.V.C. apron. ▸ Barrier cream. ▸ Skin cleansing cream. ▸ Eye wash unit.

Recommended material(s)

GLOVE SELECTION INDEX

Glove selection is based on a modified presentation of the:
'Forsberg Clothing Performance Index'.
The effect(s) of the following substance(s) are taken into account in the ***computer-generated*** selection:
834ATH-B ATH Flame Retardant Epoxy: Encapsulating and Potting Compound (Part B)

Material	CPI
BUTYL	A
NEOPRENE	A
NITRILE	A

Respiratory protection

Type AK-P Filter of sufficient capacity. (AS/NZS 1716 & 1715, EN 143:2000 & 149:2001, ANSI Z88 or national equivalent)

Where the concentration of gas/particulates in the breathing zone, approaches or exceeds the 'Exposure Standard' (or ES), respiratory protection is required. Degree of protection varies with both face-piece and Class of filter; the nature of protection varies with Type of filter.

Required Minimum Protection Factor	Half-Face Respirator	Full-Face Respirator	Powered Air Respirator
up to 10 x ES	AK-AUS P2	-	AK-PAPR-AUS / Class 1 P2
up to 50 x ES	-	AK-AUS / Class 1 P2	-

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PE/EVAL/PE	A
VITON	A

* CPI - Chemwatch Performance Index
A: Best Selection
B: Satisfactory; may degrade after 4 hours continuous immersion
C: Poor to Dangerous Choice for other than short term immersion
NOTE: As a series of factors will influence the actual performance of the glove, a final selection must be based on detailed observation. -
* Where the glove is to be used on a short term, casual or infrequent basis, factors such as 'feel' or convenience (e.g. disposability), may dictate a choice of gloves which might otherwise be unsuitable following long-term or frequent use. A qualified practitioner should be consulted.

up to 100 x ES	**-**	**AK-2 P2**	**AK-PAPR-2 P2 ^**

^ - Full-face
A(All classes) = Organic vapours, B AUS or B1 = Acid gasses, B2 = Acid gas or hydrogen cyanide(HCN), B3 = Acid gas or hydrogen cyanide(HCN), E = Sulfur dioxide(SO2), G = Agricultural chemicals, K = Ammonia(NH3), Hg = Mercury, NO = Oxides of nitrogen, MB = Methyl bromide, AX = Low boiling point organic compounds(below 65 degC)

- **Cartridge respirators should never be used for emergency ingress or in areas of unknown vapour concentrations or oxygen content.**
- **The wearer must be warned to leave the contaminated area immediately on detecting any odours through the respirator. The odour may indicate that the mask is not functioning properly, that the vapour concentration is too high, or that the mask is not properly fitted. Because of these limitations, only restricted use of cartridge respirators is considered appropriate.**
- **Cartridge performance is affected by humidity. Cartridges should be changed after 2 hr of continuous use unless it is determined that the humidity is less than 75%, in which case, cartridges can be used for 4 hr. Used cartridges should be discarded daily, regardless of the length of time used**

8.2.3. Environmental exposure controls

See section 12

SECTION 9 PHYSICAL AND CHEMICAL PROPERTIES

9.1. Information on basic physical and chemical properties

Appearance	Black

Physical state	Liquid	**Relative density (Water = 1)**	1.26
Odour	Ammonia - like	**Partition coefficient n-octanol / water**	Not Available
Odour threshold	Not Available	**Auto-ignition temperature (°C)**	Not Available
pH (as supplied)	Not Available	**Decomposition temperature**	Not Available
Melting point / freezing point (°C)	Not Available	**Viscosity (cSt)**	10000
Initial boiling point and boiling range (°C)	Not Available	**Molecular weight (g/mol)**	Not Available
Flash point (°C)	>185	Taste	Not Available
Evaporation rate	Not Available	**Explosive properties**	Not Available
Flammability	Not Applicable	**Oxidising properties**	Not Available
Upper Explosive Limit (%)	Not Available	**Surface Tension (dyn/cm or mN/m)**	Not Available
Lower Explosive Limit (%)	Not Available	**Volatile Component (%vol)**	Not Available
Vapour pressure (kPa)	Not Available	**Gas group**	Not Available
Solubility in water	Partly miscible	**pH as a solution (1%)**	Not Available
Vapour density (Air = 1)	Not Available	**VOC g/L**	Not Available

9.2. Other information

Not Available

SECTION 10 STABILITY AND REACTIVITY

10.1.Reactivity	See section 7.2
10.2. Chemical stability	▸ Unstable in the presence of incompatible materials. ▸ Product is considered stable. ▸ Hazardous polymerisation will not occur.
10.3. Possibility of hazardous reactions	See section 7.2
10.4. Conditions to avoid	See section 7.2
10.5. Incompatible materials	See section 7.2
10.6. Hazardous decomposition products	See section 5.3

SECTION 11 TOXICOLOGICAL INFORMATION

11.1. Information on toxicological effects

Inhaled	The material is not thought to produce either adverse health effects or irritation of the respiratory tract following inhalation (as classified by EC

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	Directives using animal models). Nevertheless, adverse systemic effects have been produced following exposure of animals by at least one other route and good hygiene practice requires that exposure be kept to a minimum and that suitable control measures be used in an occupational setting. Inhalation of epoxy resin amine hardener vapours (including polyamines and amine adducts) may produce bronchospasm and coughing episodes lasting days after cessation of the exposure. Even faint traces of these vapours may trigger an intense reaction in individuals showing 'amine asthma'. The literature records several instances of systemic intoxications following the use of amines in epoxy resin systems. Excessive exposure to the vapours of epoxy amine curing agents may cause both respiratory irritation and central nervous system depression. Signs and symptoms of central nervous system depression, in order of increasing exposure, are headache, dizziness, drowsiness, and incoordination. In short, a single prolonged (measured in hours) or excessive inhalation exposure may cause serious adverse effects, including death. Inhalation of antimony and its compounds may produce respiratory and gastrointestinal tract discomfort with sore throat, shallow respiration, coughing, headaches, breathing difficulties, dizziness, weight loss, gingivitis, anaemia, eosinophilia and enzyme inhibition. Inflammation of the upper and lower respiratory tract may occur. Pulmonary congestion and oedema may also occur. Other symptoms include rhinitis, eye irritation, vomiting and diarrhoea, weight loss, dysomnia, hair loss and haematological disorders. Death due to circulatory failure has been described, with pathology showing acute congestion of the heart (myocardial failure), liver and kidneys. Inhalation of vapours or aerosols (mists, fumes), generated by the material during the course of normal handling, may be damaging to the health of the individual. Inhalation of amine vapours may cause irritation of the mucous membranes of the nose and throat and lung irritation with respiratory distress and cough. Single exposures to near lethal concentrations and repeated exposures to sublethal concentrations produces tracheitis, bronchitis, pneumonitis and pulmonary oedema. Aliphatic and alicyclic amines are generally well absorbed from the respiratory tract. Systemic effects include headache, nausea, faintness and anxiety. These effects are thought to be transient and are probably related to the pharmacodynamic action of the amines. Histamine release by aliphatic amines may produce bronchoconstriction and wheezing.
Ingestion	Accidental ingestion of the material may be damaging to the health of the individual. Ingestion of amine epoxy-curing agents (hardeners) may cause severe abdominal pain, nausea, vomiting or diarrhoea. The vomitus may contain blood and mucous. If death does not occur within 24 hours there may be an improvement in the patients condition for 2-4 days only to be followed by the sudden onset of abdominal pain, board-like abdominal rigidity or hypo-tension; this indicates that delayed gastric or oesophageal corrosive damage has occurred. Acute toxic responses to aluminium are confined to the more soluble forms. Symptoms of borate poisoning include nausea, vomiting, diarrhoea, epigastric pain. These may be accompanied headache, weakness and a distinctive red skin rash. In severe cases there may be shock, increased heart rate and the skin may appear blue. Vomiting (which may be violent) is often persistent and vomitus and faeces may contain blood. Weakness, lethargy, headache, restlessness, tremors and intermittent convulsions may also occur. Poisoning produces central nervous system stimulation followed by depression, gastrointestinal disturbance (haemorrhagic gastro-enteritis), erythematous skin eruptions (giving rise to a boiled lobster appearance) and may also involve kidneys (producing oliguria, albuminuria, anuria) and, rarely, liver (hepatomegaly, jaundice). Toxic symptoms may be delayed for several hours. Ingested borates are readily absorbed and do not appear to be metabolised via the liver. Excretion occurs mainly through the kidneys in the urine with about half excreted in the first 12 hours and the remainder over 5-12 days. Borates are excreted primarily in the urine regardless of the route of administration. The borates (tetra-, di-, meta, or ortho- salts, in contrast to perborates) once solubilised in the acid of gastric juices, cannot be distinguished from each other on chemical or toxicological grounds. In humans acute gastroenteric (or percutaneous absorption of as little as 1 gm of sodium borate can result in severe gastrointestinal irritation, kidney damage. In adults the mean lethal dose of sodium borate or boric acid probably exceeds 30 gms (Gosselin) and death occurs due to vascular collapse in the early stages or to central nervous system depression in later stages. Children are thought to be more susceptible to the effects of borate intoxication. Ingestion of antimony compounds may produce violent irritation of the nose, throat, stomach and gastrointestinal tract, vomiting, purging with bloody stools, slow shallow respiration, pulmonary oedema, convulsions, loss of consciousness, coma, and death due to circulatory or respiratory failure. Early signs of antimony intoxication include: fatigue, muscle weakness, myopathy, nausea, low back pain, headache, and metallic taste. Later symptoms include blood disorders (haemolytic anemia, myoglobinuria, haematuria) and renal failure. The substance may cause cough, salivation, nausea, and diarrhoea. It may also cause dizziness, laryngitis, anaemia, muscular and neuralgic pains. Other symptoms of overexposure may include tightness of the chest, pain, swelling of the cervical glands, pustular eruptions ('antimony spots'), particularly on the scrotum, difficult urination, sexual disorders, nervousness, loss of sleep, leukopenia, unconsciousness and death. [NIOSHTIC] The minimum lethal dose in man, of antimony, is 130 mg (although 15000 mg has been survived). Antimony is a strong irritant and emetic but the emetic dose (30 mg by mouth) is dangerously high if vomiting fails to occur. Trivalent compounds are generally more lethal than pentavalent derivatives. The trivalent antimony compounds are cardiotoxic. The insoluble salts however are less likely to produce significant toxic effects. Antimony salts are poorly absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract. Most trivalent compounds of antimony are slowly excreted in the urine and bile. Antimony compounds are used medicinally, but therapeutic dose is close to the toxic dose. Antimony poisoning closely parallels arsenic poisoning although vomiting is probably more prominent as absorption from the gastrointestinal tract is generally lower. Like arsenic, antimony has a high affinity for sulfhydryl groups on many enzymes. Antimony is conjugated with glutathione and excreted in urine and feces. Therefore, excessive exposure to antimony has the potential to deplete intracellular glutathione pools. Temporary changes in heart rhythm occurs amongst humans while poisoned animals exhibit severe heart damage. Periodic medical examinations covering lungs, skin, nervous system, heart and gastro-intestinal tract are recommended for occupationally exposed workers. [ILO Encyclopedia]
Skin Contact	Evidence exists, or practical experience predicts, that the material either produces inflammation of the skin in a substantial number of individuals following direct contact, and/or produces significant inflammation when applied to the healthy intact skin of animals, for up to four hours, such inflammation being present twenty-four hours or more after the end of the exposure period. Skin irritation may also be present after prolonged or repeated exposure; this may result in a form of contact dermatitis (nonallergic). The dermatitis is often characterised by skin redness (erythema) and swelling (oedema) which may progress to blistering (vesiculation), scaling and thickening of the epidermis. At the microscopic level there may be intercellular oedema of the spongy layer of the skin (spongiosis) and intracellular oedema of the epidermis. The material may accentuate any pre-existing dermatitis condition Skin contact with the material may damage the health of the individual; systemic effects may result following absorption. Contact with aluminas (aluminium oxides) may produce a form of irritant dermatitis accompanied by pruritus. Though considered non-harmful, slight irritation may result from contact because of the abrasive nature of the aluminium oxide particles. Amine epoxy-curing agents (hardeners) may produce primary skin irritation and sensitisation dermatitis in predisposed individuals. Cutaneous reactions include erythema, intolerable itching and severe facial swelling. Blistering, with weeping of serious fluid, and crusting and scaling may also occur. Virtually all of the liquid amine curing agents can cause sensitisation or allergic skin reactions. Individuals exhibiting 'amine dermatitis' may experience a dramatic reaction upon re-exposure to minute quantities. Highly sensitive persons may even react to cured resins containing trace amounts of unreacted amine hardener. Minute quantities of air-borne amine may precipitate intense dermatological symptoms in sensitive individuals. Prolonged or repeated exposure may produce tissue necrosis. NOTE: Susceptibility to this sensitisation will vary from person to person. Also, allergic dermatitis may not appear until after several days or weeks of contact. However, once sensitisation has occurred, exposure of the skin to even very small amounts of the material may cause erythema (redness) and oedema (swelling) at the site. Thus, all skin contact with any epoxy curing agent should be avoided.

