

Folk Art Glow in the Dark

Jasco Pty Limited

Chemwatch Hazard Alert Code: 2

Chemwatch: 7912-79

Version No: 2.1

Safety Data Sheet according to Work Health and Safety Regulations (Hazardous Chemicals) 2023 and ADG requirements

Issue Date: 04/10/2024

Print Date: 04/10/2024

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SECTION 1 Identification of the substance / mixture and of the company / undertaking

Product Identifier

Product name	Folk Art Glow in the Dark
Chemical Name	Not Applicable
Synonyms	Not Available
Chemical formula	Not Applicable
Other means of identification	Not Available

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

Relevant identified uses	Paint. Use according to manufacturer's directions.
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Details of the manufacturer or supplier of the safety data sheet

Registered company name	Jasco Pty Limited
Address	1-5 Commercial Road Kingsgrove NSW 2208 Australia
Telephone	+61 2 9807 1555
Fax	Not Available
Website	www.jasco.com.au
Email	quickinfo@jasco.com.au

Emergency telephone number


Association / Organisation	Australian Poisons Centre
Emergency telephone numbers	13 11 26 (24/7)
Other emergency telephone numbers	Not Available

SECTION 2 Hazards identification

Classification of the substance or mixture

Poisons Schedule	Not Applicable
Classification [1]	Skin Corrosion/Irritation Category 2, Serious Eye Damage/Eye Irritation Category 2A, Hazardous to the Aquatic Environment Acute Hazard Category 3
Legend:	1. Classified by Chemwatch; 2. Classification drawn from HCIS; 3. Classification drawn from Regulation (EU) No 1272/2008 - Annex VI

Label elements

Hazard pictogram(s)	
Signal word	Warning

Hazard statement(s)

H315	Causes skin irritation.
H319	Causes serious eye irritation.
H402	Harmful to aquatic life.

Precautionary statement(s) Prevention

P273	Avoid release to the environment.
P280	Wear protective gloves, protective clothing, eye protection and face protection.
P264	Wash all exposed external body areas thoroughly after handling.

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.
P337+P313	If eye irritation persists: Get medical advice/attention.
P302+P352	IF ON SKIN: Wash with plenty of water.
P332+P313	If skin irritation occurs: Get medical advice/attention.
P362+P364	Take off contaminated clothing and wash it before reuse.

Precautionary statement(s) Storage

Not Applicable

Precautionary statement(s) Disposal

P501	Dispose of contents/container to authorised hazardous or special waste collection point in accordance with any local regulation.
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SECTION 3 Composition / information on ingredients**Substances**

See section below for composition of Mixtures

Mixtures

CAS No	%[weight]	Name
12004-37-4	1-10	<u>strontium aluminate</u>
78330-21-9	1-5	<u>alcohols C11-14-iso-, C13-rich, ethoxylated</u>
1336-21-6	<1	<u>ammonium hydroxide</u>
Not Available	balance	Ingredients determined not to be hazardous
Legend:	1. Classified by Chemwatch; 2. Classification drawn from HCIS; 3. Classification drawn from Regulation (EU) No 1272/2008 - Annex VI; 4. Classification drawn from C&L; * EU IOELVs available	

SECTION 4 First aid measures**Description of first aid measures**

Eye Contact	<p>If this product comes in contact with the eyes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ 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	<p>If skin contact occurs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ 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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ If fumes, aerosols or combustion products are inhaled remove from contaminated area. ▶ Other measures are usually unnecessary.
Ingestion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ 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.

Indication of any immediate medical attention and special treatment needed

for irritant gas exposures:

- ▶ the presence of the agent when it is inhaled is evanescent (of short duration) and therefore, cannot be washed away or otherwise removed
- ▶ arterial blood gases are of primary importance to aid in determination of the extent of damage. Never discharge a patient significantly exposed to an irritant gas without obtaining an arterial blood sample.
- ▶ supportive measures include suctioning (intubation may be required), volume cycle ventilator support (positive and expiratory pressure (PEEP), steroids and antibiotics, after a culture is taken
- ▶ If the eyes are involved, an ophthalmologic consultation is recommended

Occupational Medicine: Third Edition; Zenz, Dickerson, Horvath 1994 Pub: Mosby

For acute or short term repeated exposures to ammonia and its solutions:

- ▶ Mild to moderate inhalation exposures produce headache, cough, bronchospasm, nausea, vomiting, pharyngeal and retrosternal pain and conjunctivitis. Severe inhalation produces laryngospasm, signs of upper airway obstruction (stridor, hoarseness, difficulty in speaking) and, in excessively, high doses, pulmonary oedema.
- ▶ Warm humidified air may soothe bronchial irritation.
- ▶ Test all patients with conjunctival irritation for corneal abrasion (fluorescein stain, slit lamp exam)
- ▶ Dyspneic patients should receive a chest X-ray and arterial blood gases to detect pulmonary oedema.

SECTION 5 Firefighting measures**Extinguishing media**

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

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
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Advice for firefighters

Fire Fighting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ 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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ 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. <p>Combustion products include: carbon dioxide (CO₂) metal oxides other pyrolysis products typical of burning organic material. May emit poisonous fumes. May emit corrosive fumes.</p>
HAZCHEM	Not Applicable

SECTION 6 Accidental release measures**Personal precautions, protective equipment and emergency procedures**

See section 8

Environmental precautions

See section 12

Methods and material for containment and cleaning up

Minor Spills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Remove all ignition sources. ▶ 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	<p>Moderate hazard.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ 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.

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

SECTION 7 Handling and storage**Precautions for safe handling**

Safe handling	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ DO NOT allow clothing wet with material to stay in contact with skin ▶ 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.
Other information	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Store in original containers. ▶ Keep containers securely sealed. ▶ No smoking, naked lights or ignition sources. ▶ 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.

