

Folk Art home decor chalk paints

Jasco Pty Limited

Chemwatch: 7912-80

Version No: 3.1

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

Chemwatch Hazard Alert Code: 4

Issue Date: 18/10/2024

Print Date: 18/10/2024

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

Product Identifier

Product name	Folk Art home decor chalk paints
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	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 number(s)	13 11 26 (24/7)
Other emergency telephone number(s)	Not Available

SECTION 2 Hazards identification

Classification of the substance or mixture

Poisons Schedule	Not Applicable
Classification ^[1]	Skin Corrosion/Irritation Category 2, Sensitisation (Skin) Category 1, Serious Eye Damage/Eye Irritation Category 1, Specific Target Organ Toxicity - Single Exposure (Respiratory Tract Irritation) Category 3, Carcinogenicity Category 1A, Hazardous to the Aquatic Environment Acute Hazard Category 2, Hazardous to the Aquatic Environment Long-Term 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	Danger

Hazard statement(s)

H315	Causes skin irritation.
H317	May cause an allergic skin reaction.
H318	Causes serious eye damage.
H335	May cause respiratory irritation.
H350	May cause cancer.
H401	Toxic to aquatic life.
H412	Harmful to aquatic life with long lasting effects.

Precautionary statement(s) Prevention

P201	Obtain special instructions before use.
P271	Use only outdoors or in a well-ventilated area.
P280	Wear protective gloves, protective clothing, eye protection and face protection.
P261	Avoid breathing mist/vapours/spray.
P273	Avoid release to the environment.
P264	Wash all exposed external body areas thoroughly after handling.
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.
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.
P304+P340	IF INHALED: Remove person to fresh air and keep comfortable for breathing.

Precautionary statement(s) Storage

P405	Store locked up.
P403+P233	Store in a well-ventilated place. Keep container tightly closed.

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
13463-67-7	10-50	<u>C.I. Pigment White 6</u>
1317-65-3	10-30	<u>calcium carbonate</u>
57-55-6	1-10	<u>propylene glycol</u>
57455-37-5	1-10	<u>C.I. Pigment Blue 29</u>
1333-86-4	1-10	<u>carbon black</u>
1308-38-9	1-10	<u>C.I. Pigment Green 17</u>
1309-37-1	<1	<u>ferric oxide</u>
1336-21-6	<1	<u>ammonium hydroxide</u>
14808-60-7	<1	<u>silica crystalline - quartz</u>
71819-74-4	<1	<u>C.I. Pigment Orange 48</u>
68186-36-7	<1	<u>tridecyl alcohol, ethoxylated, phosphated, potassium salt</u>
127087-87-0	<1	<u>4-nonylphenol, branched, ethoxylated</u>
1332-58-7	<1	<u>kaolin</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"> ▶ 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	<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 or combustion products are inhaled remove from contaminated area. ▶ Lay patient down. Keep warm and rested. ▶ Prostheses such as false teeth, which may block airway, should be removed, where possible, prior to initiating first aid procedures. ▶ Apply artificial respiration if not breathing, preferably with a demand valve resuscitator, bag-valve mask device, or pocket mask as trained. Perform CPR if necessary. ▶ Transport to hospital, or doctor, without delay.
Ingestion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ If swallowed do NOT induce vomiting.

Continued...

- ▶ 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

Any material aspirated during vomiting may produce lung injury. Therefore emesis should not be induced mechanically or pharmacologically. Mechanical means should be used if it is considered necessary to evacuate the stomach contents; these include gastric lavage after endotracheal intubation. If spontaneous vomiting has occurred after ingestion, the patient should be monitored for difficult breathing, as adverse effects of aspiration into the lungs may be delayed up to 48 hours.

Treat symptomatically.

for copper intoxication:

- ▶ Unless extensive vomiting has occurred empty the stomach by lavage with water, milk, sodium bicarbonate solution or a 0.1% solution of potassium ferrocyanide (the resulting copper ferrocyanide is insoluble).
- ▶ Administer egg white and other demulcents.
- ▶ Maintain electrolyte and fluid balances.
- ▶ Morphine or meperidine (Demerol) may be necessary for control of pain.
- ▶ If symptoms persist or intensify (especially circulatory collapse or cerebral disturbances, try BAL intramuscularly or penicillamine in accordance with the supplier's recommendations.
- ▶ Treat shock vigorously with blood transfusions and perhaps vasopressor amines.
- ▶ If intravascular haemolysis becomes evident protect the kidneys by maintaining a diuresis with mannitol and perhaps by alkalinising the urine with sodium bicarbonate.
- ▶ It is unlikely that methylene blue would be effective against the occasional methaemoglobinemia and it might exacerbate the subsequent haemolytic episode.
- ▶ Institute measures for impending renal and hepatic failure.

[GOSSELIN, SMITH & HODGE: Commercial Toxicology of Commercial Products]

- ▶ A role for activated charcoals for emesis is, as yet, unproven.
- ▶ In severe poisoning CaNa₂EDTA has been proposed.

[ELLENHORN & BARCELOUX: Medical Toxicology]

For acute or short term repeated exposures to iron and its derivatives:

- ▶ Always treat symptoms rather than history.
- ▶ In general, however, toxic doses exceed 20 mg/kg of ingested material (as elemental iron) with lethal doses exceeding 180 mg/kg.
- ▶ Control of iron stores depend on variation in absorption rather than excretion. Absorption occurs through aspiration, ingestion and burned skin.
- ▶ Hepatic damage may progress to failure with hypoprothrombinaemia and hypoglycaemia. Hepatorenal syndrome may occur.
- ▶ Iron intoxication may also result in decreased cardiac output and increased cardiac pooling which subsequently produces hypotension.
- ▶ Serum iron should be analysed in symptomatic patients. Serum iron levels (2-4 hrs post-ingestion) greater than 100 ug/dL indicate poisoning with levels, in excess of 350 ug/dL, being potentially serious. Emesis or lavage (for obtunded patients with no gag reflex) are the usual means of decontamination.
- ▶ Activated charcoal does not effectively bind iron.
- ▶ Catharsis (using sodium sulfate or magnesium sulfate) may only be used if the patient already has diarrhoea.
- ▶ Deferoxamine is a specific chelator of ferric (3+) iron and is currently the antidote of choice. It should be administered parenterally. [Ellenhorn and Barceloux: Medical Toxicology]

To treat poisoning by the higher aliphatic alcohols (up to C7):