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	Skin contact with antimony compounds may result in redness and severe irritation with the formation of itchy papules, pustules, skin lesions/ small septic blisters (antimony spots) within a few hours. Rhinitis may also result from dermal contact. Open cuts, abraded or irritated skin should not be exposed to this material Entry into the blood-stream through, for example, cuts, abrasions, puncture wounds or lesions, may produce systemic injury with harmful effects. Examine the skin prior to the use of the material and ensure that any external damage is suitably protected. Absorption by skin may readily exceed vapour inhalation exposure. Symptoms for skin absorption are the same as for inhalation.
Eye	When applied to the eye(s) of animals, the material produces severe ocular lesions which are present twenty-four hours or more after instillation. Vapours of volatile amines cause eye irritation with lachrymation, conjunctivitis and minor transient corneal oedema which results in 'halos' around lights (glaucopsia, 'blue haze', or 'blue-grey haze'). Vision may become misty and halos may appear several hours after workers are exposed to the substance This effect generally disappears spontaneously within a few hours of the end of exposure, and does not produce physiological after-effects. However oedema of the corneal epithelium, which is primarily responsible for vision disturbances, may take more than one or more days to clear, depending on the severity of exposure. Photophobia and discomfort from the roughness of the corneal surface also may occur after greater exposures. Although no detriment to the eye occurs as such, glaucopsia predisposes an affected individual to physical accidents and reduces the ability to undertake skilled tasks such as driving a vehicle. Direct local contact with the liquid may produce eye damage which may be permanent in the case of the lower molecular weight species.
Chronic	On the basis, primarily, of animal experiments, concern has been expressed that the material may produce carcinogenic or mutagenic effects; in respect of the available information, however, there presently exists inadequate data for making a satisfactory assessment. Repeated or long-term occupational exposure is likely to produce cumulative health effects involving organs or biochemical systems. Practical experience shows that skin contact with the material is capable either of inducing a sensitisation reaction in a substantial number of individuals, and/or of producing a positive response in experimental animals. Exposure to the material may cause concerns for human fertility, generally on the basis that results in animal studies provide sufficient evidence to cause a strong suspicion of impaired fertility in the absence of toxic effects, or evidence of impaired fertility occurring at around the same dose levels as other toxic effects, but which are not a secondary non-specific consequence of other toxic effects. Exposure to the material may cause concerns for humans owing to possible developmental toxic effects, generally on the basis that results in appropriate animal studies provide strong suspicion of developmental toxicity in the absence of signs of marked maternal toxicity, or at around the same dose levels as other toxic effects but which are not a secondary non-specific consequence of other toxic effects. Chronic exposure to aluminas (aluminium oxides) of particle size 1.2 microns did not produce significant systemic or respiratory system effects in workers. Epidemiologic surveys have indicated an excess of nonmalignant respiratory disease in workers exposed to aluminum oxide during abrasives production. Very fine Al2O3 powder was not fibrogenic in rats, guinea pigs, or hamsters when inhaled for 6 to 12 months and sacrificed at periods up to 12 months following the last exposure. When hydrated aluminas were injected intratracheally, they produced dense and numerous nodules of advanced fibrosis in rats, a reticulin network with occasional collagen fibres in mice and guinea pigs, and only a slight reticulin network in rabbits. Shaver's disease, a rapidly progressive and often fatal interstitial fibrosis of the lungs, is associated with a process involving the fusion of bauxite (aluminium oxide) with iron, coke and silica at 2000 deg. C. The weight of evidence suggests that catalytically active alumina and the large surface area aluminas can induce lung fibrosis(aluminosis) in experimental animals, but only when given by the intra-tracheal route. The pertinence of such experiments in relation to workplace exposure is doubtful especially since it has been demonstrated that the most reactive of the aluminas (i.e. the chi and gamma forms), when given by inhalation, are non-fibrogenic in experimental animals. However rats exposed by inhalation to refractory aluminium fibre showed mild fibrosis and possibly carcinogenic effects indicating that fibrous aluminas might exhibit different toxicology to non-fibrous forms. Aluminium oxide fibres administered by the intrapleural route produce clear evidence of carcinogenicity. Saffil fibre an artificially produced form alumina fibre used as refractories, consists of over 95% alumina, 3-4 % silica. Animal tests for fibrogenic, carcinogenic potential and oral toxicity have included in-vitro, intraperitoneal injection, intrapleural injection, inhalation, and feeding. The fibre has generally been inactive in animal studies. Also studies of Saffil dust clouds show very low respirable fraction. There is general agreement that particle size determines that the degree of pathogenicity (the ability of a micro-organism to produce infectious disease) of elementary aluminium, or its oxides or hydroxides when they occur as dusts, fumes or vapours. Only those particles small enough to enter the alveolii (sub 5 um) are able to produce pathogenic effects in the lungs. Occupational exposure to aluminium compounds may produce asthma, chronic obstructive lung disease and pulmonary fibrosis. Long-term overexposure may produce dyspnoea, cough, pneumothorax, variable sputum production and nodular interstitial fibrosis; death has been reported. Chronic interstitial pneumonia with severe cavitations in the right upper lung and small cavities in the remaining lung tissue, have been observed in gross pathology. Shaver's Disease may result from occupational exposure to fumes or dusts; this may produce respiratory distress and fibrosis with large blebs. Animal studies produce no indication that aluminium or its compounds are carcinogenic. Because aluminium competes with calcium for absorption, increased amounts of dietary aluminium may contribute to the reduced skeletal mineralisation (osteopenia) observed in preterm infants and infants with growth retardation. In very high doses, aluminium can cause neurotoxicity, and is associated with altered function of the blood-brain barrier. A small percentage of people are allergic to aluminium and experience contact dermatitis, digestive disorders, vomiting or other symptoms upon contact or ingestion of products containing aluminium, such as deodorants or antacids. In those without allergies, aluminium is not as toxic as heavy metals, but there is evidence of some toxicity if it is consumed in excessive amounts. Although the use of aluminium cookware has not been shown to lead to aluminium toxicity in general, excessive consumption of antacids containing aluminium compounds and excessive use of aluminium-containing antiperspirants provide more significant exposure levels. Studies have shown that consumption of acidic foods or liquids with aluminium significantly increases aluminium absorption, and maltol has been shown to increase the accumulation of aluminium in nervous and osseus tissue. Furthermore, aluminium increases oestrogen-related gene expression in human breast cancer cells cultured in the laboratory These salts' estrogen-like effects have led to their classification as a metalloestrogen.Some researchers have expressed concerns that the aluminium in antiperspirants may increase the risk of breast cancer. After absorption, aluminium distributes to all tissues in animals and humans and accumulates in some, in particular bone. The main carrier of the aluminium ion in plasma is the iron binding protein, transferrin. Aluminium can enter the brain and reach the placenta and foetus. Aluminium may persist for a very long time in various organs and tissues before it is excreted in the urine. Although retention times for aluminium appear to be longer in humans than in rodents, there is little information allowing extrapolation from rodents to the humans. At high levels of exposure, some aluminium compounds may produce DNA damage in vitro and in vivo via indirect mechanisms. The database on carcinogenicity of aluminium compounds is limited. No indication of any carcinogenic potential was obtained in mice given aluminium potassium sulphate at high levels in the diet. Aluminium has shown neurotoxicity in patients undergoing dialysis and thereby chronically exposed parenterally to high concentrations of aluminium. It has been suggested that aluminium is implicated in the aetiology of Alzheimer’s disease and associated with other neurodegenerative diseases in humans. However, these hypotheses remain controversial. Several compounds containing aluminium have the potential to produce neurotoxicity (mice, rats) and to affect the male reproductive system (dogs). In addition, after maternal exposure they have shown embryotoxicity (mice) and have affected the developing nervous system in the offspring (mice, rats). The available studies have a number of limitations and do not allow any dose-response relationships to be established. The combined evidence from several studies in mice, rats and dogs that used dietary administration of aluminium compounds produce lowest-observed-adverse-effect levels (LOAELs) for effects on neurotoxicity, testes, embryotoxicity, and the developing nervous system of 52, 75, 100, and 50 mg aluminium/kg bw/day, respectively. Similarly, the lowest no-observed-adverse-effect levels (NOAELs) for effects on these endpoints were reported at 30, 27, 100, and for effects on the developing nervous system, between 10 and 42 mg aluminium/kg bw per day, respectively.

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Controversy exists over whether aluminium is the cause of degenerative brain disease (Alzheimer's disease or AD). Several epidemiological studies show a possible correlation between the incidence of AD and high levels of aluminium in drinking water. A study in Toronto, for example, found a 2.6 times increased risk in people residing for at least 10 years in communities where drinking water contained more than 0.15 mg/l aluminium compared with communities where the aluminium level was lower than 0.1 mg/l. A neurochemical model has been suggested linking aluminium exposure to brain disease. Aluminium concentrates in brain regions, notably the hippocampus, cerebral cortex and amygdala where it preferentially binds to large pyramid-shaped cells - it does not bind to a substantial degree to the smaller interneurons. Aluminium displaces magnesium in key metabolic reactions in brain cells and also interferes with calcium metabolism and inhibits phosphoinositide metabolism. Phosphoinositide normally controls calcium ion levels at critical concentrations.
Under the microscope the brain of AD sufferers show thickened fibrils (neurofibrillary tangles - NFT) and plaques consisting of amyloid protein deposited in the matrix between brain cells. Tangles result from alteration of 'tau' a brain cytoskeletal protein. AD tau is distinguished from normal tau because it is hyperphosphorylated. Aluminium hyperphosphorylates tau in vitro. When AD tau is injected into rat brain NFT-like aggregates form but soon degrade. Aluminium stabilises these aggregates rendering them resistant to protease degradation. Plaque formation is also enhanced by aluminium which induces the accumulation of amyloid precursor protein in the thread-like extensions of nerve cells (axons and dendrites). In addition aluminium has been shown to depress the activity of most neuro-transmitters similarly depressed in AD (acetylcholine, norepinephrine, glutamate and GABA).
Aluminium enters the brain in measurable quantities, even when trace levels are contained in a glass of tap water. Other sources of bioavailable aluminium include baking powder, antacids and aluminium products used for general food preparation and storage (over 12 months, aluminium levels in soft drink packed in aluminium cans rose from 0.05 to 0.9 mg/l). [*Walton, J and Bryson-Taylor, D. - Chemistry in Australia, August 1995*]
Secondary amines may react in the acid conditions of the stomach with oxidants or preservatives) to form potentially carcinogenic N-nitrosamines. The formation of nitrosamines from such amines has not only been observed in animals models but, at least for certain compounds, in the workplace. The amine-containing substances and end products handled at work can themselves be contaminated to a degree with corresponding nitrosamines. Under conditions encountered in practice nitrosation is to be expected with secondary amines and to a limited extent with primary and tertiary amines. Nitrogen oxides are the most probable nitrosating agents. Nitrosyl chloride, nitrite esters, metal nitrites and nitroso compounds may also be involved. Several factors such as pH, temperature, catalysts and inhibitors influence the extent of nitrosation. Two precautionary measures are therefore necessary when handling amines at the workplace.

- Simultaneous exposure to nitrosating agents should be reduced to minimum. This can be out into practice by eliminating nitrosating agents or, if they play a role in the actual process, replacing them with substances that do not lead to the formation of carcinogenic nitrosamines. In particular the level of nitrogen oxides at the workplace should be monitored and reduced when necessary.
- The levels of nitrosamines in the workplace and in substances containing amines should be monitored.

Commission for the Investigation of Health Hazards of Chemical Compounds in the Work Area, Report No. 31, DFG, 1995
In animal experiments the oesophagus is shown to be the most important target organ for nitrosamines, independent of the route of application. The mechanism of this organotrophy cannot be explained sufficiently. The high oesophageal epithelium metabolic activation of nitrosamines, together with a comparatively low DNA repair, probably plays the most important role. In addition chronic stress factors, which lead to high stimulation of epithelial turnover, are a pacemaker for malignant progression. In some countries, the traditional consumption of extremely hot drinks leads to constant burns of the oesophagus, which increases the risk. Mate, a non-alcoholic brew, frequently consumed as tea in Uruguay, appears to be a high risk factor for oesophageal cancer
Chronic intoxication with ionic bromides, historically, has resulted from medical use of bromides but not from environmental or occupational exposure; depression, hallucinosis, and schizophreniform psychosis can be seen in the absence of other signs of intoxication. Bromides may also induce sedation, irritability, agitation, delirium, memory loss, confusion, disorientation, forgetfulness (aphasias), dysarthria, weakness, fatigue, vertigo, stupor, coma, decreased appetite, nausea and vomiting, diarrhoea, hallucinations, an acne like rash on the face, legs and trunk, known as bronchoderma (seen in 25-30% of case involving bromide ion), and a profuse discharge from the nostrils (coryza). Ataxia and generalised hyperreflexia have also been observed. Correlation of neurologic symptoms with blood levels of bromide is inexact. The use of substances such as brompheniramine, as antihistamines, largely reflect current day usage of bromides; ionic bromides have been largely withdrawn from therapeutic use due to their toxicity.
In test animals, brominated vegetable oils (BVOs), historically used as emulsifiers in certain soda-based soft drinks, produced damage to the heart and kidneys in addition to increasing fat deposits in these organs. In extreme cases BVO caused testicular damage, stunted growth and produced lethargy and fatigue.
Brominism produces slurred speech, apathy, headache, decreased memory, anorexia and drowsiness, psychosis resembling paranoid schizophrenia, and personality changes
Several cases of foetal abnormalities have been described in mothers who took large doses of bromides during pregnancy.
Reproductive effects caused by bromide (which crosses the placenta) include central nervous system depression, brominism, and bronchoderma in the newborn.
Repeated or prolonged exposure to antimony and its compounds may produce stomatitis, dry throat, metallic taste, gingivitis, septal and laryngeal perforation, laryngitis, headache, dyspnea, indigestion, nausea, vomiting, diarrhoea, anorexia, anaemia, weight loss, pain and chest tightness, sleeplessness, muscular pain and weakness, dizziness, pharyngitis,tracheitis, bronchitis, pneumonitis, benign pneumoconiosis (with obstructive lung disease and emphysema) and haematological disorders. Degenerative changes of the liver and kidney may occur. Symptoms can be variable, and may including fatigue, myopathy (muscle aches and inflammation), hypotension, angina and immune dysregulation and hypertrophy of splenic follicles.
Antimony's deposition in body tissues and its detrimental effects depend upon the oxidation state of the element. The trivalent antimony compounds are cardiotoxic. Trivalent antimony affects liver functions, impairs enzymes, and may interfere with sulfur chemistry. If antimony impairs phosphofructokinase (PFK), then purine metabolism may be disrupted, resulting in elevated blood and/or urine levels of hypoxanthine, uric acid and possibly ammonia. Pentavalent antimony deposits in bone, kidney, and in organs of the endocrine system.
Chronic exposure to antimony compounds may result in itchiness, papules and pustules around sweat and sebaceous glands ('antimony spots'), but rarely around the face, and dermatitis.
Collapse and sudden death due to anaphylactic-type reactions have occurred. Therapeutic doses given intravenously cause nausea, vomiting, cough and abdominal pain and diarrhoea. Other side-effects include anorexia, chest, muscle and joint pains, pruritus, skin rashes, dizziness and oedema. Renal and hepatic damage occur rarely and haemolytic anaemia has been reported. Continuous treatment with small doses of antimony may give rise to subacute poisoning similar to chronic arsenic poisoning.
Smelter workers often show skin rashes on the forearms and thighs resembling chicken pox pustules.
Workers exposed to inorganic antimony compounds show a benign pneumoconiosis and obstructive lung disease - these are probably non-specific. Woman appear to more susceptible to systemic effects following exposure. Antimony crosses the placenta, is present in amniotic fluids, and is excreted in breast milk. There are suggestions that exposure may produce an increased incidence of spontaneous late abortions, premature births, and gynecological problems among female antimony smelter workers. An excess of deaths from lung cancer has been reported in smelter workers with more than 7 years exposure to relatively high levels of dust and fume. Animal studies demonstrate that the dust may produce pathological changes in cardiac muscle and may produce an interstitial pneumonitis and endogenous pneumonia. One animal study has also suggested that inhalation of the dust by rats induced a significantly increased incidence of carcinogenic tumours of the lungs and thorax.
Increased chromosome defects occur when human lymphocytes are incubated with a soluble antimony salt.
The inhalation data suggests that the myocardium is a target of antimony toxicity. It is possible that antimony affects circulating glucose by interfering with enzymes of the glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis pathways. The mechanism of action of antimony remains unclear. However, some studies suggest that antimony combines with sulfhydryl groups including those in several enzymes important for tissue respiration

834ATH-B ATH Flame Retardant Epoxy: Encapsulating and Potting Compound (Part B)

TOXICITY	IRRITATION
Not Available	Not Available

Continued...