Conditions for safe storage, including any incompatibilities

Suitable container	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Metal can or drum ▶ Packaging as recommended by manufacturer. ▶ Check all containers are clearly labelled and free from leaks.
Storage incompatibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Avoid reaction with oxidising agents

SECTION 8 Exposure controls / personal protection

Control parameters

Occupational Exposure Limits (OEL)

INGREDIENT DATA

Not Available

Ingredient	Original IDLH	Revised IDLH
strontium aluminate	Not Available	Not Available
alcohols C11-14-iso-, C13-rich, ethoxylated	Not Available	Not Available
ammonium hydroxide	Not Available	Not Available


Occupational Exposure Banding

Ingredient	Occupational Exposure Band Rating	Occupational Exposure Band Limit
strontium aluminate	E	≤ 0.01 mg/m ³
alcohols C11-14-iso-, C13-rich, ethoxylated	E	≤ 0.1 ppm
ammonium hydroxide	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

Exposure controls

Appropriate engineering controls	<p>CARE: Explosive vapour air mixtures may be present on opening vessels which have contained liquid ammonia. Fatalities have occurred 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:</p> <p>Process controls which involve changing the way a job activity or process is done to reduce the risk.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>Employers may need to use multiple types of controls to prevent employee overexposure.</p> <p>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.</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Type of Contaminant:</th> <th>Air Speed:</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>solvent, vapours, degreasing etc., evaporating from tank (in still air).</td> <td>0.25-0.5 m/s (50-100 f/min)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>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)</td> <td>0.5-1 m/s (100-200 f/min.)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>direct spray, spray painting in shallow booths, drum filling, conveyer loading, crusher dusts, gas discharge (active generation into zone of rapid air motion)</td> <td>1-2.5 m/s (200-500 f/min.)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>grinding, abrasive blasting, tumbling, high speed wheel generated dusts (released at high initial velocity into zone of very high rapid air motion).</td> <td>2.5-10 m/s (500-2000 f/min.)</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p>Within each range the appropriate value depends on:</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Lower end of the range</th> <th>Upper end of the range</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>1: Room air currents minimal or favourable to capture</td> <td>1: Disturbing room air currents</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2: Contaminants of low toxicity or of nuisance value only.</td> <td>2: Contaminants of high toxicity</td> </tr> <tr> <td>3: Intermittent, low production.</td> <td>3: High production, heavy use</td> </tr> <tr> <td>4: Large hood or large air mass in motion</td> <td>4: Small hood-local control only</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p>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.</p>	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.)	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Individual protection measures, such as personal protective equipment																					
Eye and face protection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Safety glasses with side shields. ▶ Chemical goggles. [AS/NZS 1337.1, EN166 or national equivalent] ▶ 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].
Skin protection	See Hand protection below
Hands/feet protection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Wear chemical protective gloves, e.g. PVC. ▶ Wear safety footwear or safety gumboots, e.g. Rubber <p>NOTE:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ 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. <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>Suitability and durability of glove type is dependent on usage. Important factors in the selection of gloves include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · frequency and duration of contact, · chemical resistance of glove material, · glove thickness and · dexterity <p>Select gloves tested to a relevant standard (e.g. Europe EN 374, US F739, AS/NZS 2161.1 or national equivalent).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · 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. <p>As defined in ASTM F-739-96 in any application, gloves are rated as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Excellent when breakthrough time > 480 min · Good when breakthrough time > 20 min · Fair when breakthrough time < 20 min · Poor when glove material degrades <p>For general applications, gloves with a thickness typically greater than 0.35 mm, are recommended.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>Note: Depending on the activity being conducted, gloves of varying thickness may be required for specific tasks. For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · 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 <p>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.</p>
Body protection	See Other protection below
Other protection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ 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:

Folk Art Glow in the Dark

Material	CPI
BUTYL	A
HYPALON	A
NEOPRENE	A
NEOPRENE/NATURAL	A
NATURAL+NEOPRENE	B
NITRILE	B
NATURAL RUBBER	C
NITRILE+PVC	C
PVC	C

* 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.

Respiratory protection

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

Selection of the Class and Type of respirator will depend upon the level of breathing zone contaminant and the chemical nature of the contaminant. Protection Factors (defined as the ratio of contaminant outside and inside the mask) may also be important.

Required minimum protection factor	Maximum gas/vapour concentration present in air p.p.m. (by volume)	Half-face Respirator	Full-Face Respirator
up to 10	1000	AK-AUS / Class1 P2	-
up to 50	1000	-	AK-AUS / Class 1 P2
up to 50	5000	Airline *	-
up to 100	5000	-	AK-2 P2
up to 100	10000	-	AK-3 P2
100+			Airline**

* - Continuous Flow ** - Continuous-flow or positive pressure demand

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

SECTION 9 Physical and chemical properties

Information on basic physical and chemical properties

Appearance	Liquid.		
Physical state	Liquid	Relative density (Water = 1)	Not Available
Odour	Not Available	Partition coefficient n-octanol / water	Not Available
Odour threshold	Not Available	Auto-ignition temperature (°C)	Not Available
pH (as supplied)	Not Available	Decomposition temperature (°C)	Not Available
Melting point / freezing point (°C)	Not Available	Viscosity (cSt)	Not Available
Initial boiling point and boiling range (°C)	Not Available	Molecular weight (g/mol)	Not Applicable
Flash point (°C)	Not Available	Taste	Not Available
Evaporation rate	Not Available	Explosive properties	Not Available
Flammability	Not Available	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	Not Available	pH as a solution (1%)	Not Available
Vapour density (Air = 1)	Not Available	VOC g/L	Not Available
Heat of Combustion (kJ/g)	Not Available	Ignition Distance (cm)	Not Available
Flame Height (cm)	Not Available	Flame Duration (s)	Not Available
Enclosed Space Ignition Time Equivalent (s/m3)	Not Available	Enclosed Space Ignition Deflagration Density (g/m3)	Not Available