- ▶ Gastric lavage with copious amounts of water.
- ▶ It may be beneficial to instill 60 ml of mineral oil into the stomach.
- ▶ Oxygen and artificial respiration as needed.
- ▶ Electrolyte balance: it may be useful to start 500 ml. M/6 sodium bicarbonate intravenously but maintain a cautious and conservative attitude toward electrolyte replacement unless shock or severe acidosis threatens.
- ▶ To protect the liver, maintain carbohydrate intake by intravenous infusions of glucose.
- ▶ Haemodialysis if coma is deep and persistent. [GOSSELIN, SMITH HODGE: Clinical Toxicology of Commercial Products, Ed 5]

BASIC TREATMENT

- ▶ Establish a patent airway with suction where necessary.
- ▶ Watch for signs of respiratory insufficiency and assist ventilation as necessary.
- ▶ Administer oxygen by non-rebreather mask at 10 to 15 l/min.
- ▶ Monitor and treat, where necessary, for shock.
- ▶ Monitor and treat, where necessary, for pulmonary oedema.
- ▶ Anticipate and treat, where necessary, for seizures.
- ▶ **DO NOT use emetics.** Where ingestion is suspected rinse mouth and give up to 200 ml water (5 ml/kg recommended) for dilution where patient is able to swallow, has a strong gag reflex and does not drool.
- ▶ Give activated charcoal.

ADVANCED TREATMENT

- ▶ Consider orotracheal or nasotracheal intubation for airway control in unconscious patient or where respiratory arrest has occurred.
- ▶ Positive-pressure ventilation using a bag-valve mask might be of use.
- ▶ Monitor and treat, where necessary, for arrhythmias.
- ▶ Start an IV D5W TKO. If signs of hypovolaemia are present use lactated Ringers solution. Fluid overload might create complications.
- ▶ If the patient is hypoglycaemic (decreased or loss of consciousness, tachycardia, pallor, dilated pupils, diaphoresis and/or dextrose strip or glucometer readings below 50 mg), give 50% dextrose.
- ▶ Hypotension with signs of hypovolaemia requires the cautious administration of fluids. Fluid overload might create complications.
- ▶ Drug therapy should be considered for pulmonary oedema.
- ▶ Treat seizures with diazepam.
- ▶ Proparacaine hydrochloride should be used to assist eye irrigation.

EMERGENCY DEPARTMENT

- ▶ Laboratory analysis of complete blood count, serum electrolytes, BUN, creatinine, glucose, urinalysis, baseline for serum aminotransferases (ALT and AST), calcium, phosphorus and magnesium, may assist in establishing a treatment regime. Other useful analyses include anion and osmolar gaps, arterial blood gases (ABGs), chest radiographs and electrocardiograph.
- ▶ Positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP)-assisted ventilation may be required for acute parenchymal injury or adult respiratory distress syndrome.
- ▶ Acidosis may respond to hyperventilation and bicarbonate therapy.
- ▶ Haemodialysis might be considered in patients with severe intoxication.
- ▶ Consult a toxicologist as necessary. BRONSTEIN, A.C. and CURRANCE, P.L. EMERGENCY CARE FOR HAZARDOUS MATERIALS EXPOSURE: 2nd Ed. 1994

For C8 alcohols and above.

Symptomatic and supportive therapy is advised in managing patients.

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

- ▶ Alcohol stable 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) nitrogen oxides (NO_x) silicon dioxide (SiO₂) 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>Chemical Class: alcohols and glycols For release onto land: recommended sorbents listed in order of priority.</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>SORBENT TYPE</th> <th>RANK</th> <th>APPLICATION</th> <th>COLLECTION</th> <th>LIMITATIONS</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td colspan="5">LAND SPILL - SMALL</td> </tr> <tr> <td>cross-linked polymer - particulate</td> <td>1</td> <td>shovel</td> <td>shovel</td> <td>R, W, SS</td> </tr> <tr> <td>cross-linked polymer - pillow</td> <td>1</td> <td>throw</td> <td>pitchfork</td> <td>R, DGC, RT</td> </tr> <tr> <td>sorbent clay - particulate</td> <td>2</td> <td>shovel</td> <td>shovel</td> <td>R, I, P</td> </tr> <tr> <td>wood fiber - pillow</td> <td>3</td> <td>throw</td> <td>pitchfork</td> <td>R, P, DGC, RT</td> </tr> <tr> <td>treated wood fiber - pillow</td> <td>3</td> <td>throw</td> <td>pitchfork</td> <td>DGC, RT</td> </tr> <tr> <td>foamed glass - pillow</td> <td>4</td> <td>throw</td> <td>pitchfork</td> <td>R, P, DGC, RT</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="5">LAND SPILL - MEDIUM</td> </tr> <tr> <td>cross-linked polymer - particulate</td> <td>1</td> <td>blower</td> <td>skiploader</td> <td>R, W, SS</td> </tr> <tr> <td>polypropylene - particulate</td> <td>2</td> <td>blower</td> <td>skiploader</td> <td>W, SS, DGC</td> </tr> <tr> <td>sorbent clay - particulate</td> <td>2</td> <td>blower</td> <td>skiploader</td> <td>R, I, W, P, DGC</td> </tr> <tr> <td>polypropylene - mat</td> <td>3</td> <td>throw</td> <td>skiploader</td> <td>DGC, RT</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	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	wood fiber - pillow	3	throw	pitchfork	R, P, DGC, RT	treated wood fiber - pillow	3	throw	pitchfork	DGC, RT	foamed glass - pillow	4	throw	pitchfork	R, P, DGC, RT	LAND SPILL - MEDIUM					cross-linked polymer - particulate	1	blower	skiploader	R, W, SS	polypropylene - particulate	2	blower	skiploader	W, SS, DGC	sorbent clay - particulate	2	blower	skiploader	R, I, W, P, DGC	polypropylene - mat	3	throw	skiploader	DGC, RT
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expanded mineral - particulate	3	blower	skiploader	R, I, W, P, DGC
polyurethane - mat	4	throw	skiploader	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

Chemical Class: bases

For release onto land: recommended sorbents listed in order of priority.

SORBENT TYPE	RANK	APPLICATION	COLLECTION	LIMITATIONS
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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
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Legend

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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.