C18 fatty acid dimers/ tetraethylenepentamine polyamides	

TOXICITY	IRRITATION
dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Not Available
Oral (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	

alumina hydrate	

TOXICITY	IRRITATION
Oral (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]

decabromodiphenylethane	

TOXICITY	IRRITATION
dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[2]	Not Available
Oral (rat) LD50: >5000 mg/kg[2]	

zinc borate hydrate	

TOXICITY	IRRITATION
Dermal (rabbit) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Eye: adverse effect observed (irritating)[1]
Oral (rat) LD50: >5000 mg/kg[1]	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]

triethylenetetramine	

TOXICITY	IRRITATION
Dermal (rabbit) LD50: =550 mg/kg[2]	Eye (rabbit):20 mg/24 h - moderate
Oral (rat) LD50: 2500 mg/kg[2]	Eye (rabbit); 49 mg - SEVERE
	Skin (rabbit): 490 mg open SEVERE
	Skin (rabbit): 5 mg/24 SEVERE

antimony trioxide	

TOXICITY	IRRITATION
Oral (rat) LD50: >34000 mg/kg[2]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]

naphtha petroleum, heavy alkylate	

TOXICITY	IRRITATION
Dermal (rabbit) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[2]	Not Available
Inhalation (rat) LC50: >3.83 mg/l/4H[2]	
Oral (rat) LD50: >7000 mg/kg[2]	

propylene glycol monomethyl ether acetate, alpha-isomer	

TOXICITY	IRRITATION
dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
Inhalation (rat) LC50: 6510.0635325 mg/l/6h[2]	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
Oral (rat) LD50: 5155 mg/kg[1]	

carbon black	

TOXICITY	IRRITATION
dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
Oral (rat) LD50: >15400 mg/kg[2]	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]

Legend:	*1. Value obtained from Europe ECHA Registered Substances - Acute toxicity 2.* Value obtained from manufacturer's SDS. Unless otherwise specified data extracted from RTECS - Register of Toxic Effect of chemical Substances*

834ATH-B ATH Flame Retardant Epoxy: Encapsulating and Potting Compound (Part B)	For aluminium compounds: Aluminium present in food and drinking water is poorly absorbed through the gastrointestinal tract. The bioavailability of aluminium is dependent on the form in which it is ingested and the presence of dietary constituents with which the metal cation can complex Ligands in food can have a marked effect on absorption of aluminium, as they can either enhance uptake by forming absorbable (usually water soluble) complexes (e.g., with carboxylic acids such as citric and lactic), or reduce it by forming insoluble compounds (e.g., with phosphate or dissolved silicate). Considering the available human and animal data it is likely that the oral absorption of aluminium can vary 10-fold based on chemical form alone. Although bioavailability appears to generally parallel water solubility, insufficient data are available to directly extrapolate from solubility in water to bioavailability. For oral intake from food, the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) has derived a tolerable weekly intake (TWI) of 1 milligram (mg) of aluminium per kilogram of bodyweight. In its health assessment, the EFSA states a medium bioavailability of 0.1 % for all aluminium compounds which are ingested with food. This corresponds to a systemically available tolerable daily dose of 0.143 microgrammes (µg) per kilogramme (kg) of body weight. This means that for an adult weighing 60 kg, a systemically available dose of 8.6 µg per day is considered safe. Based on a neuro-developmental toxicity study of aluminium citrate administered via drinking water to rats, the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives (JECFA) established a Provisional Tolerable Weekly Intake (PTWI) of 2 mg/kg bw (expressed as

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aluminium) for all aluminium compounds in food, including food additives. The Committee on Toxicity of chemicals in food, consumer products and the environment (COT) considers that the derivation of this PTWI was sound and that it should be used in assessing potential risks from dietary exposure to aluminium.

The Federal Institute for Risk Assessment (BfR) of Germany has assessed the estimated aluminium absorption from antiperspirants. For this purpose, the data, derived from experimental studies, on dermal absorption of aluminium from antiperspirants for healthy and damaged skin was used as a basis. At about 10.5 µg, the calculated systemic intake values for healthy skin are above the 8.6 µg per day that are considered safe for an adult weighing 60 kg. If aluminium -containing antiperspirants are used on a daily basis, the tolerable weekly intake determined by the EFSA is therefore exceeded. The values for damaged skin, for example injuries from shaving, are many times higher. This means that in case of daily use of an aluminium-containing antiperspirant alone, the TWI may be completely exhausted. In addition, further aluminium absorption sources such as food, cooking utensils and other cosmetic products must be taken into account

Systemic toxicity after repeated exposure

No studies were located regarding dermal effects in animals following intermediate or chronic-duration dermal exposure to various forms of aluminium.

When orally administered to rats, aluminium compounds (including aluminium nitrate, aluminium sulfate and potassium aluminium sulfate) have produced various effects, including decreased gain in body weight and mild histopathological changes in the spleen, kidney and liver of rats (104 mg Al/kg bw/day) and dogs (88-93 mg Al/kg bw/day) during subchronic oral exposure. Effects on nerve cells, testes, bone and stomach have been reported at higher doses. Severity of effects increased with dose.

The main toxic effects of aluminium that have been observed in experimental animals are neurotoxicity and nephrotoxicity. Neurotoxicity has also been described in patients dialysed with water containing high concentrations of aluminium, but epidemiological data on possible adverse effects in humans at lower exposures are inconsistent

Reproductive and developmental toxicity:

Studies of reproductive toxicity in male mice (intraperitoneal or subcutaneous administration of aluminium nitrate or chloride) and rabbits (administration of aluminium chloride by gavage) have demonstrated the ability of aluminium to cause testicular toxicity, decreased sperm quality in mice and rabbits and reduced fertility in mice. No reproductive toxicity was seen in females given aluminium nitrate by gavage or dissolved in drinking water. Multi-generation reproductive studies in which aluminium sulfate and aluminium ammonium sulfate were administered to rats in drinking water, showed no evidence of reproductive toxicity

High doses of aluminium compounds given by gavage have induced signs of embryotoxicity in mice and rats in particular, reduced fetal body weight or pup weight at birth and delayed ossification. Developmental toxicity studies in which aluminium chloride was administered by gavage to pregnant rats showed evidence of foetotoxicity, but it was unclear whether the findings were secondary to maternal toxicity. A twelve-month neuro-development with aluminium citrate administered via the drinking water to Sprague-Dawley rats, was conducted according to Good Laboratory Practice (GLP). Aluminium citrate was selected for the study since it is the most soluble and bioavailable aluminium salt. Pregnant rats were exposed to aluminium citrate from gestational day 6 through lactation, and then the offspring were exposed post-weaning until postnatal day 364. An extensive functional observational battery of tests was performed at various times. Evidence of aluminium toxicity was demonstrated in the high (300 mg/kg bw/day of aluminium) and to a lesser extent, the mid-dose groups (100 mg/kg bw/day of aluminium). In the high-dose group, the main effect was renal damage, resulting in high mortality in the male offspring. No major neurological pathology or neurobehavioural effects were observed, other than in the neuromuscular subdomain (reduced grip strength and increased foot splay). Thus, the lowest observed adverse effect level (LOAEL) was 100 mg/kg bw/day and the no observed adverse effect level (NOAEL) was 30 mg/kg bw/day. Bioavailability of aluminium chloride, sulfate and nitrate and aluminium hydroxide was much lower than that of aluminium citrate This study was used by JECFA as key study to derive the PTWI.

Genotoxicity

Aluminium compounds were non-mutagenic in bacterial and mammalian cell systems, but some produced DNA damage and effects on chromosome integrity and segregation in vitro. Clastogenic effects were also observed in vivo when aluminium sulfate was administered at high doses by gavage or by the intraperitoneal route. Several indirect mechanisms have been proposed to explain the variety of genotoxic effects elicited by aluminium salts in experimental systems. Cross-linking of DNA with chromosomal proteins, interaction with microtubule assembly and mitotic spindle functioning, induction of oxidative damage, damage of lysosomal membranes with liberation of DNAase, have been suggested to explain the induction of structural chromosomal aberrations, sister chromatid exchanges, chromosome loss and formation of oxidized bases in experimental systems. The EFSA Panel noted that these indirect mechanisms of genotoxicity, occurring at relatively high levels of exposure, are unlikely to be of relevance for humans exposed to aluminium via the diet. Aluminium compounds do not cause gene mutations in either bacteria or mammalian cells. Exposure to aluminium compounds does result in both structural and numerical chromosome aberrations both in in-vitro and in-vivo mutagenicity tests. DNA damage is probably the result of indirect mechanisms. The DNA damage was observed only at high exposure levels.

Carcinogenicity.

The available epidemiological studies provide limited evidence that certain exposures in the aluminium production industry are carcinogenic to humans, giving rise to cancer of the lung and bladder. However, the aluminium exposure was confounded by exposure to other agents including polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, aromatic amines, nitro compounds and asbestos. There is no evidence of increased cancer risk in non-occupationally exposed persons.

Neurodegenerative diseases.

Following the observation that high levels of aluminium in dialysis fluid could cause a form of dementia in dialysis patients, a number of studies were carried out to determine if aluminium could cause dementia or cognitive impairment as a consequence of environmental exposure over long periods. Aluminium was identified, along with other elements, in the amyloid plaques that are one of the diagnostic lesions in the brain for Alzheimer disease, a common form of senile and pre-senile dementia. some of the epidemiology studies suggest the possibility of an association of Alzheimer disease with aluminium in water, but other studies do not confirm this association. All studies lack information on ingestion of aluminium from food and how concentrations of aluminium in food affect the association between aluminium in water and Alzheimer disease." There are suggestions that persons with some genetic variants may absorb more aluminium than others, but there is a need for more analytical research to determine whether aluminium from various sources has a significant causal association with Alzheimer disease and other neurodegenerative diseases.Aluminium is a neurotoxicant in experimental animals. However, most of the animal studies performed have several limitations and therefore cannot be used for quantitative risk assessment.

Contact sensitivity:

It has been suggested that the body burden of aluminium may be linked to different iseases. Macrophagic myofasciitis and chronic fatigue syndrome can be caused by aluminium-containing adjuvants in vaccines. Macrophagic myofasciitis (MMF) has been described as a disease in adults presenting with ascending myalgia and severe fatigue following exposure to aluminium hydroxide-containing vaccines The corresponding histological findings include aluminium-containing macrophages infiltrating muscle tissue at the injection site. The hypothesis is that the long-lasting granuloma triggers the development of the systemic syndrome.

Aluminium acts not only as an adjuvant,stimulating the immune system either to fend off infections or to tolerate antigens, it also acts as a sensitisers causing contact allergy and allergic contact dermatitis. In general, metal allergies are very common and aluminium is considered to be a weak allergen. A metal must be ionised to be able to act as a contact allergen, then it has to undergo haptenisation to be immunogenic and to initiate an immune response.Once inside the skin, the metal ions must bind to proteins to become immunologically reactive.The most important routes of exposure and sensitisation to aluminium are through aluminium-containing vaccines. One Swedish study showed a statistically significant association between contact allergy to aluminium and persistent itching nodules in children treated with allergen-specific immunotherapy (ASIT) Nodules were overrepresented in patients with contact allergy to aluminium

Other routes of sensitisation reported in the literature are the prolonged use of aluminium-containing antiperspirants, topical medication, and tattooing of the skin with aluminium-containing pigments. Most of the patients experienced eczematous reactions whereas tattooing caused granulomas. Even though aluminium is used extensively in industry, only a low number of cases of occupational skin sensitisation to aluminium have been reported Systemic allergic contact dermatitis in the form of flare-up reactions after re-exposure to aluminium has been documented: pruritic nodules at present and previous injection sites, eczema at the site of vaccination as well as at typically atopic localisations after vaccination with aluminium-containing vaccines and/or patch testing with aluminium, and also after use of aluminium-containing toothpaste