SECTION 10 Stability and reactivity

Reactivity	See section 7
Chemical stability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Unstable in the presence of incompatible materials. ▶ Product is considered stable. ▶ Hazardous polymerisation will not occur.
Possibility of hazardous reactions	See section 7
Conditions to avoid	See section 7
Incompatible materials	See section 7
Hazardous decomposition products	See section 5

SECTION 11 Toxicological information

Information on toxicological effects

Inhaled	<p>The material is not thought to produce either adverse health effects or irritation of the respiratory tract following inhalation (as classified by EC 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.</p> <p>The highly irritant properties of ammonia vapour result as the gas dissolves in mucous fluids and forms irritant, even corrosive solutions. Inhalation of the ammonia fumes causes coughing, vomiting, reddening of lips, mouth, nose, throat and conjunctiva while higher concentrations can cause temporary blindness, restlessness, tightness in the chest, pulmonary oedema (lung damage), weak pulse and cyanosis.</p> <p>Inhalation of high concentrations of vapour may cause breathing difficulty, tightness in chest, pulmonary oedema and lung damage. Brief exposure to high concentrations > 5000 ppm may cause death due to asphyxiation (suffocation) or fluid in the lungs.</p> <p>Prolonged or regular minor exposure to the vapour may cause persistent irritation of the eyes, nose and upper respiratory tract. Massive ammonia exposures may produce chronic airway hyperactivity and asthma with associated pulmonary function changes. The average nasal retention of ammonia by human subjects was found to be 83%.</p>
Ingestion	Accidental ingestion of the material may be damaging to the health of the individual.
Skin Contact	<p>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.</p> <p>The material may accentuate any pre-existing dermatitis condition</p> <p>Open cuts, abraded or irritated skin should not be exposed to this material</p>

Continued...

	<p>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.</p>
<p>Eye</p>	<p>Evidence exists, or practical experience predicts, that the material may cause 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. Repeated or prolonged eye contact may cause inflammation characterised by temporary redness (similar to windburn) of the conjunctiva (conjunctivitis); temporary impairment of vision and/or other transient eye damage/ulceration may occur.</p>
<p>Chronic</p>	<p>Limited evidence suggests that repeated or long-term occupational exposure may produce cumulative health effects involving organs or biochemical systems.</p> <p>There exists limited evidence that shows that skin contact with the material is capable either of inducing a sensitisation reaction in a significant number of individuals, and/or of producing positive response in experimental animals.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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 osseous 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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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).</p> <p>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]</p> <p>the main target organs of aluminum are the central nervous system and bone. Aluminum binds with dietary phosphorus and impairs gastrointestinal absorption of phosphorus. The decreased phosphate body burden results in osteomalacia (softening of the bones due to defective bone mineralization) and rickets. Aluminum's neurotoxicity is believed to involve several mechanisms. Changes in cytoskeletal protein functions as a results of altered phosphorylation, proteolysis, transport, and synthesis are believed to be one cause. Aluminum may induce neurobehavioral effects by affecting permeability of the blood-brain barrier, cholinergic activity, signal transduction pathways, lipid peroxidation, and impair neuronal glutamate nitric oxide-cyclic GMP pathway, as well as interfere with metabolism of essential trace elements because of similar coordination chemistries and consequent competitive interactions. It has been suggested that aluminum's interaction with estrogen receptors, but studies have not been able to establish a clear link between aluminum and increased risk of breast cancer). Certain aluminum salts induce immune responses by activating inflammasomes.</p> <p>Strontium accumulates in teeth and bone, especially in the epiphyseal region of rapidly growing bone. A chronic diet high in strontium and low in calcium produced severe bone deformities, incoordination, weakness and hind-leg with calcium absorption and has induced neurologic disorders in pigs. Public health concerns, related to strontium, arise from radioactive isotopes of strontium which occur in "fall-out" following nuclear weapons testing.</p> <p>There is no direct evidence that strontium is toxic to humans, but there is suggestive epidemiological evidence that the oral toxicity observed at high doses in juvenile laboratory animals may pertain to humans under special circumstances. Stable strontium is of relatively low toxicity. It comprises about 4.6 ppm by weight of the human body, but does not have any recognised essential biological role.</p> <p>Human exposure to strontium is primarily by the oral route (via fruits, vegetables, and drinking water), although inhalation exposures are also possible. No toxic effects of stable strontium have been reported for the exposure levels normally encountered in the environment. Strontium is not readily absorbed through intact skin, but is absorbed through abraded skin and through puncture wounds. The biological effects of strontium are related to its chemical similarity to calcium, with both elements being found in Group 2 of the periodic table and forming divalent cations. However, since strontium is not the same size as calcium, it does not substitute precisely for calcium in biological processes. At different stages of the life cycle, organisms vary in their ability to discriminate between strontium and calcium, which may cause age-related differences in gastrointestinal absorption, and therefore in health effects. Because of its similarity to calcium, strontium accumulates to a high degree in bone, and, in high concentrations, may seriously interfere with the normal process of bone development. The young are particularly vulnerable because a lack of discrimination between calcium and strontium occurs during a dynamic period of bone formation and growth. For this reason, body burdens of strontium will be higher in children than in adults, and the health effects associated with high exposure levels would be more severe. As suggested in one human study and demonstrated in several animal studies, strontium 'rickets is one potential consequence of childhood exposure to excess stable strontium.</p> <p>The fact that strontium is chemically similar to calcium allows it to exchange for calcium in bone and other cellular compartments that are enriched in calcium. Many enzymes that are calcium-dependent will function when strontium is substituted, but changes in kinetic</p>