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	<p>Inorganic derivative of Group 11 metal.</p> <p>Calcium carbonate:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ is incompatible with acids, ammonium salts, fluorine, germanium, lead diacetate, magnesium, mercurous chloride, silicon, silver nitrate, titanium. <p>Contact with acid generates carbon dioxide gas, which may pressurise and then rupture closed containers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Glycols and their ethers undergo violent decomposition in contact with 70% perchloric acid. This seems likely to involve formation of the glycol perchlorate esters (after scission of ethers) which are explosive, those of ethylene glycol and 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol being more powerful than glyceryl nitrate, and the former so sensitive that it explodes on addition of water. <p>The substance may be or contains a "metalloid"</p> <p>The following elements are considered to be metalloids; boron, silicon, germanium, arsenic, antimony, tellurium and (possibly) polonium. The electronegativities and ionisation energies of the metalloids are between those of the metals and nonmetals, so the metalloids exhibit characteristics of both classes. The reactivity of the metalloids depends on the element with which they are reacting. For example, boron acts as a nonmetal when reacting with sodium yet as a metal when reacting with fluorine.</p> <p>Unlike most metals, most metalloids are amphoteric- that is they can act as both an acid and a base. For instance, arsenic forms not only salts such as arsenic halides, by the reaction with certain strong acid, but it also forms arsenites by reactions with strong bases.</p> <p>Most metalloids have a multiplicity of oxidation states or valences. For instance, tellurium has the oxidation states +2, -2, +4, and +6. Metalloids react like non-metals when they react with metals and act like metals when they react with non-metals.</p> <p>Titanium dioxide</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ reacts with strong acids, strong oxidisers ▶ reacts violently with aluminium, calcium, hydrazine, lithium (at around 200 deg C.), magnesium, potassium, sodium, zinc, especially at elevated temperatures - these reactions involves reduction of the oxide and are accompanied by incandescence ▶ dust or powders can ignite and then explode in a carbon dioxide atmosphere ▶ WARNING: Avoid or control reaction with peroxides. All <i>transition metal</i> peroxides should be considered as potentially explosive. For example transition metal complexes of alkyl hydroperoxides may decompose explosively. ▶ The pi-complexes formed between chromium(0), vanadium(0) and other transition metals (haloarene-metal complexes) and mono- or poly-fluorobenzene show extreme sensitivity to heat and are explosive. ▶ Avoid reaction with borohydrides or cyanoborohydrides <p>Alcohols</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ are incompatible with strong acids, acid chlorides, acid anhydrides, oxidising and reducing agents. ▶ reacts, possibly violently, with alkaline metals and alkaline earth metals to produce hydrogen ▶ react with strong acids, strong caustics, aliphatic amines, isocyanates, acetaldehyde, benzoyl peroxide, chromic acid, chromium oxide, dialkylzincs, dichlorine oxide, ethylene oxide, hypochlorous acid, isopropyl chlorocarbonate, lithium tetrahydroaluminate, nitrogen dioxide, pentafluoroguanidine, phosphorus halides, phosphorus pentasulfide, tangerine oil, triethylaluminium, triisobutylaluminium ▶ should not be heated above 49 deg. C. when in contact with aluminium equipment <p>For ammonia:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Ammonia forms explosive mixtures with oxygen, chlorine, bromine, fluorine, iodine, mercury, platinum and silver. ▶ Fire and/or explosion may follow contact with acetaldehyde, acrolein, aldehydes, alkylene oxides, amides, antimony, boron, boron halides, bromine chloride, chloric acid, chlorine monoxide, o-chloronitrobenzene, 1-chloro-2,4-nitrobenzene, chlorosilane, chloromelamine, chromium trioxide, chromyl chloride, epichlorohydrin, hexachloromelamine, hypochlorites (do NOT mix ammonia with liquid household bleach), isocyanates, nitrogen tetraoxide, nitrogen trichloride, nitryl chloride, organic anhydrides, phosphorous trioxide, potassium ferricyanide, potassium mercuric cyanide, silver chloride, stibine, tellurium halides, tellurium hydropentachloride, tetramethylammonium amide, trimethylammonium amide, trioxgen difluoride, vinyl acetate. ▶ Shock-, temperature-, and pressure sensitive compounds are formed with antimony, chlorine, germanium compounds, halogens, heavy metals, hydrocarbons, mercury oxide, silver compounds (azides, chlorides, nitrates, oxides). ▶ Vapours or solutions of ammonia are corrosive to copper, copper alloys, galvanised metal and aluminium. Mixtures of ammonia and air lying within the explosive limits can occur above aqueous solutions of varying strengths. ▶ Avoid contact with sodium hydroxide, iron and cadmium. ▶ Several incidents involving sudden "boiling" (occasionally violent) of a concentrated solution (d, 0.880, 35 wt %) have occurred when screw-capped winchesters are opened. These are attributable to supersaturation of the solution with gas caused by increases in temperature subsequent to preparation and bottling. The effect is particularly marked with winchesters filled in winter and opened in summer. ▶ Ammonia polymerises violently with ethylene oxide. ▶ Ammonia attacks some coatings, plastics and rubber. ▶ Attacks copper, bronze, brass, aluminium, steel and their alloys. ▶ Sulfides are incompatible with acids, diazo and azo compounds, halocarbons, isocyanates, aldehydes, alkali metals, nitrides, hydrides, and other strong reducing agents. ▶ Many reactions of sulfides with these materials generate heat and in many cases hydrogen gas. ▶ Many sulfide compounds may liberate hydrogen sulfide upon reaction with an acid. ▶ Avoid strong acids, bases.

SECTION 8 Exposure controls / personal protection

Control parameters

Occupational Exposure Limits (OEL)

INGREDIENT DATA

Source	Ingredient	Material name	TWA	STEL	Peak	Notes
Australia Exposure Standards	C.I. Pigment White 6	Titanium dioxide	10 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	(a) This value is for inhalable dust containing no asbestos and < 1% crystalline silica.
Australia Exposure Standards	calcium carbonate	Calcium carbonate	10 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	(a) This value is for inhalable dust containing no asbestos and < 1% crystalline silica.
Australia Exposure Standards	propylene glycol	Propane-1,2-diol: particulates only	10 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	propylene glycol	Propane-1,2-diol total: (vapour & particulates)	150 ppm / 474 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	carbon black	Carbon black	3 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available

Source	Ingredient	Material name	TWA	STEL	Peak	Notes
Australia Exposure Standards	C.I. Pigment Green 17	Chromium (III) compounds (as Cr)	0.5 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	ferric oxide	Iron oxide fume (Fe2O3) (as Fe)	5 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	ferric oxide	Rouge dust	10 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	(a) This value is for inhalable dust containing no asbestos and < 1% crystalline silica.
Australia Exposure Standards	silica crystalline - quartz	Quartz (respirable dust)	0.05 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	silica crystalline - quartz	Silica - Crystalline: Quartz (respirable dust)	0.05 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	kaolin	Kaolin	10 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	(a) This value is for inhalable dust containing no asbestos and < 1% crystalline silica.