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C18 FATTY ACID DIMERS/ TETRAETHYLENEPENTAMINE POLYAMIDES	The material may produce moderate eye irritation leading to inflammation. Repeated or prolonged exposure to irritants may produce conjunctivitis. **[Valspar]
DECABROMODIPHENYLETHANE	The primary health concerns revolve around the potential of polybrominated fire retardants (PBFRs) to act as carcinogens, endocrine disruptors and neurodevelopmental toxicants based on data for some members of this class of chemicals. In addition, their structural similarities to the polychlorinated diphenyl ethers (PCDEs), nitrofen and polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) lends further support to concerns for health effects exerted by these chemicals. Three PBFRs, the penta-, octa- and decabromodipheyl ethers (BDPE)s, have been and remain of significant commercial interest. Nonetheless, the field of PBFRs is expanding and a diverse range of these chemicals are now available . Emphasis on the health effects of PBFRs is directed to certain chemical compounds within this class, namely decabromodipehyl ether (DBDPE), pentabromodipheyl ether (PeBDPE), octabromodiphemyl ether (OBDPE) and hexabromocyclododecane (HBCD). Also discussed are the polybrominated biphenyls (PCBs) and tris(2,3-dibromopropylphosphate (TDBPP), though no longer used, due to their significant adverse health effects. The PBFRs are a structurally diverse group of chemical compounds, some of which share similarities in chemical structure while others vary significantly. Pharmacokinetic studies are limited for most of the chemicals . However, the available information indicates that some brominated flame retardants such as tetrabromodiphenyl ether (TBDPE), HBCD, TDBPP and PBBs are readily absorbed via the gastrointestinal tract. Data available for the polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDPE)s and PBBs indicate that the degree of gastrointestinal absorption is inversely proportional to the level of bromination. Dermal absorption has also been reported for TDBPP. They are generally of low acute toxicity with no or slight and transient irritation to the skin and eyes of experimental animals. Inhalation studies in animals revealed that exposure to PBDPEs caused transient respiratory difficulties. Like the PBDPEs, tetrabromobisphenol A (TBBPA) and its derivatives have low acute and repeated dose toxicity. They are neither skin or eye irritants nor skin sensitisers in experimental animals. Reversible respiratory effects were reported following inhalation exposure. With a few exceptions, mutagenicity studies indicate that the majority of the PBRs are neither mutagenic to microbial or eukaryotic organisms nor genotoxic in experimental *in vivo* and *in vitro* systems. TBDPE and HBCD caused an increase in the recombination frequency in some cell lines. Of the commercially and commonly used PBFRs, penta- and tetra-bromodiphenyl ethers appear to be of greatest significance where health effects are concerned. Evidence indicates that the liver, and possibly the thyroid, are the organs most sensitive to these chemicals. According to available data, they are endocrine disruptors and neurodevelopmental toxicants in experimental animals. Whether neurodevelopmental effects are a consequence of changes in thyroid hormone levels or are caused by direct neurotoxicity remain to be elucidated. The absence of clinical, physiological and biochemical correlates precludes any conclusions as to the nature of the mechanisms involved. PeBDPE has been classified as a hazardous chemical, Harmful- Danger of Serious Damage to Health by Prolonged Exposure in Contact with Skin and if Swallowed. A similar toxicity profile is apparent for TBDPE. OBDPE is another chemical of concern due to its adverse effects on reproduction in experimental animals. The two other groups with significant adverse health effects are TDBPP and PBBs. Although both have relatively low acute toxicity in experimental animals, evidence for carcinogenicity, endocrine disruption and reproductive effects exists. Little human data is available, however, epidemiological reports and follow up studies indicate that PBDPE, TDBPP and PBBs are absorbed and can be detected in the serum, adipose tissue and breast milk of directly and/or indirectly exposed individuals. The available evidence indicates that, in some countries, levels of these chemicals are increasing in animal and human tissues (including breast milk), which suggests they are bioaccumulative and persistent. Thyroid effects appear to be the major adverse health effect, with hypothyroidism seen in animals (e.g. OBDPE and PeBDPE, HBCD and PBB) and humans (e.g. DBDPE and deca-BB), although some PBFRs (e.g. DBDPE, TDBPP, HBCD and PBB) elicit carcinogenic effects in animal studies. **Blooming potential:** Blooming is defined as the migration (or more appropriately, diffusion) of an ingredient (e.g., plasticiser or flame retardant) in rubber or plastic material to the outer surface after curing. It is sometimes incorrectly referred to as 'leaching' or 'degassing'. Diffusion is generally considered to be a slow process. Blooming has been identified as a source of potential exposure (human and environmental) to PBFRs, particularly for low molecular weight additive PBFRs. It is generally accepted that 'reactive', PBFRs such as TBBPA (and derivatives) and esters of acrylic (propenoic) acid, which are directly incorporated into polymers (e.g., polyester or epoxy resins) via chemical reaction (i.e., covalent binding) have a low or negligible blooming potential, although such chemicals can also be used as non-reactive (i.e., additive) ingredients. So-called 'additive' PBFRs (e.g., PBDPEs, PBBs, HBCD) are more likely to be subject to blooming, as these compounds are not chemically bound to the polymer backbone. Additive PBFRs reside within the polymer matrix as discrete molecules, but may be subject to weak Van der Waals and electrostatic interaction both between PBFR molecules and with the polymer backbone. High molecular weight polymeric additive flame retardants such as brominated polystyrene are more likely to remain within the matrix due to the slow rate of diffusion. Other PBFRs may undergo both reactive and/or additive reactions with polymer matrices e.g., tetrabromophthalic anhydride and brominated polystyrenes. Increased temperature is also associated with an increase in the rate of PBFR migration. Release of PBFRs or degradation products may occur at high temperatures during thermal processing or recycling e.g. PBDPEs emissions have been reported during thermal recycling activities. Serious eye damage/ irritation Not irritant Respiratory or skin sensitisation Not a skin sensitizer Not mutagenic by the Ames Test. Did not induce chromosome aberrations in CHL cells when tested up to 5000 ug/mL in the presence or absence of S9 activation. Not clastogenic in chromosome aberration test with Human lymphocytes. Developmental toxicity Decabromodiphenyl ethane did not induce developmental effects in rats at doses up to 1250 mg/kg/d administered prenatally. (STOT) - Single exposure No effects on specific target organs have been identified (STOT) - Repeat exposure NOAEL 1000 mg/kg/day (13 weeks oral,rat) Does not meet classification criteria. *ICL SDS
TRIETHYLENETETRAMINE	Handling ethyleneamine products is complicated by their tendency to react with other chemicals, such as carbon dioxide in the air, which results in the formation of solid carbamates. Because of their ability to produce chemical burns, skin rashes, and asthma-like symptoms, ethyleneamines also require substantial care in handling. Higher molecular weight ethyleneamines are often handled at elevated temperatures further increasing the possibility of vapor exposure to these compounds. Because of the fragility of eye tissue, almost any eye contact with any ethyleneamine may cause irreparable damage, even blindness. A single, short exposure to ethyleneamines, may cause severe skin burns, while a single, prolonged exposure may result in the material being absorbed through the skin in harmful amounts. Exposures have caused allergic skin reactions in some individuals. Single dose oral toxicity of ethyleneamines is low. The oral LD50 for rats is in the range of 1000 to 4500 mg/kg for the ethyleneamines. In general, the low-molecular weight polyamines have been positive in the Ames assay, increase sister chromatid exchange in Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cells, and are positive for unscheduled DNA synthesis although they are negative in the mouse micronucleus assay. It is believed that the positive results are based on its ability to chelate copper The material may produce severe irritation to the eye causing pronounced inflammation. Repeated or prolonged exposure to irritants may produce conjunctivitis. The material may produce severe skin irritation after prolonged or repeated exposure, and may produce a contact dermatitis (nonallergic). This form of dermatitis is often characterised by skin redness (erythema) thickening of the epidermis. Histologically there may be intercellular oedema of the spongy layer (spongiosis) and intracellular oedema of the epidermis. Prolonged contact is unlikely, given the severity of response, but repeated exposures may produce severe ulceration. For alkyl polyamines: The alkyl polyamines cluster consists of organic compounds containing two terminal primary amine groups and at least one secondary amine group.Typically these substances are derivatives of ethylenediamine, propylenediamine or hexanediamine. The molecular weight range for the entire cluster is relatively narrow, ranging from 103 to 232 Acute toxicity of the alkyl polyamines cluster is low to moderate via oral exposure and a moderate to high via dermal exposure. Cluster members have been shown to be eye irritants, skin irritants, and skin sensitisers in experimental animals. Repeated exposure in rats via the oral route indicates a range of toxicity from low to high hazard. Most cluster members gave positive results in tests for potential genotoxicity. Limited carcinogenicity studies on several members of the cluster showed no evidence of carcinogenicity. Unlike aromatic amines, aliphatic

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	amines are not expected to be potential carcinogens because they are not expected to undergo metabolic activation, nor would activated intermediates be stable enough to reach target macromolecules. Polyamines potentiate NMDA induced whole-cell currents in cultured striatal neurons Triethylenetetramine (TETA) is a severe irritant to skin and eyes and induces skin sensitisation. TETA is of moderate acute toxicity: LD50(oral, rat) > 2000 mg/kg bw, LD50(dermal, rabbit) = 550 - 805 mg/kg bw. Acute exposure to saturated vapour via inhalation was tolerated without impairment. Exposure to to aerosol leads to reversible irritations of the mucous membranes in the respiratory tract. Following repeated oral dosing via drinking water only in mice but not in rats at concentration of 3000 ppm there were signs of impairment. The NOAEL is 600 ppm [92 mg/kg bw (oral, 90 days)]. Lifelong dermal application to mice (1.2 mg/mouse) did not result in tumour formation. There are differing results of the genetic toxicity for TETA. The positive results of the in vitro tests may be the result of a direct genetic action as well as a result of an interference with essential metal ions. Due to this uncertainty of the in vitro tests, the genetic toxicity of TETA has to be assessed on the basis of in vivo tests. The in vivo micronucleus tests (i.p. and oral) and the SLRL test showed negative results. There are no human data on reproductive toxicity (fertility assessment). The analogue diethylenetriamine had no effects on reproduction. TETA shows developmental toxicity in animal studies if the chelating property of the substance is effective. The NOEL is 830 mg/kg bw (oral). Experience with female patients suffering from Wilson´s disease demonstrated that no miscarriages and no foetal abnormalities occur during treatment with TETA.. In rats, there are several studies concerning developmental toxicity. The oral treatment of rats with 75, 375 and 750 mg/kg resulted in no effects on dams and fetuses, except slight increased fetal body weight After oral treatment of rats with 830 or 1670 mg/kg bw only in the highest dose group increased foetal abnormalities in 27/44 fetus (69,2 %) were recorded, when simultaneously the copper content of the feed was reduced. Copper supplementation in the feed reduced significant the fetal abnormalities of the highest dose group to 3/51 (6,5 % foetus. These findings suggest that the developmental toxicity is produced as a secondary consequence of the chelating properties of TETA. Exposure to the material for prolonged periods may cause physical defects in the developing embryo (teratogenesis).
ANTIMONY TRIOXIDE	The material may be irritating to the eye, with prolonged contact causing inflammation. Repeated or prolonged exposure to irritants may produce conjunctivitis. (intermittent) [CCINFO] Reproductive effector
NAPHTHA PETROLEUM, HEAVY ALKYLATE	For Low Boiling Point Naphthas (LBPNs): **Acute toxicity:** LBPNs generally have low acute toxicity by the oral (median lethal dose [LD50] in rats > 2000 mg/kg-bw), inhalation (LD50 in rats > 5000 mg/m3) and dermal (LD50 in rabbits > 2000 mg/kg-bw) routes of exposure Most LBPNs are mild to moderate eye and skin irritants in rabbits, with the exception of heavy catalytic cracked and heavy catalytic reformed naphthas, which have higher primary skin irritation indices. **Sensitisation:** LBPNs do not appear to be skin sensitizers, but a poor response in the positive control was also noted in these studies **Repeat dose toxicity:** The lowest-observed-adverse-effect concentration (LOAEC) and lowest-observed-adverse-effect level (LOAEL) values identified following short-term (2-89 days) and subchronic (greater than 90 days) exposure to the LBPN substances. These values were determined for a variety of endpoints after considering the toxicity data for all LBPNs in the group. Most of the studies were carried out by the inhalation route of exposure. Renal effects, including increased kidney weight, renal lesions (renal tubule dilation, necrosis) and hyaline droplet formation, observed in male rats exposed orally or by inhalation to most LBPNs, were considered species- and sex-specific These effects were determined to be due to a mechanism of action not relevant to humans -specifically, the interaction between hydrocarbon metabolites and alpha-2-microglobulin, an enzyme not produced in substantial amounts in female rats, mice and other species, including humans. The resulting nephrotoxicity and subsequent carcinogenesis in male rats were therefore not considered in deriving LOAEC/LOAEL values. Only a limited number of studies of short-term and subchronic duration were identified for site-restricted LBPNs. The lowest LOAEC identified in these studies, via the inhalation route, is 5475 mg/m3, based on a concentration-related increase in liver weight in both male and female rats following a 13-week exposure to light catalytic cracked naphtha. Shorter exposures of rats to this test substance resulted in nasal irritation at 9041 mg/m3 No systemic toxicity was reported following dermal exposure to light catalytic cracked naphtha, but skin irritation and accompanying histopathological changes were increased, in a dose-dependent manner, at doses as low as 30 mg/kg-bw per day when applied 5 days per week for 90 days in rats No non-cancer chronic toxicity studies (= 1 year) were identified for site-restricted LBPNs and very few non-cancer chronic toxicity studies were identified for other LBPNs. An LOAEC of 200 mg/m3 was noted in a chronic inhalation study that exposed mice and rats to unleaded gasoline (containing 2% benzene). This inhalation LOAEC was based on ocular discharge and ocular irritation in rats. At the higher concentration of 6170 mg/m3, increased kidney weight was observed in male and female rats (increased kidney weight was also observed in males only at 870 mg/m3). Furthermore, decreased body weight in male and female mice was also observed at 6170 mg/m3 A LOAEL of 714 mg/kg-bw was identified for dermal exposure based on local skin effects (inflammatory and degenerative skin changes) in mice following application of naphtha for 105 weeks. No systemic toxicity was reported. **Genotoxicity:** Although few genotoxicity studies were identified for the site-restricted LBPNs, the genotoxicity of several other LBPN substances has been evaluated using a variety of in vivo and in vitro assays. While in vivo genotoxicity assays were negative overall, the in vitro tests exhibited mixed results. For in vivo genotoxicity tests, LBPNs exhibited negative results for chromosomal aberrations and micronuclei induction, but exhibited positive results in one sister chromatid exchange assay although this result was not considered definitive for clastogenic activity as no genetic material was unbalanced or lost. Mixtures that were tested, which included a number of light naphthas, displayed mixed results (i.e., both positive and negative for the same assay) for chromosomal aberrations and negative results for the dominant lethal mutation assay. Unleaded gasoline (containing 2% benzene) was tested for its ability to induce unscheduled deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) synthesis (UDS) and replicative DNA synthesis (RDS) in rodent hepatocytes and kidney cells. UDS and RDS were induced in mouse hepatocytes via oral exposure and RDS was induced in rat kidney cells via oral and inhalation exposure. Unleaded gasoline (benzene content not stated) exhibited negative results for chromosomal aberrations and the dominant lethal mutation assay and mixed results for atypical cell foci in rodent renal and hepatic cells. For in vitro genotoxicity studies, LBPNs were negative for six out of seven Ames tests, and were also negative for UDS and for forward mutations LBPNs exhibited mixed or equivocal results for the mouse lymphoma and sister chromatid exchange assays, as well as for cell transformation and positive results for one bacterial DNA repair assay. Mixtures that were tested, which included a number of light naphthas, displayed negative results for the Ames and mouse lymphoma assays Gasoline exhibited negative results for the Ames test battery, the sister chromatid exchange assay and for one mutagenicity assay . Mixed results were observed for UDS and the mouse lymphoma assay. While the majority of in vivo genotoxicity results for LBPN substances are negative, the potential for genotoxicity of LBPNs as a group cannot be discounted based on the mixed in vitro genotoxicity results. **Carcinogenicity:** Although a number of epidemiological studies have reported increases in the incidence of a variety of cancers, the majority of these studies are considered to contain incomplete or inadequate information. Limited data, however, are available for skin cancer and leukemia incidence, as well as mortality among petroleum refinery workers. It was concluded that there is limited evidence supporting the view that working in petroleum refineries entails a carcinogenic risk (Group 2A carcinogen). IARC (1989a) also classified gasoline as a Group 2B carcinogen; it considered the evidence for carcinogenicity in humans from gasoline to be inadequate and noted that published epidemiological studies had several limitations, including a lack of exposure data and the fact that it was not possible to separate the effects of combustion products from those of gasoline itself. Similar conclusions were drawn from other reviews of epidemiological studies for gasoline (US EPA 1987a, 1987b). Thus, the evidence gathered from these epidemiological studies is considered to be inadequate to conclude on the effect s of human exposure to LBPN substances. No inhalation studies assessing the carcinogenicity of the site-restricted LBPNs were identified. Only unleaded gasoline has been examined