parameters may occur. Strontium can interact with secondary cell messenger systems and transporter systems that normally use calcium. Furthermore, synaptic transmission may be variably affected by strontium. Consequently, at high concentrations, differences in the chemical characteristics between strontium and calcium may be the basis for neurotoxic and neuromuscular perturbations associated with strontium intoxication. The only evidence for neurotoxicity of stable strontium is a report of hindlimb paralysis following intermediate-duration ingestion of excess strontium. Given the absence of any other evidence for neurotoxicity, it is possible that, in this case, the paralysis may have resulted from compression of the hypertrophic epiphyseal cartilage, which was insufficiently mineralized to support the weight of the body. Beta emissions from radioactive ^{90}Sr have a limited ability to penetrate through tissue. For that reason, radiostrontium must be internalized or placed in close contact with skin before adverse health effects will occur. The 'bone-seeking behavior of strontium is the basis for concern regarding oral or inhalation exposures to the radioactive isotopes, particularly ^{90}Sr , with its long half-life of 29 years and highly energetic 0.546 MeV beta particles, plus the 2.2 MeV beta particles of its short-lived ^{90}Y decay product isotope. Radioactive strontium isotopes incorporate into bone and irradiate the bone cells, the hemopoietic bone marrow, and potentially, the soft tissues surrounding bone, especially in the skull. Human populations accidentally exposed to high levels of radiation from radiostrontium (and other radionuclides and external radiation) experienced chronic radiation sickness (postirradiation changes in hematological parameters) and increased leukemia and cancer mortality in the decades following exposure. In animal studies, high-level exposures to ^{90}Sr led to death within weeks because of radiation damage to hemopoietic tissues. Longer-term lower level exposures that overcome genetic repair mechanisms may lead to myeloid leukemia, osteosarcoma, and lymphoma (only observed in some rodent studies). Because strontium is retained for a long time in the skeleton, acute- or intermediate-duration uptakes (i.e., absorption events occurring within a period of <2 weeks or <1 year, respectively) can result in decade-long (i.e., chronic) effects from internal exposure to the radiation emitted from the retained isotopes. Children would appear to have a higher lifetime risk for cancer effects per unit uptake, because of their relatively higher rate of skeletal incorporation of strontium and potentially longer radiation exposure period. Immediately nonlethal exposures to high levels of radioactive strontium may contribute to suppression of the immune system.

There have been no reports regarding cancer in humans or animals resulting from inhalation exposure to stable strontium compounds except for strontium chromate. In an epidemiological study, no excess risk for lung cancer was found among workers in two Japanese factories who were involved in the production of strontium chromate pigment. However, exposures to strontium chromate in the factories may have been low because of suitable industrial hygiene procedures.

Prolonged or repeated minor exposure to ammonia gas/vapour may cause long-term irritation to the eyes, nose and upper respiratory tract. Repeated exposure or prolonged contact may produce dermatitis, and conjunctivitis.

Other effects may include ulcerative changes to the mouth and bronchial and gastrointestinal disturbances. Adaptation to usually irritating concentrations may result in tolerance. In animals, repeated exposures to sub-lethal levels produces adverse effects on the respiratory tract, liver, kidneys and spleen. Exposure at 675 ppm for several weeks produced eye irritation in dogs and rabbits; corneal opacity, covering between a quarter to one half of the total surface area, was evident in rabbits.

Folk Art Glow in the Dark	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	Not Available	Not Available
strontium aluminate	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	Not Available	Not Available
alcohols C11-14-iso-, C13-rich, ethoxylated	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	Oral (Rat) LD50: 500 mg/kg ^[2]	Not Available
ammonium hydroxide	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	Inhalation (Rat) LC50: 2000 ppm ^{4h} ^[2] Oral (Rat) LD50: 350 mg/kg ^[2]	Eye (rabbit): 0.25 mg SEVERE Eye (rabbit): 1 mg/30s SEVERE

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

STRONTIUM ALUMINATE	<p>No significant acute toxicological data identified in literature search.</p> <p>For aluminium compounds:</p> <p>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).</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>Systemic toxicity after repeated exposure</p> <p>No studies were located regarding dermal effects in animals following intermediate or chronic-duration dermal exposure to various forms of aluminium.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>Reproductive and developmental toxicity:</p>
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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 diseases. 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 sensitiser 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.

ALCOHOLS C11-14-ISO-, C13-RICH, ETHOXYLATED

* Ashland SDS

Polyethers, for example, ethoxylated surfactants and polyethylene glycols, are highly susceptible towards air oxidation as the ether oxygens will stabilize intermediary radicals involved. Investigations of a chemically well-defined alcohol (pentaethylene glycol mono-n-dodecyl ether) ethoxylate, showed that polyethers form complex mixtures of oxidation products when exposed to air.

Sensitization studies in guinea pigs revealed that the pure nonoxidized surfactant itself is nonsensitizing but that many of the investigated oxidation products are sensitizers. Two hydroperoxides were identified in the oxidation mixture, but only one (16-hydroperoxy-3,6,9,12,15-pentaheptacosan-1-ol) was stable enough to be isolated. It was found to be a strong sensitizer in LLNA (local lymph node assay for detection of sensitization capacity). The formation of other hydroperoxides was indicated by the detection of their corresponding aldehydes in the oxidation mixture.

On the basis of the lower irritancy, nonionic surfactants are often preferred to ionic surfactants in topical products. However, their susceptibility towards autoxidation also increases the irritation. Because of their irritating effect, it is difficult to diagnose ACD to these compounds by patch testing.

Allergic Contact Dermatitis—Formation, Structural Requirements, and Reactivity of Skin Sensitizers.