Ingredient	Original IDLH	Revised IDLH
C.I. Pigment White 6	5,000 mg/m3	Not Available
calcium carbonate	Not Available	Not Available
propylene glycol	Not Available	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Blue 29	Not Available	Not Available
carbon black	1,750 mg/m3	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Green 17	25 mg/m3	Not Available
ferric oxide	2,500 mg/m3	Not Available
ammonium hydroxide	Not Available	Not Available
silica crystalline - quartz	25 mg/m3 / 50 mg/m3	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Orange 48	Not Available	Not Available
tridecyl alcohol, ethoxylated, phosphated, potassium salt	Not Available	Not Available
4-nonylphenol, branched, ethoxylated	Not Available	Not Available
kaolin	Not Available	Not Available

Occupational Exposure Banding

Ingredient	Occupational Exposure Band Rating	Occupational Exposure Band Limit
ammonium hydroxide	E	≤ 0.1 ppm
tridecyl alcohol, ethoxylated, phosphated, potassium salt	E	≤ 0.01 mg/m ³
4-nonylphenol, branched, ethoxylated	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>Local exhaust ventilation usually required. If risk of overexposure exists, wear approved respirator. Correct fit is essential to obtain adequate protection. Supplied-air type respirator may be required in special circumstances. Correct fit is essential to ensure adequate protection. An approved self contained breathing apparatus (SCBA) may be required in some situations.</p> <p>Provide adequate ventilation in warehouse or closed storage area. 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> </tbody> </table>	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.)	Lower end of the range	Upper end of the range	1: Room air currents minimal or favourable to capture	1: Disturbing room air currents
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Lower end of the range	Upper end of the range														
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	<p>2: Contaminants of low toxicity or of nuisance value only.</p> <p>3: Intermittent, low production.</p> <p>4: Large hood or large air mass in motion</p>	<p>2: Contaminants of high toxicity</p> <p>3: High production, heavy use</p> <p>4: Small hood-local control only</p>
	<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>	
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	<p>See Hand protection below</p>	
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	<p>See Other protection below</p>	
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 home decor chalk paints

Material	CPI
BUTYL	C

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

HYPALON	C
NATURAL RUBBER	C
NATURAL+NEOPRENE	C
NEOPRENE	C
NEOPRENE/NATURAL	C
NITRILE	C
NITRILE+PVC	C
PE/EVAL/PE	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.

up to 10 x ES	AK-AUS P2	-	AK-PAPR-AUS / Class 1 P2
up to 50 x ES	-	AK-AUS / Class 1 P2	-
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
- Respirators may be necessary when engineering and administrative controls do not adequately prevent exposures.
- The decision to use respiratory protection should be based on professional judgment that takes into account toxicity information, exposure measurement data, and frequency and likelihood of the worker's exposure - ensure users are not subject to high thermal loads which may result in heat stress or distress due to personal protective equipment (powered, positive flow, full face apparatus may be an option).
- Published occupational exposure limits, where they exist, will assist in determining the adequacy of the selected respiratory protection. These may be government mandated or vendor recommended.
- Certified respirators will be useful for protecting workers from inhalation of particulates when properly selected and fit tested as part of a complete respiratory protection program.
- Where protection from nuisance levels of dusts are desired, use type N95 (US) or type P1 (EN143) dust masks. Use respirators and components tested and approved under appropriate government standards such as NIOSH (US) or CEN (EU)
- Use approved positive flow mask if significant quantities of dust becomes airborne.
- Try to avoid creating dust conditions.
- Where significant concentrations of the material are likely to enter the breathing zone, a Class P3 respirator may be required.
- Class P3 particulate filters are used for protection against highly toxic or highly irritant particulates.
- Filtration rate: Filters at least 99.95% of airborne particles
- Suitable for:
 - Relatively small particles generated by mechanical processes eg. grinding, cutting, sanding, drilling, sawing.
 - Sub-micron thermally generated particles e.g. welding fumes, fertilizer and bushfire smoke.
 - Biologically active airborne particles under specified infection control applications e.g. viruses, bacteria, COVID-19, SARS
 - Highly toxic particles e.g. Organophosphate Insecticides, Radionuclides, Asbestos
- Note: P3 Rating can only be achieved when used with a Full Face Respirator or Powered Air-Purifying Respirator (PAPR). If used with any other respirator, it will only provide filtration protection up to a P2 rating.

SECTION 9 Physical and chemical properties

Information on basic physical and chemical properties

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

Continued...