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	for its carcinogenic potential, in several inhalation studies. In one study, rats and mice were exposed to 0, 200, 870 or 6170 mg/m3 of a 2% benzene formulation of the test substance, via inhalation, for approximately 2 years. A statistically significant increase in hepatocellular adenomas and carcinomas, as well as a non-statistical increase in renal tumours, were observed at the highest dose in female mice. A dose-dependent increase in the incidence of primary renal neoplasms was also detected in male rats, but this was not considered to be relevant to humans, as discussed previously.Carcinogenicity was also assessed for unleaded gasoline, via inhalation, as part of initiation/promotion studies. In these studies, unleaded gasoline did not appear to initiate tumour formation, but did show renal cell and hepatic tumour promotion ability, when rats and mice were exposed, via inhalation, for durations ranging from 13 weeks to approximately 1 year using an initiation/promotion protocol However, further examination of data relevant to the composition of unleaded gasoline demonstrated that this is a highly-regulated substance; it is expected to contain a lower percentage of benzene and has a discrete component profile when compared to other substances in the LBPN group. Both the European Commission and the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) have classified LBPN substances as carcinogenic. All of these substances were classified by the European Commission (2008) as Category 2 (R45: may cause cancer) (benzene content = 0.1% by weight). IARC has classified gasoline, an LBPN, as a Group 2B carcinogen (possibly carcinogenic to humans) and "occupational exposures in petroleum refining" as Group 2A carcinogens (probably carcinogenic to humans). Several studies were conducted on experimental animals to investigate the dermal carcinogenicity of LBPNs. The majority of these studies were conducted through exposure of mice to doses ranging from 694-1351 mg/kg-bw, for durations ranging from 1 year to the animals' lifetime or until a tumour persisted for 2 weeks. Given the route of exposure, the studies specifically examined the formation of skin tumours. Results for carcinogenicity via dermal exposure are mixed. Both malignant and benign skin tumours were induced with heavy catalytic cracked naphtha, light catalytic cracked naphtha, light straight-run naphtha and naphtha Significant increases in squamous cell carcinomas were also observed when mice were dermally treated with Stoddard solvent, but the latter was administered as a mixture (90% test substance), and the details of the study were not available. In contrast, insignificant increases in tumour formation or no tumours were observed when light alkylate naphtha, heavy catalytic reformed naphtha, sweetened naphtha, light catalytically cracked naphtha or unleaded gasoline was dermally applied to mice. Negative results for skin tumours were also observed in male mice dermally exposed to sweetened naphtha using an initiation/promotion protocol. Reproductive/ Developmental toxicity: No reproductive or developmental toxicity was observed for the majority of LBPN substances evaluated. Most of these studies were carried out by inhalation exposure in rodents. NOAEC values for reproductive toxicity following inhalation exposure ranged from 1701 mg/m3 (CAS RN 8052-41-3) to 27 687 mg/m3 (CAS RN 64741-63-5) for the LBPNs group evaluated, and from 7690 mg/m3 to 27 059 mg/m3 for the site-restricted light catalytic cracked and full-range catalytic reformed naphthas. However, a decreased number of pups per litter and higher frequency of post-implantation loss were observed following inhalation exposure of female rats to hydrotreated heavy naphtha (CAS RN 64742-48-9) at a concentration of 4679 mg/m3, 6 hours per day, from gestational days 7-20. For dermal exposures, NOAEL values of 714 mg/kg-bw (CAS RN 8030-30-6) and 1000 mg/kg-bw per day (CAS RN 68513-02-0) were noted . For oral exposures, no adverse effects on reproductive parameters were reported when rats were given site-restricted light catalytic cracked naphtha at 2000 mg/kg on gestational day 13 . For most LBPNs, no treatment-related developmental effects were observed by the different routes of exposure However, developmental toxicity was observed for a few naphthas. Decreased foetal body weight and an increased incidence of ossification variations were observed when rat dams were exposed to light aromatized solvent naphtha, by gavage, at 1250 mg/kg-bw per day. In addition, pregnant rats exposed by inhalation to hydrotreated heavy naphtha at 4679 mg/m3 delivered pups with higher birth weights. Cognitive and memory impairments were also observed in the offspring. Low Boiling Point Naphthas [Site-Restricted] Studies indicate that normal, branched and cyclic paraffins are absorbed from the mammalian gastrointestinal tract and that the absorption of n-paraffins is inversely proportional to the carbon chain length,with little absorption above C30. With respect to the carbon chain lengths likely to be present in mineral oil, n-paraffins may be absorbed to a greater extent that iso- or cyclo-paraffins. The major classes of hydrocarbons have been shown to be well absorbed by the gastrointestinal tract in various species. In many cases, the hydrophobic hydrocarbons are ingested in association with dietary lipids. The dependence of hydrocarbon absorption on concomitant triglyceride digestion and absorption,is known as the 'hydrocarbon continuum hypothesis', and asserts that a series of solubilising phases in the intestinal lumen, created by dietary triglycerides and their digestion products, afford hydrocarbons a route to the lipid phase of the intestinal absorptive cell (enterocyte) membrane. While some hydrocarbons may traverse the mucosal epithelium unmetabolised and appear as solutes in lipoprotein particles in intestinal lymph, there is evidence that most hydrocarbons partially separate from nutrient lipids and undergo metabolic transformation in the enterocyte. The enterocyte may play a major role in determining the proportion of an absorbed hydrocarbon that, by escaping initial biotransformation, becomes available for deposition in its unchanged form in peripheral tissues such as adipose tissue, or in the liver. for petroleum: Altered mental state, drowsiness, peripheral motor neuropathy, irreversible brain damage (so-called Petrol Sniffer's Encephalopathy), delirium, seizures, and sudden death have been reported from repeated overexposure to some hydrocarbon solvents, naphthas, and gasoline This product may contain benzene which is known to cause acute myeloid leukaemia and n-hexane which has been shown to metabolize to compounds which are neuropathic. This product contains toluene. There are indications from animal studies that prolonged exposure to high concentrations of toluene may lead to hearing loss. This product contains ethyl benzene and naphthalene from which there is evidence of tumours in rodents **Carcinogenicity:** Inhalation exposure to mice causes liver tumours, which are not considered relevant to humans. Inhalation exposure to rats causes kidney tumours which are not considered relevant to humans. **Mutagenicity:** There is a large database of mutagenicity studies on gasoline and gasoline blending streams, which use a wide variety of endpoints and give predominantly negative results. All in vivo studies in animals and recent studies in exposed humans (e.g. petrol service station attendants) have shown negative results in mutagenicity assays. **Reproductive Toxicity:** Repeated exposure of pregnant rats to high concentrations of toluene (around or exceeding 1000 ppm) can cause developmental effects, such as lower birth weight and developmental neurotoxicity, on the foetus. However, in a two-generation reproductive study in rats exposed to gasoline vapour condensate, no adverse effects on the foetus were observed. **Human Effects:** Prolonged/ repeated contact may cause defatting of the skin which can lead to dermatitis and may make the skin more susceptible to irritation and penetration by other materials. Lifetime exposure of rodents to gasoline produces carcinogenicity although the relevance to humans has been questioned. Gasoline induces kidney cancer in male rats as a consequence of accumulation of the alpha2-microglobulin protein in hyaline droplets in the male (but not female) rat kidney. Such abnormal accumulation represents lysosomal overload and leads to chronic renal tubular cell degeneration, accumulation of cell debris, mineralisation of renal medullary tubules and necrosis. A sustained regenerative proliferation occurs in epithelial cells with subsequent neoplastic transformation with continued exposure. The alpha2-microglobulin is produced under the influence of hormonal controls in male rats but not in females and, more importantly, not in humans.
PROPYLENE GLYCOL MONOMETHYL ETHER ACETATE, ALPHA-ISOMER	A BASF report (in ECETOC) showed that inhalation exposure to 545 ppm PGMEA (beta isomer) was associated with a teratogenic response in rabbits; but exposure to 145 ppm and 36 ppm had no adverse effects. The beta isomer of PGMEA comprises only 10% of the commercial material, the remaining 90% is alpha isomer. Hazard appears low but emphasizes the need for care in handling this chemical. [I.C.I] *Shin-Etsu SDS for propylene glycol ethers (PGEs): Typical propylene glycol ethers include propylene glycol n-butyl ether (PnB); dipropylene glycol n-butyl ether (DPnB); dipropylene glycol methyl ether acetate (DPMA); tripropylene glycol methyl ether (TPM). Testing of a wide variety of propylene glycol ethers Testing of a wide variety of propylene glycol ethers has shown that propylene glycol-based ethers are less toxic than some ethers of the ethylene series. The common toxicities associated with the lower molecular weight homologues of the ethylene series, such as adverse effects on reproductive organs, the developing embryo and fetus, blood (haemolytic effects), or thymus, are not seen with the commercial-grade propylene glycol ethers. In the ethylene series, metabolism of the terminal hydroxyl group

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	produces an alkoxyacetic acid. The reproductive and developmental toxicities of the lower molecular weight homologues in the ethylene series are due specifically to the formation of methoxyacetic and ethoxyacetic acids. Longer chain length homologues in the ethylene series are not associated with the reproductive toxicity but can cause haemolysis in sensitive species, also through formation of an alkoxyacetic acid. The predominant alpha isomer of all the PGEs (thermodynamically favored during manufacture of PGEs) is a secondary alcohol incapable of forming an alkoxypropionic acid. In contrast beta-isomers are able to form the alkoxypropionic acids and these are linked to teratogenic effects (and possibly haemolytic effects). This alpha isomer comprises greater than 95% of the isomeric mixture in the commercial product. Because the alpha isomer cannot form an alkoxypropionic acid, this is the most likely reason for the lack of toxicity shown by the PGEs as distinct from the lower molecular weight ethylene glycol ethers. More importantly, however, very extensive empirical test data show that this class of commercial-grade glycol ether presents a low toxicity hazard. PGEs, whether mono, di- or tripropylene glycol-based (and no matter what the alcohol group), show a very similar pattern of low to non-detectable toxicity of any type at doses or exposure levels greatly exceeding those showing pronounced effects from the ethylene series. One of the primary metabolites of the propylene glycol ethers is propylene glycol, which is of low toxicity and completely metabolised in the body. As a class, the propylene glycol ethers are rapidly absorbed and distributed throughout the body when introduced by inhalation or oral exposure. Dermal absorption is somewhat slower but subsequent distribution is rapid. Most excretion for PGEs is via the urine and expired air. A small portion is excreted in the faeces. As a group PGEs exhibits low acute toxicity by the oral, dermal, and inhalation routes. Rat oral LD50s range from >3,000 mg/kg (PnB) to >5,000 mg/kg (DPMA). Dermal LD50s are all > 2,000 mg/kg (PnB, & DPnB; where no deaths occurred), and ranging up to >15,000 mg/kg (TPM). Inhalation LC50 values were higher than 5,000 mg/m3 for DPMA (4-hour exposure), and TPM (1-hour exposure). For DPnB the 4-hour LC50 is >2,040 mg/m3. For PnB, the 4-hour LC50 was >651 ppm (>3,412 mg/m3), representing the highest practically attainable vapor level. No deaths occurred at these concentrations. PnB and TPM are moderately irritating to eyes while the remaining category members are only slightly irritating to nonirritating. PnB is moderately irritating to skin while the remaining category members are slightly to non-irritating None are skin sensitisers. In repeated dose studies ranging in duration from 2 to 13 weeks, few adverse effects were found even at high exposure levels and effects that did occur were mild in nature. By the oral route of administration, NOAELs of 350 mg/kg-d (PnB – 13 wk) and 450 mg/kg-d (DPnB – 13 wk) were observed for liver and kidney weight increases (without accompanying histopathology). LOAELs for these two chemicals were 1000 mg/kg-d (highest dose tested). Dermal repeated-dose toxicity tests have been performed for many PGEs. For PnB, no effects were seen in a 13-wk study at doses as high as 1,000 mg/kg-d. A dose of 273 mg/kg-d constituted a LOAEL (increased organ weights without histopathology) in a 13-week dermal study for DPnB. For TPM, increased kidney weights (no histopathology) and transiently decreased body weights were found at a dose of 2,895 mg/kg-d in a 90-day study in rabbits. By inhalation, no effects were observed in 2-week studies in rats at the highest tested concentrations of 3244 mg/m3 (600 ppm) for PnB and 2,010 mg/m3 (260 ppm) for DPnB. TPM caused increased liver weights without histopathology by inhalation in a 2-week study at a LOAEL of 360 mg/m3 (43 ppm). In this study, the highest tested TPM concentration, 1010 mg/m3 (120 ppm), also caused increased liver weights without accompanying histopathology. Although no repeated-dose studies are available for the oral route for TPM, or for any route for DPMA, it is anticipated that these chemicals would behave similarly to other category members. One and two-generation reproductive toxicity testing has been conducted in mice, rats, and rabbits via the oral or inhalation routes of exposure on PM and PMA. In an inhalation rat study using PM, the NOAEL for parental toxicity is 300 ppm (1106 mg/m3) with decreases in body and organ weights occurring at the LOAEL of 1000 ppm (3686 mg/m3). For offspring toxicity the NOAEL is 1000 ppm (3686 mg/m3), with decreased body weights occurring at 3000 ppm (11058 mg/m3). For PMA, the NOAEL for parental and offspring toxicity is 1000 mg/kg/d. in a two generation gavage study in rats. No adverse effects were found on reproductive organs, fertility rates, or other indices commonly monitored in such studies. In addition, there is no evidence from histopathological data from repeated-dose studies for the category members that would indicate that these chemicals would pose a reproductive hazard to human health. In developmental toxicity studies many PGEs have been tested by various routes of exposure and in various species at significant exposure levels and show no frank developmental effects. Due to the rapid hydrolysis of DPMA to DPM, DPMA would not be expected to show teratogenic effects. At high doses where maternal toxicity occurs (e.g., significant body weight loss), an increased incidence of some anomalies such as delayed skeletal ossification or increased 13th ribs, have been reported. Commercially available PGEs showed no teratogenicity. The weight of the evidence indicates that propylene glycol ethers are not likely to be genotoxic. *In vitro*, negative results have been seen in a number of assays for PnB, DPnB, DPMA and TPM. Positive results were only seen in 3 out of 5 chromosome aberration assays in mammalian cells with DPnB. However, negative results were seen in a mouse micronucleus assay with DPnB and PM. Thus, there is no evidence to suggest these PGEs would be genotoxic *in vivo*. In a 2-year bioassay on PM, there were no statistically significant increases in tumors in rats and mice. A BASF report (in ECETOC) showed that inhalation exposure to 545 ppm PGMEA (beta isomer) was associated with a teratogenic response in rabbits; but exposure to 145 ppm and 36 ppm had no adverse effects. The beta isomer of PGMEA comprises only 10% of the commercial material, the remaining 90% is alpha isomer. Hazard appears low but emphasizes the need for care in handling this chemical. [I.C.I]
CARBON BLACK	Inhalation (rat) TCLo: 50 mg/m3/6h/90D-I Nil reported
834ATH-B ATH Flame Retardant Epoxy: Encapsulating and Potting Compound (Part B) & TRIETHYLENETETRAMINE	The following information refers to contact allergens as a group and may not be specific to this product. Contact allergies quickly manifest themselves as contact eczema, more rarely as urticaria or Quincke's oedema. The pathogenesis of contact eczema involves a cell-mediated (T lymphocytes) immune reaction of the delayed type. Other allergic skin reactions, e.g. contact urticaria, involve antibody-mediated immune reactions. The significance of the contact allergen is not simply determined by its sensitisation potential: the distribution of the substance and the opportunities for contact with it are equally important. A weakly sensitising substance which is widely distributed can be a more important allergen than one with stronger sensitising potential with which few individuals come into contact. From a clinical point of view, substances are noteworthy if they produce an allergic test reaction in more than 1% of the persons tested.
834ATH-B ATH Flame Retardant Epoxy: Encapsulating and Potting Compound (Part B) & C18 FATTY ACID DIMERS/ TETRAETHYLENEPENTAMINE POLYAMIDES	For Fatty Nitrogen Derived (FND) Amides (including several high molecular weight alkyl amino acid amides) The chemicals in the Fatty Nitrogen Derived (FND) Amides of surfactants are similar to the class in general as to physical/chemical properties, environmental fate and toxicity. Human exposure to these chemicals is substantially documented. The Fatty nitrogen-derived amides (FND amides) comprise four categories: Subcategory I: Substituted Amides Subcategory II: Fatty Acid Reaction Products with Amino Compounds (Note: Subcategory II chemicals, in many cases, contain Subcategory I chemicals as major components) Subcategory III: Imidazole Derivatives Subcategory IV: FND Amphoterics Acute Toxicity: The low acute oral toxicity of the FND Amides is well established across all Subcategories by the available data. The limited acute toxicity of these chemicals is also confirmed by four acute dermal and two acute inhalation studies. Repeated Dose and Reproductive Toxicity: Two subchronic toxicity studies demonstrating low toxicity are available for Subcategory I chemicals. In addition, a 5-day repeated dose study for a third chemical confirmed the minimal toxicity of these chemicals. Since the Subcategory I chemicals are major components of many Subcategory II chemicals, and based on the low repeat-dose toxicity of the amino compounds (e.g. diethanolamine, triethanolamine) used for producing the Subcategory II derivatives, the Subcategory I repeat-dose toxicity studies adequately support Subcategory II. Two subchronic toxicity studies in Subcategory III confirmed the low order of repeat dose toxicity for the FND Amides Imidazole derivatives. For Subcategory IV, two subchronic toxicity studies for one of the chemicals indicated a low order of repeat-dose toxicity for the FND amphoteric salts similar to that seen in the other categories. Genetic Toxicity in vitro: Based on the lack of effect of one or more chemicals in each subcategory, adequate data for mutagenic activity as measured by the Salmonella reverse mutation assay exist for all of the subcategories. Developmental Toxicity: A developmental toxicity study in Subcategory I and in Subcategory IV and a third study for a chemical in