Ann-Therese Karlberg et al; Chem. Res. Toxicol. 2008, 21, 53-69

Polyethylene glycols (PEGs) have a wide variety of PEG-derived mixtures due to their readily linkable terminal primary hydroxyl groups in combination with many possible compounds and complexes such as ethers, fatty acids, castor oils, amines, propylene glycols, among other derivatives. PEGs and their derivatives are broadly utilized in cosmetic products as surfactants, emulsifiers, cleansing agents, humectants, and skin conditioners.

PEGs and PEG derivatives were generally regulated as safe for use in cosmetics, with the conditions that impurities and by-products, such as ethylene oxides and 1,4-dioxane, which are known carcinogenic materials, should be removed before they are mixed in cosmetic formulations.

Most PEGs are commonly available commercially as mixtures of different oligomer sizes in broadly- or narrowly-defined molecular weight (MW) ranges. For instance, PEG-10,000 typically designates a mixture of PEG molecules (n = 195 to 265) having an average MW of 10,000. PEG is also known as polyethylene oxide (PEO) or polyoxyethylene (POE), with the three names being chemical synonyms. However, PEGs mainly refer to oligomers and polymers with molecular masses below 20,000 g/mol, while PEOs are polymers with molecular masses above 20,000 g/mol, and POEs are polymers of any molecular mass. Relatively small molecular weight PEGs are produced by the chemical reaction between ethylene oxide and water or ethylene glycol (or other ethylene glycol oligomers), as catalyzed by acidic or basic catalysts.

To produce PEO or high-molecular weight PEGs, synthesis is performed by suspension polymerization. It is necessary to hold the growing polymer chain in solution during the course of the poly-condensation process. The reaction is catalyzed by magnesium-, aluminum-, or calcium-organoelement compounds. To prevent coagulation of polymer chains in the solution, chelating additives such as dimethylglyoxime are used

Safety Evaluation of Polyethylene Glycol (PEG) Compounds for Cosmetic Use: Toxicol Res 2015; 31:105-136 The Korean Society of Toxicology

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Human beings have regular contact with alcohol ethoxylates through a variety of industrial and consumer products such as soaps, detergents, and other cleaning products. Exposure to these chemicals can occur through ingestion, inhalation, or contact with the skin or eyes. Studies of acute toxicity show that volumes well above a reasonable intake level would have to occur to produce any toxic response. Moreover, no fatal case of poisoning with alcohol ethoxylates has ever been reported. Multiple studies investigating the acute toxicity of alcohol ethoxylates have shown that the use of these compounds is of low concern in terms of oral and dermal toxicity.

Clinical animal studies indicate these chemicals may produce gastrointestinal irritation such as ulcerations of the stomach, pilo-erection, diarrhea, and lethargy. Similarly, slight to severe irritation of the skin or eye was generated when undiluted alcohol ethoxylates were applied to the skin and eyes of rabbits and rats. The chemical shows no indication of being a genotoxin, carcinogen, or mutagen (HERA 2007). No information was available on levels at which these effects might occur, though toxicity is thought to be substantially lower than that of nonylphenol ethoxylates.

Polyethers, for example, ethoxylated surfactants and polyethylene glycols, are highly susceptible towards air oxidation as the ether oxygens will stabilize intermediary radicals involved. Investigations of a chemically well-defined alcohol (pentaethylene glycol mono-n-dodecyl ether) ethoxylate, showed that polyethers form complex mixtures of oxidation products when exposed to air.

Sensitization studies in guinea pigs revealed that the pure nonoxidized surfactant itself is nonsensitizing but that many of the investigated oxidation products are sensitizers. Two hydroperoxides were identified in the oxidation mixture, but only one (16-hydroperoxy-3,6,9,12,15-pentaoxaheptacosan-1-ol) was stable enough to be isolated. It was found to be a strong sensitizer in LLNA (local lymph node assay for detection of sensitization capacity). The formation of other hydroperoxides was indicated by the detection of their corresponding aldehydes in the oxidation mixture.

On the basis of the lower irritancy, nonionic surfactants are often preferred to ionic surfactants in topical products. However, their susceptibility towards autooxidation also increases the irritation. Because of their irritating effect, it is difficult to diagnose allergic contact dermatitis (ACD) to these compounds by patch testing

Overall, alcohol alkoxylates (AAs) are not expected to be systemically toxic, although some short chain ethylene glycol ethers, e.g. methyl and ethyl homologues are of concern for a range of adverse health effects. They include skin and eye irritation, liver and kidney damage, bone marrow and central nervous system (CNS) depression, testicular atrophy, developmental toxicity, and immunotoxicity. For higher propyl and butyl homologues, the toxicity involves haemolysis (anaemia) with secondary effects relating to haemosiderin accumulation in the spleen, liver and kidney, and compensatory haematopoiesis in the bone marrow. Systemic toxicity was shown to decrease with increasing alkyl chain lengths and/or alkoxylation degrees (ECETOC, 2005; US EPA, 2010). The chemicals ethylene glycol hexyl ether (with a longer alkyl chain length, CAS No. 112-25-4) and diethylene glycol butyl ether (with a higher ethoxylation degree, CAS No. 112-34-5) have no evidence of systemic effects including haemolysis.

Commercially available AAs are mixtures of homologues of varying carbon chain lengths and it is possible that some of the chemicals with an average alkyl chain length $C \geq 6$ may also contain shorter alkyl chains $C < 6$. It is not practical to quantify the proportion of shorter $C < 6$ chain lengths present in such chemicals, or these shorter chain lengths may not be present at all. The available data suggest a lack of systemic toxicity for the AE chemicals with potential short alkyl chain presence (NICNASa); therefore, the toxicity of the chemicals in this assessment is unlikely to be significantly affected by the presence of shorter chain alkyl groups.