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>Inhalation of vapours or aerosols (mists, fumes), generated by the material during the course of normal handling, may be harmful. Evidence shows, or practical experience predicts, that the material produces irritation of the respiratory system, in a substantial number of individuals, following inhalation. In contrast to most organs, the lung is able to respond to a chemical insult by first removing or neutralising the irritant and then repairing the damage. The repair process, which initially evolved to protect mammalian lungs from foreign matter and antigens, may however, produce further lung damage resulting in the impairment of gas exchange, the primary function of the lungs. Respiratory tract irritation often results in an inflammatory response involving the recruitment and activation of many cell types, mainly derived from the vascular system.</p> <p>Inhalation of vapours may cause drowsiness and dizziness. This may be accompanied by narcosis, reduced alertness, loss of reflexes, lack of coordination and vertigo.</p> <p>Exposure to aliphatic alcohols with more than 3 carbons may produce central nervous system effects such as headache, dizziness, drowsiness, muscle weakness, delirium, CNS depression, coma, seizure, and neurobehavioural changes. Symptoms are more acute with higher alcohols. Respiratory tract involvement may produce irritation of the mucosa, respiratory insufficiency, respiratory depression secondary to CNS depression, pulmonary oedema, chemical pneumonitis and bronchitis. Cardiovascular involvement may result in arrhythmias and hypotension. Gastrointestinal effects may include nausea and vomiting. Kidney and liver damage may result following massive exposures. The alcohols are potential irritants being, generally, stronger irritants than similar organic structures that lack functional groups (e.g. alkanes) but are much less irritating than the corresponding amines, aldehydes or ketones. Alcohols and glycols (diols) rarely represent serious hazards in the workplace, because their vapour concentrations are usually less than the levels which produce significant irritation which, in turn, produce significant central nervous system effects as well.</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> <p>Copper poisoning following exposure to copper dusts and fume may result in headache, cold sweat and weak pulse. Capillary, kidney, liver and brain damage are the longer term manifestations of such poisoning. Inhalation of freshly formed metal oxide particles sized below 1.5 microns and generally between 0.02 to 0.05 microns may result in "metal fume fever". Symptoms may be delayed for up to 12 hours and begin with the sudden onset of thirst, and a sweet, metallic or foul taste in the mouth. Other symptoms include upper respiratory tract irritation accompanied by coughing and a dryness of the mucous membranes, lassitude and a generalised feeling of malaise. Mild to severe headache, nausea, occasional vomiting, fever or chills, exaggerated mental activity, profuse sweating, diarrhoea, excessive urination and prostration may also occur. Tolerance to the fumes develops rapidly, but is quickly lost. All symptoms usually subside within 24-36 hours following removal from exposure.</p>
Ingestion	<p>Accidental ingestion of the material may be damaging to the health of the individual.</p> <p>Effects on the nervous system characterise over-exposure to higher aliphatic alcohols. These include headache, muscle weakness, giddiness, ataxia, (loss of muscle coordination), confusion, delirium and coma. Gastrointestinal effects may include nausea, vomiting and diarrhoea. In the absence of effective treatment, respiratory arrest is the most common cause of death in animals acutely poisoned by the higher alcohols. Aspiration of liquid alcohols produces an especially toxic response as they are able to penetrate deeply in the lung where they are absorbed and may produce pulmonary injury. Those possessing lower viscosity elicit a greater response. The result is a high blood level and prompt death at doses otherwise tolerated by ingestion without aspiration. In general the secondary alcohols are less toxic than the corresponding primary isomers. As a general observation, alcohols are more powerful central nervous system depressants than their aliphatic analogues. In sequence of decreasing depressant potential, tertiary alcohols with multiple substituent OH groups are more potent than secondary alcohols, which, in turn, are more potent than primary alcohols. The potential for overall systemic toxicity increases with molecular weight (up to C7), principally because the water solubility is diminished and lipophilicity is increased.</p> <p>Within the homologous series of aliphatic alcohols, narcotic potency may increase even faster than lethality</p> <p>Only scanty toxicity information is available about higher homologues of the aliphatic alcohol series (greater than C7) but animal data establish that lethality does not continue to increase with increasing chain length. Aliphatic alcohols with 8 carbons are less toxic than those immediately preceding them in the series. 10 -Carbon n-decyl alcohol has low toxicity as do the solid fatty alcohols (e.g. lauryl, myristyl, cetyl and stearyl). However the rat aspiration test suggests that decyl and melted dodecyl (lauryl) alcohols are dangerous if they enter the trachea. In the rat even a small quantity (0.2 ml) of these behaves like a hydrocarbon solvent in causing death from pulmonary oedema.</p> <p>Primary alcohols are metabolised to corresponding aldehydes and acids; a significant metabolic acidosis may occur. Secondary alcohols are converted to ketones, which are also central nervous system depressants and which, in the case of the higher homologues persist in the blood for many hours. Tertiary alcohols are metabolised slowly and incompletely so their toxic effects are generally persistent.</p> <p>Ingestion of propylene glycol produced reversible central nervous system depression in humans following ingestion of 60 ml. Symptoms included increased heart-rate (tachycardia), excessive sweating (diaphoresis) and grand mal seizures in a 15 month child who ingested large doses (7.5 ml/day for 8 days) as an ingredient of vitamin preparation.</p> <p>Excessive repeated ingestions may cause hypoglycaemia (low levels of glucose in the blood stream) among susceptible individuals; this may result in muscular weakness, incoordination and mental confusion.</p> <p>Very high doses given during feeding studies to rats and dogs produce central nervous system depression (although one-third of that produced by ethanol), haemolysis and insignificant kidney changes.</p> <p>In humans propylene glycol is partly excreted unchanged in the urine and partly metabolised as lactic and pyruvic acid. Lactic acidosis may result.</p>

Numerous cases of a single oral exposure to high levels of copper have been reported. Consumption of copper-contaminated drinking water has been associated with mainly gastrointestinal symptoms including nausea, abdominal pain, vomiting and diarrhoea. A metallic taste, nausea, vomiting and epigastric burning often occur after ingestion of copper and its derivatives. The vomitus is usually green/blue and discolours contaminated skin. Acute poisonings from the ingestion of copper salts are rare due to their prompt removal by vomiting. Vomiting is due mainly to the local and astringent action of copper ion on the stomach and bowel. Emesis usually occurs within 5 to 10 minutes but may be delayed if food is present in the stomach. Should vomiting not occur, or is delayed, gradual absorption from the bowel may result in systemic poisoning with death, possibly, following within several days. Apparent recovery may be followed by lethal relapse. Systemic effects of copper resemble other heavy metal poisonings and produce wide-spread capillary damage, kidney and liver damage and central nervous system excitation followed by depression. Haemolytic anaemia (a result of red-blood cell damage) has been described in acute human poisoning. [GOSSELIN, SMITH HODGE: Clinical Toxicology of Commercial Products.]

Other symptoms of copper poisoning include lethargy, neurotoxicity, and increased blood pressure and respiratory rates. Coma and death have followed attempted suicides using solutions of copper sulfate. Copper is an essential element and most animal tissues have measurable amounts of copper associated with them. Humans have evolved mechanisms which maintain its availability whilst limiting its toxicity (homeostasis). Copper is initially bound in the body to a blood-borne protein, serum albumin and thereafter is more firmly bound to another protein, alpha-ceruloplasmin. Such binding effectively "inactivates" the copper, thus reducing its potential to produce toxic damage. In healthy individuals, bound copper can reach relatively high levels without producing adverse health effects. Excretion in the bile represents the major pathway by which copper is removed from the body when it reaches potentially toxic levels. Copper may also be stored in the liver and bone marrow where it is bound to another protein, metallothionein. A combination of binding and excretion ensures that the body is able to tolerate relatively high loadings of copper.

Body content of titanium is presumed to be high (because titanium occupies fourth place in occurrence in the earth's surface) and is reported to be general in all organs of the body. Animal experiments have shown that dusts of titanium and several compounds exhibit only slight toxicity. Such toxic actions (limited to soluble titanium salts) may be related to an ability to inhibit the action of the enzyme tyrosinase on DOPA (3,4-dihydroxyphenylalanine). A further as yet unexplored mechanism may involve substitution by titanium for several metals (such as vanadium, iron, cobalt, nickel, and zinc) which perform essential biologic functions; all have a similar atomic radius. Human metabolism allows detoxification of ammonia, however toxic effects appear if this mechanism is overwhelmed by other than small doses.