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	Subcategory III are available. The studies indicate these chemicals are not developmental toxicants, as expected based on their structures, molecular weights, physical properties and knowledge of similar chemicals. As above for repeat-dose toxicity, the data for Subcategory I are adequate to support Subcategory II. In evaluating potential toxicity of the FND Amides chemicals, it is also useful to review the available data for the related FND Cationic and FND Amines Category chemicals. Acute oral toxicity studies (approximately 80 studies for 40 chemicals in the three categories) provide LD50 values from approximately 400 to 10,000 mg/kg with no apparent organ specific toxicity. Similarly, repeated dose toxicity studies (approximately 35 studies for 15 chemicals) provide NOAELs between 10 and 100 mg/kg/day for rats and slightly lower for dogs. More than 60 genetic toxicity studies (in vitro bacterial and mammalian cells as well as in vivo studies) indicated no mutagenic activity among more than 30 chemicals tested. For reproductive evaluations, 14 studies evaluated reproductive endpoints and/or reproductive organs for 11 chemicals, and 15 studies evaluated developmental toxicity for 13 chemicals indicating no reproductive or developmental effects for the FND group as a whole. Some typical applications of FND Amides are: masonry cement additive; curing agent for epoxy resins; closed hydrocarbon systems in oil field production, refineries and chemical plants; and slip and antiblocking additives for polymers. The safety of the FND Amides to humans is recognised by the U.S. FDA, which has approved stearamide, oleamide and/or erucamide for adhesives; coatings for articles in food contact; coatings for polyolefin films; defoaming agents for manufacture of paper and paperboard; animal glue (defoamer in food packaging); in EVA copolymers for food packaging; lubricants for manufacture of metallic food packaging; irradiation of prepared foods; release agents in manufacture of food packaging materials, food contact surface of paper and paperboard; cellophane in food packaging; closure sealing gaskets; and release agents in polymeric resins and petroleum wax. The low order of toxicity indicates that the use of FND Amides does not pose a significant hazard to human health. The differences in chain length, degree of saturation of the carbon chains, source of the natural oils, or addition of an amino group in the chain would not be expected to have an impact on the toxicity profile. This conclusion is supported by a number of studies in the FND family of chemicals (amines, cationics, and amides as separate categories) that show no differences in the length or degree of saturation of the alkyl substituents and is also supported by the limited toxicity of these long-chain substituted chemicals.
C18 FATTY ACID DIMERS/ TETRAETHYLENEPENTAMINE POLYAMIDES & DECABROMODIPHENYLETHANE & TRIETHYLENETETRAMINE & ANTIMONY TRIOXIDE	Asthma-like symptoms may continue for months or even years after exposure to the material ceases. This may be due to a non-allergenic condition known as reactive airways dysfunction syndrome (RADS) which can occur following exposure to high levels of highly irritating compound. Key criteria for the diagnosis of RADS include the absence of preceding respiratory disease, in a non-atopic individual, with abrupt onset of persistent asthma-like symptoms within minutes to hours of a documented exposure to the irritant. A reversible airflow pattern, on spirometry, with the presence of moderate to severe bronchial hyperreactivity on methacholine challenge testing and the lack of minimal lymphocytic inflammation, without eosinophilia, have also been included in the criteria for diagnosis of RADS. RADS (or asthma) following an irritating inhalation is an infrequent disorder with rates related to the concentration of and duration of exposure to the irritating substance. Industrial bronchitis, on the other hand, is a disorder that occurs as result of exposure due to high concentrations of irritating substance (often particulate in nature) and is completely reversible after exposure ceases. The disorder is characterised by dyspnea, cough and mucus production.
ALUMINA HYDRATE & ZINC BORATE HYDRATE & CARBON BLACK	No significant acute toxicological data identified in literature search.
DECABROMODIPHENYLETHANE	Specific Target Organ Toxicity
ANTIMONY TRIOXIDE & CARBON BLACK	**WARNING:** This substance has been classified by the IARC as Group 2B: Possibly Carcinogenic to Humans.

Acute Toxicity	✗	**Carcinogenicity**	✓
Skin Irritation/Corrosion	✓	**Reproductivity**	✓
Serious Eye Damage/Irritation	✓	**STOT - Single Exposure**	✗
Respiratory or Skin sensitisation	✓	**STOT - Repeated Exposure**	✗
Mutagenicity	✗	**Aspiration Hazard**	✗

Legend: ✗ *– Data either not available or does not fill the criteria for classification*
✓ *– Data available to make classification*

SECTION 12 ECOLOGICAL INFORMATION

12.1. Toxicity

834ATH-B ATH Flame Retardant Epoxy: Encapsulating and Potting Compound (Part B)

ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available

C18 fatty acid dimers/ tetraethylenepentamine polyamides

ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
LC50	96	Fish	7.07mg/L	2
EC50	48	Crustacea	5.18mg/L	2
EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	4.11mg/L	2
NOEC	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	1.25mg/L	2

alumina hydrate

ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
LC50	96	Fish	0.001-0.134mg/L	2
EC50	48	Crustacea	0.7364mg/L	2
EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.001-0.05mg/L	2
NOEC	168	Crustacea	0.001-mg/L	2

decabromodiphenylethane

ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
EC50	48	Crustacea	0.019mg/L	2

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	EC50	96	Algae or other aquatic plants	110mg/L	2

zinc borate hydrate

ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
LC50	96	Fish	0.001-0.58mg/L	2
EC50	48	Crustacea	0.001-0.014mg/L	2
NOEC	504	Crustacea	0.001-0.75mg/L	2

triethylenetetramine

ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
LC50	96	Fish	180mg/L	1
EC50	48	Crustacea	31.1mg/L	1
EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	2.5mg/L	1
NOEC	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	<2.5mg/L	1

antimony trioxide

ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
LC50	96	Fish	0.93mg/L	2
EC50	48	Crustacea	1mg/L	2
EC50	96	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.61mg/L	2
NOEC	720	Fish	>0.0075mg/L	2

naphtha petroleum, heavy alkylate

ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	=13mg/L	1
NOEC	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	=0.1mg/L	1

propylene glycol monomethyl ether acetate, alpha-isomer

ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
LC50	96	Fish	100mg/L	1
EC50	48	Crustacea	373mg/L	2
EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	>1-mg/L	2
NOEC	96	Algae or other aquatic plants	>=1-mg/L	2

carbon black

ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
LC50	96	Fish	>100mg/L	2
EC50	48	Crustacea	>100mg/L	2
EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	>10-mg/L	2
EC10	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	>10-mg/L	2
NOEC	96	Fish	>=1-mg/L	2

Legend: *Extracted from 1. IUCLID Toxicity Data 2. Europe ECHA Registered Substances - Ecotoxicological Information - Aquatic Toxicity 3. EPIWIN Suite V3.12 (QSAR) - Aquatic Toxicity Data (Estimated) 4. US EPA, Ecotox database - Aquatic Toxicity Data 5. ECETOC Aquatic Hazard Assessment Data 6. NITE (Japan) - Bioconcentration Data 7. METI (Japan) - Bioconcentration Data 8. Vendor Data*

Toxic to aquatic organisms, may cause long-term adverse effects in the aquatic environment.
Do NOT allow product to come in contact with surface waters or to intertidal areas below the mean high water mark. Do not contaminate water when cleaning equipment or disposing of equipment wash-waters.
Wastes resulting from use of the product must be disposed of on site or at approved waste sites.
For boron and borates:
Environmental fate:
Boron is generally found in nature bound to oxygen and is never found as the free element. Atmospheric boron may be in the form of particulate matter or aerosols as borides, boron oxides, borates, boranes, organoboron compounds, trihalide boron compounds, or borazines. Borates are relatively soluble in water, and will probably be removed from the atmosphere by precipitation and dry deposition. The half-life of airborne particles is usually on the order of days, depending on the size of the particle and atmospheric conditions.
Boron readily hydrolyses in water to form the electrically neutral, weak monobasic acid boric acid (H3BO3) and the monovalent ion, B(OH)4-. In concentrated solutions, boron may polymerise, leading to the formation of complex and diverse molecular arrangements. Because most environmentally relevant boron minerals are highly soluble in water, it is unlikely that mineral equilibria will control the fate of boron in water. Boron was found to not be significantly removed during the conventional treatment of waste water. Boron may, however, be co-precipitated with aluminum, silicon, or iron to form hydroxyborate compounds on the surfaces of minerals.
Waterborne boron may be adsorbed by soils and sediments. Adsorption-desorption reactions are expected to be the only significant mechanism that will influence the fate of boron in water. The extent of boron adsorption depends on the pH of the water and the chemical composition of the soil. The greatest adsorption is generally observed at pH 7.5-9.0. the single most important property of soil that will influence the mobility of boron is the abundance of amorphous aluminum oxide. The extent of boron adsorption has also been attributed to the levels of iron oxide, and to a lesser extent, the organic matter present in the soil, although other studies found that the amount of organic matter present was not important. The adsorption of boron may not be reversible in some soils. The lack of reversibility may be the result of solid-phase formation on mineral surfaces and/or the slow release of boron by diffusion from the interior of clay minerals.
It is unlikely that boron is bioconcentrated significantly by organisms from water. A bioconcentration factor (BCF) relates the concentration of a chemical in the tissues of aquatic and terrestrial animals or plants to the concentration of the chemical in water or soil. The BCFs of boron in marine and freshwater plants, fish, and invertebrates were estimated to be <100. Experimentally measured BCFs for fish have ranged from 52 to 198. These BCFs suggest that boron is not significantly bioconcentrated.
As an element, boron itself cannot be degraded in the environment; however, it may undergo various reactions that change the form of boron (e.g., precipitation, polymerization, and acid-base reactions) depending on conditions such as its concentration in water and pH. In nature, boron in generally found in its oxygenated form. In aqueous solution, boron is normally present as boric acid and borate ions, with the dominant form of inorganic boron in natural aqueous systems as undissociated boric acid. Boric acid acts as an electron acceptor in aqueous solution, accepting an hydroxide ion from water to form (B(OH)4)-ion. In dilute solution, the favored form of boron is B(OH)4. In more concentrated solutions (>0.1 M boric acid) and at neutral to alkaline pH (6–11), polymeric species are formed (e.g., B3O3(OH)4-, B5O6(OH)4-, B3O3(OH)52-, and B4O5(OH)42-)
Most boron compounds are transformed to borates in soil due to the presence of moisture. Borates themselves are not further degraded in soil. However, borates can exist in a variety