Alcohol ethoxylates are according to CESIO (2000) classified as Irritant or Harmful depending on the number of EO-units:

EO < 5 gives Irritant (Xi) with R38 (Irritating to skin) and R41 (Risk of serious damage to eyes)

EO > 5-15 gives Harmful (Xn) with R22 (Harmful if swallowed) - R38/41

EO > 15-20 gives Harmful (Xn) with R22-41

>20 EO is not classified (CESIO 2000)

Oxo-AE, C13 EO10 and C13 EO15, are Irritating (Xi) with R36/38 (Irritating to eyes and skin).

AE are not included in Annex 1 of the list of dangerous substances of the Council Directive 67/548/EEC

In general, alcohol ethoxylates (AE) are readily absorbed through the skin of guinea pigs and rats and through the gastrointestinal mucosa of rats. AE are quickly eliminated from the body through the urine, faeces, and expired air (CO₂). Orally dosed AE was absorbed rapidly and extensively in rats, and more than 75% of the dose was absorbed. When applied to the skin of humans, the doses were absorbed slowly and incompletely (50% absorbed in 72 hours). Half of the absorbed surfactant was excreted promptly in the urine and smaller amounts of AE appeared in the faeces and expired air (CO₂). The metabolism of C12 AE yields PEG, carboxylic acids, and CO₂ as metabolites. The LD50 values after oral administration to rats range from about 1-15 g/kg body weight indicating a low to moderate acute toxicity.

The ability of nonionic surfactants to cause a swelling of the stratum corneum of guinea pig skin has been studied. The swelling mechanism of the skin involves a combination of ionic binding of the hydrophilic group as well as hydrophobic interactions of the alkyl chain with the substrate. One of the mechanisms of skin irritation caused by surfactants is considered to be denaturation of the proteins of skin. It has also been established that there is a connection between the potential of surfactants to denature protein in vitro and their effect on the skin. Nonionic surfactants do not carry any net charge and, therefore, they can only form hydrophobic bonds with proteins. For this reason, proteins are not deactivated by nonionic surfactants, and proteins with poor solubility are not solubilized by nonionic surfactants. A substantial amount of toxicological data and information in vivo and in vitro demonstrates that there is no evidence for alcohol ethoxylates (AEs) being genotoxic, mutagenic or carcinogenic. No adverse reproductive or developmental effects were observed. The majority of available toxicity studies revealed NOAELs in excess of 100 mg/kg bw/d but the lowest NOAEL for an individual AE was established to be 50 mg/kg bw/day. This value was subsequently considered as a conservative, representative value in the risk assessment of AE. The effects were restricted to changes in organ weights with no histopathological organ changes with the exception of liver hypertrophy (indicative of an adaptive response to metabolism rather than a toxic effect). It is noteworthy that there was practically no difference in the NOAEL in oral studies of 90-day or 2 years of duration in rats. A comparison of the aggregate consumer exposure and the systemic NOAEL (taking into account an oral absorption value of 75%) results in a Margin of Exposure of 5,800. Taking into account the conservatism in the exposure assessment and the assigned systemic NOAEL, this margin of exposure is considered more than adequate to account for the inherent uncertainty and variability of the hazard database and inter and intra-species extrapolations.

AEs are not contact sensitizers. Neat AE are irritating to eyes and skin. The irritation potential of aqueous solutions of AEs depends on concentrations. Local dermal effects due to direct or indirect skin contact in certain use scenarios where the products are diluted are not of concern as AEs are not expected to be irritating to the skin at in-use concentrations. Potential irritation of the respiratory tract is not a concern given the very low levels of airborne AE generated as a consequence of spray cleaner aerosols or laundry powder detergent dust.

In summary, the human health risk assessment has demonstrated that the use of AE in household laundry and cleaning detergents is safe and does not cause concern with regard to consumer use.

For high boiling ethylene glycol ethers (typically triethylene- and tetraethylene glycol ethers):

Skin absorption: Available skin absorption data for triethylene glycol ether (TGBE), triethylene glycol methyl ether (TGME), and triethylene glycol ethylene ether (TGEE) suggest that the rate of absorption in skin of these three glycol ethers is 22 to 34 micrograms/cm²/hr, with the methyl ether having the highest permeation constant and the butyl ether having the lowest. The rates of absorption of TGBE, TGEE and TGME are at least 100-fold less than EGME, EGEE, and EGBE, their ethylene glycol monoalkyl ether counterparts, which have absorption rates that range from 214 to 2890 micrograms/cm²/hr. Therefore, an increase in either the chain length of the alkyl substituent or the number of ethylene glycol moieties appears to lead to a decreased rate of percutaneous absorption. However, since the ratio of the change in values of the ethylene glycol to the diethylene glycol series is larger than that of the diethylene glycol to triethylene glycol series, the effect of the length of the chain and number of ethylene glycol moieties on absorption diminishes with an increased number of ethylene glycol moieties. Therefore, although tetraethylene glycol methyl ether (TetraME) and tetraethylene glycol butyl ether (TetraBE) are expected to be less permeable to skin than TGME and TGBE, the differences in permeation between these molecules may only be slight.

Metabolism: The main metabolic pathway for metabolism of ethylene glycol monoalkyl ethers (EGME, EGEE, and EGBE) is oxidation via alcohol and aldehyde dehydrogenases (ALD/ADH) that leads to the formation of an alkoxy acids. Alkoxy acids are the only toxicologically

significant metabolites of glycol ethers that have been detected *in vivo*. The principal metabolite of TGME is believed to be 2-[2-(2-methoxyethoxy)ethoxy] acetic acid . Although ethylene glycol, a known kidney toxicant, has been identified as an impurity or a minor metabolite of glycol ethers in animal studies it does not appear to contribute to the toxicity of glycol ethers.