Ingestion of ammonium salts may produce local irritation, nausea, vomiting and diarrhoea. Very large doses of ammonium salts may produce a drop in blood pressure, collapse, central nervous system disorders, spasms, narcosis, respiratory paralysis and haemolysis. Large doses of ammonium salts may be sufficiently absorbed to produce diuresis and systemic ammonia poisoning. Such poisonings have been described after parenteral administration of the salts and produce flaccidity of facial muscles, tremor, generalised discomfort, anxiety and impairment of motor performance, recognition and of critical flicker fusion. Such a clinical picture resembles that found in terminal liver failure - elevated levels of ammonia are found regularly in advanced liver disease.

Skin Contact

Repeated exposure may cause skin cracking, flaking or drying following normal handling and use.

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.

Most liquid alcohols appear to act as primary skin irritants in humans. Significant percutaneous absorption occurs in rabbits but not apparently in man.

Exposure to copper, by skin, has come from its use in pigments, ointments, ornaments, jewellery, dental amalgams and IUDs and as an antifungal agent and an algicide. Although copper algicides are used in the treatment of water in swimming pools and reservoirs, there are no reports of toxicity from these applications. Reports of allergic contact dermatitis following contact with copper and its salts have appeared in the literature, however the exposure concentrations leading to any effect have been poorly characterised. In one study, patch testing of 1190 eczema patients found that only 13 (1.1%) cross-reacted with 2% copper sulfate in petrolatum. The investigators warned, however, that the possibility of contamination with nickel (an established contact allergen) might have been the cause of the reaction. Copper salts often produce an itching eczema in contact with skin. This is, likely, of a non-allergic nature.

Mild irritation is produced on moist skin when vapour concentrations of ammonia exceed 10000 ppm. High vapour concentrations (>30000 ppm) or direct contact with solutions produces severe pain, a stinging sensation, burns and vesiculation and possible brown stains.

Extensive burning may be fatal. Vapour exposure may, rarely, produce urticaria.

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

When applied to the eye(s) of animals, the material produces severe ocular lesions which are present twenty-four hours or more after instillation.

Copper salts, in contact with the eye, may produce conjunctivitis or even ulceration and turbidity of the cornea.

Chronic

On the basis of epidemiological data, it has been concluded that prolonged inhalation of the material, in an occupational setting, may produce cancer in humans.

Long-term exposure to respiratory irritants may result in disease of the airways involving difficult breathing and related systemic problems. Strong evidence exists that the substance may cause irreversible but non-lethal mutagenic effects following a single exposure.

Practical evidence shows that inhalation of the material is capable of inducing a sensitisation reaction in a substantial number of individuals at a greater frequency than would be expected from the response of a normal population.

Pulmonary sensitisation, resulting in hyperactive airway dysfunction and pulmonary allergy may be accompanied by fatigue, malaise and aching. Significant symptoms of exposure may persist for extended periods, even after exposure ceases. Symptoms can be activated by a variety of nonspecific environmental stimuli such as automobile exhaust, perfumes and passive smoking.

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.

Substances that can cause occupational asthma (also known as asthmagens and respiratory sensitisers) can induce a state of specific airway hyper-responsiveness via an immunological, irritant or other mechanism. Once the airways have become hyper-responsive, further exposure to the substance, sometimes even to tiny quantities, may cause respiratory symptoms. These symptoms can range in severity from a runny nose to asthma. Not all workers who are exposed to a sensitiser will become hyper-responsive and it is impossible to identify in advance who are likely to become hyper-responsive.

Substances that can cause occupational asthma should be distinguished from substances which may trigger the symptoms of asthma in people with pre-existing air-way hyper-responsiveness. The latter substances are not classified as asthmagens or respiratory sensitisers. Wherever it is reasonably practicable, exposure to substances that can cause occupational asthma should be prevented. Where this is not possible the primary aim is to apply adequate standards of control to prevent workers from becoming hyper-responsive.

Activities giving rise to short-term peak concentrations should receive particular attention when risk management is being considered. Health surveillance is appropriate for all employees exposed or liable to be exposed to a substance which may cause occupational asthma and there should be appropriate consultation with an occupational health professional over the degree of risk and level of surveillance.

Toxic: danger of serious damage to health by prolonged exposure through inhalation, in contact with skin and if swallowed.

Serious damage (clear functional disturbance or morphological change which may have toxicological significance) is likely to be caused by repeated or prolonged exposure. As a rule the material produces, or contains a substance which produces severe lesions. Such damage may become apparent following direct application in subchronic (90 day) toxicity studies or following sub-acute (28 day) or chronic (two-year) toxicity tests.

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. Limited evidence suggests that repeated or long-term occupational exposure may produce cumulative health effects involving organs or biochemical systems.

For copper and its compounds (typically copper chloride):

Acute toxicity: There are no reliable acute oral toxicity results available. Animal testing shows that skin in exposure to copper may lead to hardness of the skin, scar formation, exudation and reddish changes. Inflammation, irritation and injury of the skin were noted.

Repeat dose toxicity: Animal testing shows that very high levels of copper monochloride may cause anaemia.

Genetic toxicity: Copper monochloride does not appear to cause mutations *in vivo*, although chromosomal aberrations were seen at very high concentrations *in vitro*.

Cancer-causing potential: There was insufficient information to evaluate the cancer-causing activity of copper monochloride.

Chronic excessive iron exposure has been associated with haemosiderosis and consequent possible damage to the liver and pancreas.

Haemosiderin is a golden-brown insoluble protein produced by phagocytic digestion of haematin (an iron-based pigment). Haemosiderin is found in most tissues, especially in the liver, in the form of granules. Other sites of haemosiderin deposition include the pancreas and skin. A related condition, haemochromatosis, which involves a disorder of metabolism of these deposits, may produce cirrhosis of the liver, diabetes, and bronze pigmentation of the skin - heart failure may eventually occur.

Such exposure may also produce conjunctivitis, choroiditis, retinitis (both inflammatory conditions involving the eye) and siderosis of tissues if iron remains in these tissues. Siderosis is a form of pneumoconiosis produced by iron dusts. Siderosis also includes discoloration of organs, excess circulating iron and degeneration of the retina, lens and uvea as a result of the deposition of intraocular iron. Siderosis might also involve the lungs - involvement rarely develops before ten years of regular exposure. Often there is an accompanying inflammatory reaction of the bronchi. Permanent scarring of the lungs does not normally occur.

High levels of iron may raise the risk of cancer. This concern stems from the theory that iron causes oxidative damage to tissues and organs by generating highly reactive chemicals, called free radicals, which subsequently react with DNA. Cells may be disrupted and may become cancerous. People whose genetic disposition prevents them from keeping tight control over iron (e.g. those with the inherited disorder, haemochromatosis) may be at increased risk.