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of forms in soil. Borates are removed from soils by water leaching and by assimilation by plants.
The most appreciable boron exposure to the general population is likely to be ingestion of food and to a lesser extent in water. As boron is a natural component of the environment, individuals will have some exposure from foods and drinking water
Boron-containing salts (borates) are ubiquitous in the environment. Surface soil, unpolluted waterways and seawater all typically contain significant amounts of boron as borate. Boron is an essential micronutrient for healthy growth of plants, however, it can be harmful to boron sensitive plants in higher quantities. In some areas such as the American Southwest, boron occurs naturally in surface waters in concentrations that have been shown to be toxic to commercially important plants.
Based on the collected information regarding aquatic toxicity, boron is not regarded as dangerous to aquatic organisms. The concentration in treated municipal waste water is a factor 100 lower than the NOEC-value for *Daphnia magna*.
No quality criteria exist for the concentration of boron in soil and compost. Boron is added to farmland when sewage sludge is applied as a soil improving agent, but there is not sufficient data to evaluate its effect on soil organisms. Being an essential micro-nutrient, no adverse effects of boron are expected at low concentrations.
Ecotoxicity:
In aquatic environments low concentrations of borates generally promote the growth of algae, whereas higher concentrations inhibited algal growth. In a growth inhibition test with *Scenedesmus subspicatus,* an EC50 value of 34 mg B/l was determined. Boric acid toxicity in Daphnia 48 h-LC50 (static test) was found to be 95 mg B/l. In a separate study it was concluded that chronic effects of boron to Daphnia may occur at a concentration of > 10 mg/l.
The toxicity of boron in fish is often higher in soft water than in hard water. The acute toxicity of boron towards *Danio rerio* (96 h-LC50) has been determined to 14.2 mg B/l . In a fish early life stage test with rainbow trout NOEC levels of boron have been determined in the range between 0.009 and 0.103 mg B/l, whereas the EC50 ranged from 27 to 100 mg B/l dependent on the water hardness.
Antimony exists in the atmosphere in low concentrations. Urban air contains 0.05 to 0.06 ppm of antimony. There are very low concentrations in water due to minimal solubility. Volatilisation from water is not likely. The soil usually contains 0.1 to 10 mg/kg dry weight. Antimony concentrations in freshwater fish are low, approximately 3 mg/kg wet weight. Little is known of the adsorptive behavior of antimony, its compounds, and ions in soils and sediments. The binding of antimony to soil is determined by the nature of the soil and the form of antimony deposited on the soil. Some forms of antimony may bind to inorganic and organic ligands. On the other hand, a mineral form would be unavailable for binding. Some studies suggest that antimony is fairly mobile under diverse environmental conditions, while others suggest that it is strongly adsorbed to soil.Since antimony has an anionic character (e.g. Sb(OH)i), it is expected to have little affinity for organic carbon. It is not expected that cation exchange, which generally dominates adsorption to clay, would be important for anionic antimony. Antimony is known to form coprecipitates with hydrous iron, manganese, and aluminum oxides in soil and sediment. Antimony adsorbs strongly to colloidal material in soil. The partition coefficient of antimony to 0.05-0.003 um colloids was 1,300. Antimony adsorbed to such material can be transported with the colloids in groundwater.
Leaching experiments performed with river sediment samples from a mining district in Idaho indicated that Sb(V) was the major species released during leaching. The fraction of antimony leached from sediment with deionized water after 10 days was highly correlated with the free iron and manganese oxide content of the sediment. The release of antimony from the sediment increased at low pH and increased sharply at high pH. The form of released antimony was also sensitive to pH. At pH 2.7, the bulk of antimony released was as Sb(II1); at pH 4.3, the concentrations of tri- and pentavalent antimony were comparable; and at pH 6.3 and above, Sb(V) was the predominant species.
Antimony does not appear to bioconcentrate appreciably in fish and aquatic organisms. No detectable bioconcentration occurred during a 28-day test in bluegills (EPA 1980). Only low levels of antimony have been reported in fish and aquatic organisms collected off the coast of Africa, Australia, and the Danube River in Austria. Bioconcentration factors for antimony ranged from 0.15 to 390. A study of the distribution of antimony around a smelter site indicated that antimony occurring in plants results from surface deposition. Uptake from soil is minor and appears to be correlated with the amount of available antimony (that which is soluble or easily exchangeable).Antimony bioconcentration was measured in voles, shrews, rabbits, and invertebrates around a smelter. Analysis of antimony in organs of the small mammals, compared with estimates of their antimony intake from food, showed that, although the amount of antimony in the organs was elevated, it was low compared to the amount ingested. The results suggest that antimony does not biomagnify from lower to higher trophic levels in the food chain.
Thermodynamically, most dissolved antimony in natural waters under aerobic conditions should be present in the +5 oxidation state as antimonate species. At 0.001 M total antimony, the dominant species were Sb(OH)6? and Sb(OH)5 0. A small quantity of polymeric hydroxy species were found, but these will be less significant when the total antimony concentration is low, such as in natural water. While industrial inputs will commonly contain antimony in the +3 oxidation state (e.g., antimony trioxide), it is not known how fast antimonite would oxidize to antimonate under natural conditions. Under reducing conditions, trivalent species such as Sb(OH) 3 0, Sb(OH) 4? , and Sb2S4 4- may be significant.
Antimony compounds may undergo photochemical reactions, but these do not appear to be significant in determining their aquatic fate. Antimony trioxide suspensions strongly absorb ultraviolet radiation below 325 nm and darken. The process is reversible, and when the light is removed, the white color slowly returns. The effect is believed to be due to peroxide radical formation on the crystal surface. Both water and oxygen seem to be necessary for the reoxidation of the reduced antimony.
Antimony can be reduced and methylated by microorganisms in the aquatic environment, similar to arsenic, and become mobilized. This reaction is most likely to occur in reducing environments, such as in bed sediment. In the case of arsenic, this reaction may be mediated by fungi and bacteria, but it is not known whether this is the case with antimony. The resulting trimethylstibine is initially oxidized by atmospheric oxygen to a mixture of trimethylstilbine oxide ((CH3)3SbOH) and trimethylstibinic acid ((CH3)2SbO3H), and then to antimony oxides and insoluble polymers. The rate constant is estimated to be of the order of 0.1 to 0.2 L/molsec. Trimethylstibine has a high vapor pressure, 103 mmHg at 25 deg C, and might volatilize before it is completely oxidized. The oxidation product, (CH3)3SbO, is much more soluble than trimethylstibine; therefore, oxidation will reduce volatilization. Oxidation of trimethylstibine in the gas phase is very rapid; the rate is 0.11/mmHg-sec or 2000 L/mol-sec. Trimethylstibine has been shown to react with alkyl iodides and bromides; this results in the formation of quaternary salts. Should antimony occur in a landfill with alkyl halides, the formation of quaternary salts should greatly enhance antimony's mobility.
There is evidence that phytoplankton can reduce Sb(V) to the Sb(III). Sb(III) decreases to very low levels at the base of the seasonal thermocline and remains low down to the sediment where increasing levels are again observed. Sb(III) only accounts for 44% of the inorganic antimony in the anoxic zone, and speciation in this region is unclear. Thermodynamically, the antimony should be in the trivalent state. Thiocomplexes are thought to account for some of the antimony in this zone. Methylated antimony species existed throughout the water column and made up 10% of total antimony. Monomethyl antimony species were more abundant in surface waters and in the anoxic zone. There was no sharp increase in methyl antimony near the sediment, which would be expected if these species were formed biosynthetically. Since the highest antimony concentration is at the surface, it is unlikely that antimony is taken up by phytoplankton, as is the case with arsenic. A decrease in antimony concentration with depth suggests scavenging by particulate matter and, at lower depths, by iron hydroxyoxides.
For aluminium and its compounds and salts:
Despite its prevalence in the environment, no known form of life uses aluminium salts metabolically. In keeping with its pervasiveness, aluminium is well tolerated by plants and animals.Owing to their prevalence, potential beneficial (or otherwise) biological roles of aluminium compounds are of continuing interest.
Environmental fate:
Aluminium occurs in the environment in the form of silicates, oxides and hydroxides, combined with other elements such as sodium, fluorine and arsenic complexes with organic matter.
Acidification of soils releases aluminium as a transportable solution. Mobilisation of aluminium by acid rain results in aluminium becoming available for plant uptake.
As an element, aluminum cannot be degraded in the environment, but may undergo various precipitation or ligand exchange reactions. Aluminum in compounds has only one oxidation state (+3), and would not undergo oxidation-reduction reactions under environmental conditions. Aluminum can be complexed by various ligands present in the environment (e.g., fulvic and humic acids). The solubility of aluminum in the environment will depend on the ligands present and the pH.
The trivalent aluminum ion is surrounded by six water molecules in solution. The hydrated aluminum ion, [Al(H2O)6]3+, undergoes hydrolysis, in which a stepwise deprotonation of the coordinated water ligands forms bound hydroxide ligands (e.g., [Al(H2O)5(OH)]2+, [Al(H2O)4(OH)2]+). The speciation of aluminum in water is pH dependent. The hydrated trivalent aluminum ion is the predominant form at pH levels below 4. Between pH 5 and 6, the predominant hydrolysis products are Al(OH)2+ and Al(OH)2+, while the solid Al(OH)3 is most prevalent between pH 5.2 and 8.8. The soluble species Al(OH)4- is the predominant species above pH 9, and is the only species present above pH 10. Polymeric aluminum hydroxides appear between pH 4.7 and 10.5, and increase in size until they are transformed into colloidal particles of amorphous Al(OH)3, which crystallise to gibbsite in acid waters. Polymerisation is affected by the presence of dissolved silica; when enough silica is present, aluminum is precipitated as poorly crystallised clay mineral species.
Hydroxyaluminum compounds are considered amphoteric (e.g., they can act as both acids and bases in solution). Because of this property, aluminum hydroxides can act as buffers and resist pH changes within the narrow pH range of 4-5.
Monomeric aluminum compounds, typified by aluminum fluoride, chloride, and sulfate, are considered reactive or labile compounds, whereas polymeric aluminum species react much more slowly in the environment. Aluminum has a stronger attraction for fluoride in an acidic environment compared to other inorganic ligand.
The adsorption of aluminum onto clay surfaces can be a significant factor in controlling aluminum mobility in the environment, and these adsorption reactions, measured in one study at pH 3.0-4.1, have been observed to be very rapid. However, clays may act either as a sink or a source for soluble aluminum depending on the degree of aluminum saturation on the clay surface.
Within the pH range of 5-6, aluminum complexes with phosphate and is removed from solution. Because phosphate is a necessary nutrient in ecological systems, this immobilization of both aluminum and phosphate may result in depleted nutrient states in surface water.
Plant species and cultivars of the same species differ considerably in their ability to take up and translocate aluminum to above-ground parts. Tea leaves may contain very high concentrations of aluminum, >5,000 mg/kg in old leaves. Other plants that may contain high levels of aluminum include Lycopodium (Lycopodiaceae), a few ferns, Symplocos (Symplocaceae), and Orites (Proteaceae). Aluminum is often taken up and concentrated in root tissue. In sub-alpine ecosystems, the large root biomass of the Douglas fir, *Abies amabilis*, takes up aluminum and immobilizes it, preventing large accumulation in above-ground tissue. It is unclear to what extent aluminum is taken up into root food crops and leafy vegetables. An uptake factor (concentration of aluminum in the plant/concentration of aluminum in soil) of 0.004 for leafy vegetables and 0.00065 for fruits and tubers has been reported, but the pH and plant species from which these uptake factors were derived are unclear. Based upon these values, however, it is clear that aluminum is not taken up in plants from soil, but is instead biodiluted.

Continued...

Aluminum concentrations in rainbow trout from an alum-treated lake, an untreated lake, and a hatchery were highest in gill tissue and lowest in muscle. Aluminum residue analyses in brook trout have shown that whole-body aluminum content decreases as the fish advance from larvae to juveniles. These results imply that the aging larvae begin to decrease their rate of aluminum uptake, to eliminate aluminum at a rate that exceeds uptake, or to maintain approximately the same amount of aluminum while the body mass increases. The decline in whole-body aluminum residues in juvenile brook trout may be related to growth and dilution by edible muscle tissue that accumulated less aluminum than did the other tissues.
The greatest fraction of the gill-associated aluminum was not sorbed to the gill tissue, but to the gill mucus. It is thought that mucus appears to retard aluminum transport from solution to the membrane surface, thus delaying the acute biological response of the fish. It has been reported that concentrations of aluminum in whole-body tissue of the Atlantic salmon exposed to high concentrations of aluminum ranging from 3 ug/g (for fish exposed to 33 ug/L) to 96 ug/g (for fish exposed to 264 ug/L) at pH 5.5. After 60 days of exposure, BCFs ranged from 76 to 190 and were directly related to the aluminum exposure concentration. In acidic waters (pH 4.6-5.3) with low concentrations of calcium (0.5-1.5 mg Ca/L), labile aluminum between 25 and 75 ug/L is toxic. Because aluminum is toxic to many aquatic species, it is not bioaccumulated to a significant degree (BCF <300) in most fish and shellfish; therefore, consumption of contaminated fish does not appear to be a significant source of aluminum exposure in humans.
Bioconcentration of aluminum has also been reported for several aquatic invertebrate species. BCF values ranging from 0.13 to 0.5 in the whole-body were reported for the snail.
Bioconcentration of aluminum has also been reported for aquatic insects.
Ecotoxicity:
Freshwater species pH >6.5
Fish: Acute LC50 (48-96 h) 5 spp: 0.6 (*Salmo salar)* - 106 mg/L; Chronic NOEC (8-28 d): 7 spp,NOEC, 0.034-7.1 mg/L. The lowest measured chronic figure was an 8-d LC50 of 0.17 mg/L for *Micropterus* sp.
Amphibian: Acute LC50 (4 d): *Bufo americanus*, 0.86-1.66 mg/L; Chronic LC50 (8-d) 2.28 mg/L
Crustaceans LC50 (48 h): 1 sp 2.3-36 9 mg/L; Chronic NOEC (7-28 d) 3 spp, 0.136-1.72 mg/L
Algae EC50 (96 h): population growth, 0.46-0.57 mg/L; 2 spp, chronic NOEC, 0.8-2.0 mg/L
Freshwater species pH <6.5 (all between pH 4.5 and 6.0)
Fish LC50 (24-96 h): 4 spp, 0.015 (*S. trutta*) - 4.2 mg/L; chronic data on *Salmo trutta*, LC50 (21-42 d) 0.015- 0.105 mg/L
Amphibians LC50 (4-5 d): 2 spp, 0.540-2.670 m/L (absolute range 0.40-5.2 mg/L)
Alga: 1 sp NOEC growth 2.0 mg/L
Among freshwater aquatic plants, single-celled plants are generally the most sensitive to aluminium. Fish are generally more sensitive to aluminium than aquatic invertebrates.
Aluminium is a gill toxicant to fish, causing both ionoregulatory and respiratory effects.
The bioavailability and toxicity of aluminium is generally greatest in acid solutions. Aluminium in acid habitats has been observed to be toxic to fish and phytoplankton. Aluminium is generally more toxic over the pH range 4.4.5.4, with a maximum toxicity occurring around pH 5.0.5.2. The inorganic single unit aluminium species (Al(OH)2 +) is thought to be the most toxic. Under very acid conditions, the toxic effects of the high H+ concentration appear to be more important than the effects of low concentrations of aluminium; at approximately neutral pH values, the toxicity of aluminium is greatly reduced. The solubility of aluminium is also enhanced under alkaline conditions, due to its amphoteric character, and some researchers found that the acute toxicity of aluminium increased from pH 7 to pH 9. However, the opposite relationship was found in other studies. The uptake and toxicity of aluminium in freshwater organisms generally decreases with increasing water hardness under acidic, neutral and alkaline conditions. Complexing agents such as fluoride, citrate and humic substances reduce the availability of aluminium to organisms, resulting in lower toxicity. Silicon can also reduce aluminium toxicity to fish.
Drinking Water Standards:
aluminium: 200 ug/l (UK max.)
200 ug/l (WHO guideline)
chloride: 400 mg/l (UK max.)
250 mg/l (WHO guideline)
fluoride: 1.5 mg/l (UK max.)
1.5 mg/l (WHO guideline)
nitrate: 50 mg/l (UK max.)
50 mg/l (WHO guideline)
sulfate: 250 mg/l (UK max.)
Soil Guideline: none available.
Air Quality Standards: none available.
Environmental fate:
Bromide ion may be introduced to the environment after the dissociation of various salts and complexes or the degradation of organobromide compounds.
Bromides may also affect the growth of micro-organisms and have been used for this purpose in industry.
Bromides in drinking water are occasionally subject to disinfection processes involving ozone of chlorine. Bromide may be oxidised to produce hypobromous acid which in turn may react with natural organic matter to form brominated compounds. The formation of bromoform has been well documented, as has the formation of bromoacetic acids, bromopicrin, cyanogen bromide, and bromoacetone. Bromates may also be formed following ozonation or chlorination if pH is relatively high. Bromates may be animal carcinogens.
Bromine reservoirs, such as HBr and BrONO2, are much more easily broken up by sunlight ; causing bromine to be from 10 to 100 times more effective than chlorine at destroying ozone. From 30-60% of bromocarbons released to the atmosphere are man-made (methyl bromide fumigants and halon fire extinguishers) and both compounds are restricted by international agreement
Ecotoxicity:
Although not a significant toxin in mammalian or avian systems it is highly toxic to rainbow trout and Daphnia magna.
Fish LC50 (96 h): bluegill sunfish: 0.52 mg/L (as Br2); rainbow trout 0.23 mg/L (as Br2); sheepshead minnow 0.19 mg/L (as Br2)
Daphnia magna LC50 (48 h): 0.71 mg/L (as Br2)
Eastern oysters EC50 (96 h): 0.54 mg/L (as Br2)
Mysid Shrimp LC50 (LC50): 0.17 mg/L (as Br2)
[*Nalco]
DO NOT discharge into sewer or waterways.