The metabolites of category members are not likely to be metabolized to any large extent to toxic molecules such as ethylene glycol or the mono alkoxy acids because metabolic breakdown of the ether linkages also has to occur

Acute toxicity: Category members generally display low acute toxicity by the oral, inhalation and dermal routes of exposure. Signs of toxicity in animals receiving lethal oral doses of TGEE included loss of righting reflex and flaccid muscle tone, coma, and heavy breathing. Animals administered lethal oral doses of TGEE exhibited lethargy, ataxia, blood in the urogenital area and piloerection before death.

Irritation: The data indicate that the glycol ethers may cause mild to moderate skin irritation. TGEE and TGBE are highly irritating to the eyes. Other category members show low eye irritation.

Repeat dose toxicity: Results of these studies suggest that repeated exposure to moderate to high doses of the glycol ethers in this category is required to produce systemic toxicity

In a 21-day dermal study, TGME, TGEE, and TGBE were administered to rabbits at 1,000 mg/kg/day. Erythema and oedema were observed. In addition, testicular degeneration (scored as trace in severity) was observed in one rabbit given TGEE and one rabbit given TGME. Testicular effects included spermatid giant cells, focal tubular hypospermatogenesis, and increased cytoplasmic vacuolisation . Due to a high incidence of similar spontaneous changes in normal New Zealand White rabbits , the testicular effects were considered not to be related to treatment . Thus, the NOAELs for TGME, TGEE and TGBE were established at 1000 mg/kg/day. Findings from this report were considered unremarkable.

A 2-week dermal study was conducted in rats administered TGME at doses of 1,000, 2,500, and 4,000 mg/kg/day . In this study, significantly-increased red blood cells at 4,000 mg/kg/day and significantly-increased urea concentrations in the urine at 2,500 mg/kg/day were observed. A few of the rats given 2,500 or 4,000 mg/kg/day had watery caecal contents and/or haemolysed blood in the stomach These gross pathologic observations were not associated with any histologic abnormalities in these tissues or alterations in haematologic and clinical chemistry parameters. A few males and females treated with either 1,000 or 2,500 mg/kg/day had a few small scabs or crusts at the test site. These alterations were slight in degree and did not adversely affect the rats

In a 13-week drinking water study, TGME was administered to rats at doses of 400, 1,200, and 4,000 mg/kg/day. Statistically-significant changes in relative liver weight were observed at 1,200 mg/kg/day and higher. Histopathological effects included hepatocellular cytoplasmic vacuolisation (minimal to mild in most animals) and hypertrophy (minimal to mild) in males at all doses and hepatocellular hypertrophy (minimal to mild) in high dose females. These effects were statistically significant at 4,000 mg/kg/day. Cholangiofibrosis was observed in 7/15 high-dose males; this effect was observed in a small number of bile ducts and was of mild severity. Significant, small decreases in total test session motor activity were observed in the high-dose animals, but no other neurological effects were observed. The changes in motor activity were secondary to systemic toxicity

Mutagenicity: Mutagenicity studies have been conducted for several category members. All *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies were negative at concentrations up to 5,000 micrograms/plate and 5,000 mg/kg, respectively, indicating that the category members are not genotoxic at the concentrations used in these studies. The uniformly negative outcomes of various mutagenicity studies performed on category members lessen the concern for carcinogenicity.

Reproductive toxicity: Although mating studies with either the category members or surrogates have not been performed, several of the repeated dose toxicity tests with the surrogates have included examination of reproductive organs. A lower molecular weight glycol ether, ethylene glycol methyl ether (EGME), has been shown to be a testicular toxicant. In addition, results of repeated dose toxicity tests with TGME clearly show testicular toxicity at an oral dose of 4,000 mg/kg/day four times greater than the limit dose of 1,000 mg/kg/day recommended for repeat dose studies. It should be noted that TGME is 350 times less potent for testicular effects than EGME. TGBE is not associated with testicular toxicity, TetraME is not likely to be metabolised by any large extent to 2-MAA (the toxic metabolite of EGME), and a mixture containing predominantly methylated glycol ethers in the C5-C11 range does not produce testicular toxicity (even when administered intravenously at 1,000 mg/kg/day).

Developmental toxicity: The bulk of the evidence shows that effects on the foetus are not noted in treatments with . 1,000 mg/kg/day during gestation. At 1,250 to 1,650 mg/kg/day TGME (in the rat) and 1,500 mg/kg/day (in the rabbit), the developmental effects observed included skeletal variants and decreased body weight gain.

The material may produce respiratory tract irritation. Symptoms of pulmonary irritation may include coughing, wheezing, laryngitis, shortness of breath, headache, nausea, and a burning sensation.

Unlike most organs, the lung can respond to a chemical insult or a chemical agent, by first removing or neutralising the irritant and then repairing the damage (inflammation of the lungs may be a consequence).

The repair process (which initially developed to protect mammalian lungs from foreign matter and antigens) may, however, cause further damage to the lungs (fibrosis for example) when activated by hazardous chemicals. Often, this results in an impairment of gas exchange, the primary function of the lungs. Therefore prolonged exposure to respiratory irritants may cause sustained breathing difficulties.

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 of the epidermis. Histologically there may be intercellular oedema of the spongy layer (spongiosis) and intracellular oedema of the epidermis.