Iron overload in men may lead to diabetes, arthritis, liver cancer, heart irregularities and problems with other organs as iron builds up.

[K. Schmidt, New Scientist, No. 1919 pp.11-12, 2nd April, 1994]

Chromium(III) is considered an essential trace nutrient serving as a component of the "glucose tolerance factor" and a cofactor for insulin action. High concentrations of chromium are also found in RNA. Trivalent chromium is the most common form found in nature.

Chronic inhalation of trivalent chromium compounds produces irritation of the bronchus and lungs, dystrophic changes to the liver and kidney, pulmonary oedema, and adverse effects on macrophages. Intratracheal administration of chromium(III) oxide, in rats, increased the incidence of sarcomas, and tumors and reticulum cell sarcomas of the lung. There is inadequate evidence of carcinogenicity of chromium(III) compounds in experimental animals and humans (IARC).

Chronic exposure to hexavalent chromium compounds reportedly produces skin, eye and respiratory tract irritation, yellowing of the eyes and skin, allergic skin and respiratory reactions, diminished sense of smell and

taste, blood disorders, liver and kidney damage, digestive disorders and lung damage. There is sufficient evidence of carcinogenicity of chromium(VI) compounds in experimental animals and humans to confirm these as Class 1 carcinogens (IARC).

Exposure to chromium during chrome production and in the chrome pigment industry is associated with cancer of the respiratory tract. A slight increase in gastrointestinal cancer following exposure to chromium compounds has also been reported. The greatest risk is attributed to exposure to acid-soluble, water-insoluble hexavalent chromium which occurs in roasting and refining processes. Animal studies support the idea that the most potent carcinogenic compounds are the slightly soluble hexavalent compounds. The cells are more active in the uptake of the hexavalent forms compared to trivalent forms and this may explain the difference in occupational effect. It is the trivalent form, however, which is metabolically active and binds with nucleic acid within the cell suggesting that chromium mutagenesis first requires biotransformation of the hexavalent form by reduction.

Hexavalent chromes produce chronic ulceration of skin surfaces (quite independent of other hypersensitivity reactions exhibited by the skin).

Water-soluble chromium(VI) compounds come close to the top of any published "hit list" of contact allergens (eczematogens) producing positive results in 4 to 10% of tested individuals. On the other hand only chromium(III) compounds can bind to high molecular weight carriers such as proteins to form a complete allergen (such as a hapten). Chromium(VI) compounds cannot. It is assumed that reduction must take place for such compounds to manifest any contact sensitivity. The apparent contradiction that chromium(VI) salts cause allergies to chromium(III) compounds but that allergy to chromium(III) compounds is difficult to demonstrate is accounted for by the different solubilities and skin penetration of these compounds. Water-soluble chromium(VI) salts penetrate the horny layer of the skin more readily than chromium(III) compounds which are bound by cross-linking in the horny layer ("tanning", as for leather) and therefore do not reach the cells involved in antigen processing.

Pure calcium carbonate does not produce pneumoconiosis probably being eliminated from the lungs slowly by solution.

As mined, unsterilised particulates can carry bacteria into the air passages and lungs, producing infection and bronchitis.

High blood concentrations of calcium ion may give rise to vasodilation and depress cardiac function leading to hypotension and syncope.

Calcium ions enhance the effects of digitalis on the heart and may precipitate digitalis intoxication. Calcium salts also reduce the absorption of tetracyclines

In neonates calcification of soft-tissue has been observed following therapeutic administration.

Some studies show that large quantities of calcium intake can cause hypercalcaemia, which can in turn lead to renal failure. Renal failure can occur within hours or days or, alternatively, settles gradually, evolving over several years until it reaches terminal stages. Similarly, acute renal failure can also develop into chronic forms of the disease.

Hypercalcaemia conditions can be associated with normal or reduced calcium serum levels, as the body tends to maintain a balanced metabolism of the mineral, known as the compensation phase. When there is a slight increase in the concentration of ions in the blood, calcium excretion markedly increases, while intestinal absorption decreases. After kidney damage has set in, a loss of calcium may occur, thereby decreasing the serum concentration.

Serum protein levels may decrease as a result of proteinuria in cases of renal complications. Proteinuria is an indicator of kidney disease and represents an independent risk factor for the progression of such a condition. Increased serum creatinine levels may represent an important parameter, given that kidney diseases are associated with increased serum creatinine levels. When renal pathology occurs, a progressive loss of glomerular filtration begins, resulting in increased plasma creatinine concentrations. During the course of kidney failure, discrete, but constant, increments in plasma creatinine levels occur.

Renal disease with albuminuria may also be the cause of hypoalbuminemia in patients with liver disease. In cases of established liver damage, increased calcium urinary excretion may occur. Therefore, a similar increase may cause the decline in serum calcium levels in the current study.

Long term exposure to the dusts of titanium and several of its compounds produces chronic lung disease (fibrosis) in animals. Radiological evidence exists amongst titanium dioxide workers suggesting chronic lung changes which resemble a slight form of silicosis. Workers chronically exposed to titanium or titanium dioxide dusts show a high incidence of chronic bronchitis (endobronchitis and peribronchitis).

Early stages of this disease are characterised by impaired pulmonary respiration and ventilatory capacity and by reduced blood alkalinity.

Cardiac changes characteristic of pulmonary disease (with hypertrophy of the right auricle) have also been observed amongst workers.

Titanium employed in implants has provoked immune responses which occur locally as metallosis and systemically as raised serum levels of activated T-lymphocytes. Some concern has been expressed about the potential for generating bone-resorbing mediators associated with titanium wear-debris.

The largest of the cohort studies was among white male production workers in the titanium dioxide industry in six European countries. The study indicated a slightly increased risk for lung cancer compared with the general population. However, there was no evidence of an exposure-response relationship within the cohort. No increase in the mortality rates for kidney cancer was found when the cohort was compared with the general population, but there was a suggestion of an exposure-response relationship in internal analyses. The other cohort studies, both of which were conducted in the USA, did not report an increased risk for lung cancer or cancer at any other site; no results for kidney cancer were reported, presumably because there were few cases.

One population-based case-control study conducted in Montreal did not indicate an increased risk for lung or kidney cancer.

In summary, the studies do not suggest an association between occupational exposure to titanium dioxide as it occurred in recent decades in western Europe and North America and risk for cancer.