12.2. Persistence and degradability

Ingredient	Persistence: Water/Soil	Persistence: Air
triethylenetetramine	LOW	LOW
propylene glycol monomethyl ether acetate, alpha-isomer	LOW	LOW

12.3. Bioaccumulative potential

Ingredient	Bioaccumulation
triethylenetetramine	LOW (LogKOW = -2.6464)
propylene glycol monomethyl ether acetate, alpha-isomer	LOW (LogKOW = 0.56)

12.4. Mobility in soil

Ingredient	Mobility
triethylenetetramine	LOW (KOC = 309.9)
propylene glycol monomethyl ether acetate, alpha-isomer	HIGH (KOC = 1.838)

12.5.Results of PBT and vPvB assessment

Continued...

	P	B	T
Relevant available data	Not Applicable	Not Applicable	Not Applicable
PBT Criteria fulfilled?	Not Applicable	Not Applicable	Not Applicable

12.6. Other adverse effects

No data available

SECTION 13 DISPOSAL CONSIDERATIONS

13.1. Waste treatment methods

Product / Packaging disposal	▸ Containers may still present a chemical hazard/ danger when empty. ▸ Return to supplier for reuse/ recycling if possible. Otherwise: ▸ If container can not be cleaned sufficiently well to ensure that residuals do not remain or if the container cannot be used to store the same product, then puncture containers, to prevent re-use, and bury at an authorised landfill. ▸ Where possible retain label warnings and SDS and observe all notices pertaining to the product. Legislation addressing waste disposal requirements may differ by country, state and/ or territory. Each user must refer to laws operating in their area. In some areas, certain wastes must be tracked. A Hierarchy of Controls seems to be common - the user should investigate: ▸ Reduction ▸ Reuse ▸ Recycling ▸ Disposal (if all else fails) This material may be recycled if unused, or if it has not been contaminated so as to make it unsuitable for its intended use. If it has been contaminated, it may be possible to reclaim the product by filtration, distillation or some other means. Shelf life considerations should also be applied in making decisions of this type. Note that properties of a material may change in use, and recycling or reuse may not always be appropriate. ▸ **DO NOT** allow wash water from cleaning or process equipment to enter drains. ▸ It may be necessary to collect all wash water for treatment before disposal. ▸ In all cases disposal to sewer may be subject to local laws and regulations and these should be considered first. ▸ Where in doubt contact the responsible authority. ▸ Recycle wherever possible or consult manufacturer for recycling options. ▸ Consult State Land Waste Authority for disposal. ▸ Bury or incinerate residue at an approved site. ▸ Recycle containers if possible, or dispose of in an authorised landfill.
Waste treatment options	Not Available
Sewage disposal options	Not Available

SECTION 14 TRANSPORT INFORMATION

Labels Required

	NOT REGULATED by Ground ADR Special Provision 375 NOT REGULATED by Air IATA Special Provision A197 NOT REGULATED by Sea IMDG per 2.10.2.7 NOT REGULATED by ADN Special Provision 274 (The provision of 3.1.2.8 apply)

Land transport (ADR)

14.1. **UN number**	3082
14.2. **UN proper shipping name**	ENVIRONMENTALLY HAZARDOUS SUBSTANCE, LIQUID, N.O.S.
14.3. **Transport hazard class(es)**	Class: 9 Subrisk: Not Applicable
14.4. **Packing group**	III
14.5. **Environmental hazard**	Environmentally hazardous
14.6. **Special precautions for user**	Hazard identification (Kemler): 90 Classification code: M6 Hazard Label: 9 Special provisions: 274 335 375 601 Limited quantity: 5 L Tunnel Restriction Code: 3 (-)

Air transport (ICAO-IATA / DGR)

14.1. **UN number**	3082
14.2. **UN proper shipping name**	Environmentally hazardous substance, liquid, n.o.s. *

Continued...

14.3. **Transport hazard class(es)**	ICAO/IATA Class: 9 ICAO / IATA Subrisk: Not Applicable ERG Code: 9L
14.4. **Packing group**	III
14.5. **Environmental hazard**	Environmentally hazardous
14.6. **Special precautions for user**	Special provisions: A97 A158 A197 Cargo Only Packing Instructions: 964 Cargo Only Maximum Qty / Pack: 450 L Passenger and Cargo Packing Instructions: 964 Passenger and Cargo Maximum Qty / Pack: 450 L Passenger and Cargo Limited Quantity Packing Instructions: Y964 Passenger and Cargo Limited Maximum Qty / Pack: 30 kg G

Sea transport (IMDG-Code / GGVSee)

14.1. **UN number**	3082
14.2. **UN proper shipping name**	ENVIRONMENTALLY HAZARDOUS SUBSTANCE, LIQUID, N.O.S.
14.3. **Transport hazard class(es)**	IMDG Class: 9 IMDG Subrisk: Not Applicable
14.4. **Packing group**	III
14.5. **Environmental hazard**	Marine Pollutant
14.6. **Special precautions for user**	EMS Number: F-A , S-F Special provisions: 274 335 969 Limited Quantities: 5 L

Inland waterways transport (ADN)

14.1. **UN number**	3082
14.2. **UN proper shipping name**	ENVIRONMENTALLY HAZARDOUS SUBSTANCE, LIQUID, N.O.S.
14.3. **Transport hazard class(es)**	9 | Not Applicable
14.4. **Packing group**	III
14.5. **Environmental hazard**	Environmentally hazardous
14.6. **Special precautions for user**	Classification code: M6 Special provisions: 274; 335; 375; 601 Limited quantity: 5 L Equipment required: PP Fire cones number: 0

14.7. Transport in bulk according to Annex II of MARPOL and the IBC code

Not Applicable

SECTION 15 REGULATORY INFORMATION

15.1. Safety, health and environmental regulations / legislation specific for the substance or mixture

C18 FATTY ACID DIMERS/ TETRAETHYLENEPENTAMINE POLYAMIDES IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Not Applicable

ALUMINA HYDRATE IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Europe EC Inventory
Europe ECHA Registered Substances - Classification and Labelling - DSD-DPD
Europe European Customs Inventory of Chemical Substances
European Union - European Inventory of Existing Commercial Chemical Substances (EINECS)

DECABROMODIPHENYLETHANE IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Chemical Footprint Project - Chemicals of High Concern List
EU European Chemicals Agency (ECHA) Community Rolling Action Plan (CoRAP) List of Substances
Europe EC Inventory
Europe ECHA Registered Substances - Classification and Labelling - DSD-DPD
Europe European Customs Inventory of Chemical Substances
European Union - European Inventory of Existing Commercial Chemical Substances (EINECS)

ZINC BORATE HYDRATE IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Continued...

Europe EC Inventory

European Union - European Inventory of Existing Commercial Chemical Substances (EINECS)

TRIETHYLENETETRAMINE IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

EU Regulation (EC) No 1223/2009 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 30 November 2009 on cosmetic products - Annex III - List of Substances which cosmetic products must not contain except subject to the restrictions laid down

Europe EC Inventory

Europe European Customs Inventory of Chemical Substances

European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC) Priority List for REACH Authorisation

European Union - European Inventory of Existing Commercial Chemical Substances (EINECS)

European Union (EU) Annex I to Directive 67/548/EEC on Classification and Labelling of Dangerous Substances - updated by ATP: 31

European Union (EU) Regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 on Classification, Labelling and Packaging of Substances and Mixtures - Annex VI

ANTIMONY TRIOXIDE IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Chemical Footprint Project - Chemicals of High Concern List

EU European Chemicals Agency (ECHA) Community Rolling Action Plan (CoRAP) List of Substances

EU REACH Regulation (EC) No 1907/2006 - Annex XVII - Restrictions on the manufacture, placing on the market and use of certain dangerous substances, mixtures and articles

Europe EC Inventory

Europe ECHA Registered Substances - Classification and Labelling - DSD-DPD

Europe European Customs Inventory of Chemical Substances

European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC) Priority List for REACH Authorisation

European Union - European Inventory of Existing Commercial Chemical Substances (EINECS)

European Union (EU) Annex I to Directive 67/548/EEC on Classification and Labelling of Dangerous Substances - updated by ATP: 31

European Union (EU) Regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 on Classification, Labelling and Packaging of Substances and Mixtures - Annex VI

International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) - Agents Classified by the IARC Monographs

International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) - Agents Classified by the IARC Monographs - Group 2B : Possibly carcinogenic to humans

UK Workplace Exposure Limits (WELs)

NAPHTHA PETROLEUM, HEAVY ALKYLATE IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Chemical Footprint Project - Chemicals of High Concern List

EU REACH Regulation (EC) No 1907/2006 - Annex XVII - Restrictions on the manufacture, placing on the market and use of certain dangerous substances, mixtures and articles

EU REACH Regulation (EC) No 1907/2006 - Annex XVII (Appendix 2) Carcinogens: category 1B (Table 3.1)/category 2 (Table 3.2)

EU REACH Regulation (EC) No 1907/2006 - Annex XVII (Appendix 4) Mutagens: category 1B (Table 3.1)/category 2 (Table 3.2)

Europe EC Inventory

Europe European Customs Inventory of Chemical Substances

European Union - European Inventory of Existing Commercial Chemical Substances (EINECS)

European Union (EU) Annex I to Directive 67/548/EEC on Classification and Labelling of Dangerous Substances - updated by ATP: 31

European Union (EU) Regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 on Classification, Labelling and Packaging of Substances and Mixtures - Annex VI

PROPYLENE GLYCOL MONOMETHYL ETHER ACETATE, ALPHA-ISOMER IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

EU Consolidated List of Indicative Occupational Exposure Limit Values (IOELVs)

EU REACH Regulation (EC) No 1907/2006 - Annex XVII - Restrictions on the manufacture, placing on the market and use of certain dangerous substances, mixtures and articles

Europe EC Inventory

Europe ECHA Registered Substances - Classification and Labelling - DSD-DPD

Europe European Customs Inventory of Chemical Substances

European Union - European Inventory of Existing Commercial Chemical Substances (EINECS)

European Union (EU) Annex I to Directive 67/548/EEC on Classification and Labelling of Dangerous Substances - updated by ATP: 31

European Union (EU) Regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 on Classification, Labelling and Packaging of Substances and Mixtures - Annex VI

UK Workplace Exposure Limits (WELs)

CARBON BLACK IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Chemical Footprint Project - Chemicals of High Concern List

EU European Chemicals Agency (ECHA) Community Rolling Action Plan (CoRAP) List of Substances

Europe EC Inventory

Europe ECHA Registered Substances - Classification and Labelling - DSD-DPD

Europe European Customs Inventory of Chemical Substances

European List of Notified Chemical Substances - ELINCS - 6th publication - COM(2003) 642, 29.10.2003

European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC) Priority List for REACH Authorisation

European Union - European Inventory of Existing Commercial Chemical Substances (EINECS)

International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) - Agents Classified by the IARC Monographs

International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) - Agents Classified by the IARC Monographs - Group 2B : Possibly carcinogenic to humans

International WHO List of Proposed Occupational Exposure Limit (OEL) Values for Manufactured Nanomaterials (MNMS)

UK Workplace Exposure Limits (WELs)

This safety data sheet is in compliance with the following EU legislation and its adaptations - as far as applicable - : Directives 98/24/EC, - 92/85/EEC, - 94/33/EC, - 2008/98/EC, - 2010/75/EU; Commission Regulation (EU) 2015/830; Regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 as updated through ATPs.

15.2. Chemical safety assessment

No Chemical Safety Assessment has been carried out for this substance/mixture by the supplier.

National Inventory Status

National Inventory	Status
Australia - AICS	No (decabromodiphenylethane)
Canada - DSL	No (decabromodiphenylethane)
Canada - NDSL	No (propylene glycol monomethyl ether acetate, alpha-isomer; antimony trioxide; zinc borate hydrate; C18 fatty acid dimers/ tetraethylenepentamine polyamides; alumina hydrate; naphtha petroleum, heavy alkylate; carbon black; triethylenetetramine; decabromodiphenylethane)
China - IECSC	Yes
Europe - EINEC / ELINCS / NLP	No (C18 fatty acid dimers/ tetraethylenepentamine polyamides)
Japan - ENCS	No (naphtha petroleum, heavy alkylate)
Korea - KECI	Yes
New Zealand - NZIoC	Yes
Philippines - PICCS	Yes
USA - TSCA	Yes
Taiwan - TCSI	Yes

Continued...

Mexico - INSQ	No (decabromodiphenylethane)
Vietnam - NCI	Yes
Russia - ARIPS	No (C18 fatty acid dimers/ tetraethylenepentamine polyamides; naphtha petroleum, heavy alkylate; decabromodiphenylethane)
Legend:	*Yes = All CAS declared ingredients are on the inventory* *No = One or more of the CAS listed ingredients are not on the inventory and are not exempt from listing(see specific ingredients in brackets)*

SECTION 16 OTHER INFORMATION

Revision Date	25/03/2020
Initial Date	14/02/2020

Full text Risk and Hazard codes

H226	Flammable liquid and vapour.
H304	May be fatal if swallowed and enters airways.
H312	Harmful in contact with skin.
H314	Causes severe skin burns and eye damage.
H335	May cause respiratory irritation.
H336	May cause drowsiness or dizziness.
H360FD	May damage fertility. May damage the unborn child.
H410	Very toxic to aquatic life with long lasting effects.
H412	Harmful to aquatic life with long lasting effects.

Other information

Classification of the preparation and its individual components has drawn on official and authoritative sources as well as independent review by the Chemwatch Classification committee using available literature references.
The SDS is a Hazard Communication tool and should be used to assist in the Risk Assessment. Many factors determine whether the reported Hazards are Risks in the workplace or other settings. Risks may be determined by reference to Exposures Scenarios. Scale of use, frequency of use and current or available engineering controls must be considered.
For detailed advice on Personal Protective Equipment, refer to the following EU CEN Standards:
EN 166 Personal eye-protection
EN 340 Protective clothing
EN 374 Protective gloves against chemicals and micro-organisms
EN 13832 Footwear protecting against chemicals
EN 133 Respiratory protective devices

Definitions and abbreviations

PC—TWA: Permissible Concentration-Time Weighted Average
PC—STEL: Permissible Concentration-Short Term Exposure Limit
IARC: International Agency for Research on Cancer
ACGIH: American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists
STEL: Short Term Exposure Limit
TEEL: Temporary Emergency Exposure Limit。
IDLH: Immediately Dangerous to Life or Health Concentrations
OSF: Odour Safety Factor
NOAEL :No Observed Adverse Effect Level
LOAEL: Lowest Observed Adverse Effect Level
TLV: Threshold Limit Value
LOD: Limit Of Detection
OTV: Odour Threshold Value
BCF: BioConcentration Factors
BEI: Biological Exposure Index

Reason for Change

A-1.00 - Update to the emergency phone number information.