STRONTIUM ALUMINATE & ALCOHOLS C11-14-ISO-, C13-RICH, ETHOXYLATED & AMMONIUM HYDROXIDE

Asthma-like symptoms may continue for months or even years after exposure to the material ends. This may be due to a non-allergic condition known as reactive airways dysfunction syndrome (RADS) which can occur after exposure to high levels of highly irritating compound. Main criteria for diagnosing RADS include the absence of previous airways disease in a non-atopic individual, with sudden onset of persistent asthma-like symptoms within minutes to hours of a documented exposure to the irritant. Other criteria for diagnosis of RADS include a reversible airflow pattern on lung function tests, moderate to severe bronchial hyperreactivity on methacholine challenge testing, and the lack of minimal lymphocytic inflammation, without eosinophilia. 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. On the other hand, industrial bronchitis is a disorder that occurs as a result of exposure due to high concentrations of irritating substance (often particles) and is completely reversible after exposure ceases. The disorder is characterized by difficulty breathing, cough and mucus production.

ALCOHOLS C11-14-ISO-, C13-RICH, ETHOXYLATED & AMMONIUM HYDROXIDE

The material may produce severe irritation to the eye causing pronounced inflammation. Repeated or prolonged exposure to irritants may produce conjunctivitis.

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

Toxicity

Folk Art Glow in the Dark	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
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Continued...

	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
strontium aluminate	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
alcohols C11-14-iso-, C13-rich, ethoxylated	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	LC50	96h	Fish	1-10mg/l	Not Available
ammonium hydroxide	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	LC50	96h	Fish	33.3mg/L	4
	EC50(ECx)	96h	Crustacea	0.83mg/L	5
Legend:	Extracted from 1. IUCLID Toxicity Data 2. Europe ECHA Registered Substances - Ecotoxicological Information - Aquatic Toxicity 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				

Harmful 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.

DO NOT discharge into sewer or waterways.

Persistence and degradability

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

Bioaccumulative potential

Ingredient	Bioaccumulation
	No Data available for all ingredients

Mobility in soil

Ingredient	Mobility
	No Data available for all ingredients

SECTION 13 Disposal considerations

Waste treatment methods

Product / Packaging disposal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ 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.
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SECTION 14 Transport information

Labels Required

Marine Pollutant	NO
HAZCHEM	Not Applicable

Land transport (ADG): NOT REGULATED FOR TRANSPORT OF DANGEROUS GOODS

Air transport (ICAO-IATA / DGR): NOT REGULATED FOR TRANSPORT OF DANGEROUS GOODS

Sea transport (IMDG-Code / GGVSee): NOT REGULATED FOR TRANSPORT OF DANGEROUS GOODS

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

Not Applicable

14.7.2. Transport in bulk in accordance with MARPOL Annex V and the IMSBC Code

Product name	Group
strontium aluminate	Not Available
alcohols C11-14-iso-, C13-rich, ethoxylated	Not Available
ammonium hydroxide	Not Available

14.7.3. Transport in bulk in accordance with the IGC Code

Product name	Ship Type
strontium aluminate	Not Available
alcohols C11-14-iso-, C13-rich, ethoxylated	Not Available
ammonium hydroxide	Not Available

SECTION 15 Regulatory information

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

strontium aluminate is found on the following regulatory lists

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

alcohols C11-14-iso-, C13-rich, ethoxylated is found on the following regulatory lists

Australia Hazardous Chemical Information System (HCIS) - Hazardous Chemicals

Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)

ammonium hydroxide is found on the following regulatory lists

Australia Hazardous Chemical Information System (HCIS) - Hazardous Chemicals

Australia Standard for the Uniform Scheduling of Medicines and Poisons (SUSMP) - Schedule 6

Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)

Additional Regulatory Information

Not Applicable

National Inventory Status

National Inventory	Status
Australia - AIIC / Australia Non-Industrial Use	No (strontium aluminate)
Canada - DSL	No (strontium aluminate)
Canada - NDSL	No (alcohols C11-14-iso-, C13-rich, ethoxylated; ammonium hydroxide)
China - IECSC	Yes
Europe - EINEC / ELINCS / NLP	No (alcohols C11-14-iso-, C13-rich, ethoxylated)
Japan - ENCS	No (strontium aluminate)
Korea - KECI	Yes
New Zealand - NZIoC	Yes
Philippines - PICCS	No (strontium aluminate)
USA - TSCA	Yes
Taiwan - TCSI	Yes
Mexico - INSQ	No (strontium aluminate)
Vietnam - NCI	Yes
Russia - FBEPH	Yes
Legend:	Yes = All CAS declared ingredients are on the inventory No = One or more of the CAS listed ingredients are not on the inventory. These ingredients may be exempt or will require registration.

SECTION 16 Other information

Revision Date	04/10/2024
Initial Date	04/10/2024

SDS Version Summary

Version	Date of Update	Sections Updated
2.1	04/10/2024	Composition / information on ingredients - Ingredients

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.

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
- ▶ ES: Exposure Standard
- ▶ 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
- ▶ DNEL: Derived No-Effect Level
- ▶ PNEC: Predicted no-effect concentration

- ▶ AIC: Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals
- ▶ DSL: Domestic Substances List
- ▶ NDSL: Non-Domestic Substances List
- ▶ IECSC: Inventory of Existing Chemical Substance in China
- ▶ EINECS: European INventory of Existing Commercial chemical Substances
- ▶ ELINCS: European List of Notified Chemical Substances
- ▶ NLP: No-Longer Polymers
- ▶ ENCS: Existing and New Chemical Substances Inventory
- ▶ KECI: Korea Existing Chemicals Inventory
- ▶ NZIoC: New Zealand Inventory of Chemicals
- ▶ PICCS: Philippine Inventory of Chemicals and Chemical Substances
- ▶ TSCA: Toxic Substances Control Act
- ▶ TCSI: Taiwan Chemical Substance Inventory
- ▶ INSQ: Inventario Nacional de Sustancias Químicas
- ▶ NCI: National Chemical Inventory
- ▶ FBEPH: Russian Register of Potentially Hazardous Chemical and Biological Substances

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