All the studies had methodological limitations; misclassification of exposure could not be ruled out. None of the studies was designed to assess the impact of particle size (fine or ultrafine) or the potential effect of the coating compounds on the risk for lung cancer. An increased incidence of lung adenomas in rats of both sexes and of cystic keratinising lesions, diagnosed as squamous cell carcinomas in female rats, was seen in animals subject to high doses of inhaled titanium dioxide. Intratracheal delivery of titanium dioxide in combination with benz[a]pyrene produced an increase in benign and malignant tumours of the larynx, trachea and lungs in hamsters. Squamous cell carcinomas developed after exposure to 250 mg/m³ for 6 hours/day, 5 days/week for 2 years in rats; the type of carcinoma that developed was considered to be a unique experimentally induced tumour and to be of questionable relevance for extrapolation of the results to humans. Given the extremely high level of dust in the lungs, the carcinomas were postulated to be the result of saturation of the normal pulmonary clearance mechanisms. At 50 mg/m³, massive accumulations of dust-laden macrophages, foamy dust cells and free particles were considered indicative of such overload.

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. 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 home decor chalk paints	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	Not Available	Not Available
C.I. Pigment White 6	dermal (hamster) LD50: >=10000 mg/kg ^[2] Inhalation (Rat) LC50: >2.28 mg/l4h ^[1] Oral (Rat) LD50: >=2000 mg/kg ^[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1] Skin (Human): 300ug/3D (intermittent) - Mild Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]
calcium carbonate	dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg ^[1] Inhalation (Rat) LC50: >3 mg/l4h ^[1] Oral (Rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg ^[1]	Eye (Rodent - rabbit): 750ug/24H - Severe Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1] Skin (Rodent - rabbit): 500mg/24H - Moderate Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]
propylene glycol	Dermal (rabbit) LD50: 11890 mg/kg ^[2] Inhalation (Rat) LC50: >44.9 mg/l4h ^[1] Oral (Rat) LD50: 20000 mg/kg ^[2]	Eye (Rodent - rabbit): 100mg - Mild Eye (Rodent - rabbit): 500mg/24H - Mild Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1] Skin (Human - child): 30%/96H(continuous) - Moderate Skin (Human - man): 10%/2D Skin (Human - woman): 30%/96H - Mild Skin (Human): 104mg/3D (intermittent) - Moderate Skin (Human): 20% Skin (Human): 500mg/7D - Mild Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]
C.I. Pigment Blue 29	Oral (Rat) LD50: >10000 mg/kg ^[2]	Not Available
carbon black	Dermal (rabbit) LD50: >2000 mg/kg ^[1] Oral (Rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg ^[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1] Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]
C.I. Pigment Green 17	Inhalation (Rat) LC50: >5.41 mg/l4h ^[1] Oral (Rat) LD50: >5000 mg/kg ^[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1] Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]
ferric oxide	Oral (Rat) LD50: >5000 mg/kg ^[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1] Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]
ammonium hydroxide	Inhalation (Rat) LC50: 2000 ppm4h ^[2] Oral (Rat) LD50: 350 mg/kg ^[2]	Eye (Rodent - rabbit): 1mg/30S - Severe Eye (Rodent - rabbit): 250ug - Severe Eye (Rodent - rabbit): 44ug - Severe
silica crystalline - quartz	Oral (Rat) LD50: 500 mg/kg ^[2]	Not Available

	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
C.I. Pigment Orange 48	Dermal (rabbit) LD50: >2 mg/kg ^[2]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]
	Oral (Rat) LD50: >5000 mg/kg ^[2]	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]
tridecyl alcohol, ethoxylated, phosphated, potassium salt	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	Not Available	Not Available
4-nonylphenol, branched, ethoxylated	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	Oral (Rat) LD50: 1310 mg/kg ^[2]	Eye: adverse effect observed (irritating) ^[1]
		Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]
		Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]
kaolin	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	Not Available	Not Available

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

C.I. PIGMENT WHITE 6	<p>Substance has been investigated as a mutagen, tumorigen and primary irritant.</p> <p>For titanium dioxide:</p> <p>Humans can be exposed to titanium dioxide via inhalation, ingestion or dermal contact. In human lungs, the clearance kinetics of titanium dioxide is poorly characterized relative to that in experimental animals. (General particle characteristics and host factors that are considered to affect deposition and retention patterns of inhaled, poorly soluble particles such as titanium dioxide are summarized in the monograph on carbon black.) With regard to inhaled titanium dioxide, human data are mainly available from case reports that showed deposits of titanium dioxide in lung tissue as well as in lymph nodes. A single clinical study of oral ingestion of fine titanium dioxide showed particle size-dependent absorption by the gastrointestinal tract and large interindividual variations in blood levels of titanium dioxide. Studies on the application of sunscreens containing ultrafine titanium dioxide to healthy skin of human volunteers revealed that titanium dioxide particles only penetrate into the outermost layers of the stratum corneum, suggesting that healthy skin is an effective barrier to titanium dioxide. There are no studies on penetration of titanium dioxide in compromised skin.</p> <p>Respiratory effects that have been observed among groups of titanium dioxide-exposed workers include decline in lung function, pleural disease with plaques and pleural thickening, and mild fibrotic changes. However, the workers in these studies were also exposed to asbestos and/or silica.</p> <p>No data were available on genotoxic effects in titanium dioxide-exposed humans.</p> <p>Many data on deposition, retention and clearance of titanium dioxide in experimental animals are available for the inhalation route. Titanium dioxide inhalation studies showed differences — both for normalized pulmonary burden (deposited mass per dry lung, mass per body weight) and clearance kinetics — among rodent species including rats of different size, age and strain. Clearance of titanium dioxide is also affected by pre-exposure to gaseous pollutants or co-exposure to cytotoxic aerosols. Differences in dose rate or clearance kinetics and the appearance of focal areas of high particle burden have been implicated in the higher toxic and inflammatory lung responses to intratracheally instilled vs inhaled titanium dioxide particles. Experimental studies with titanium dioxide have demonstrated that rodents experience dose-dependent impairment of alveolar macrophage-mediated clearance. Hamsters have the most efficient clearance of inhaled titanium dioxide. Ultrafine primary particles of titanium dioxide are more slowly cleared than their fine counterparts.</p> <p>Titanium dioxide causes varying degrees of inflammation and associated pulmonary effects including lung epithelial cell injury, cholesterol granulomas and fibrosis. Rodents experience stronger pulmonary effects after exposure to ultrafine titanium dioxide particles compared with fine particles on a mass basis. These differences are related to lung burden in terms of particle surface area, and are considered to result from impaired phagocytosis and sequestration of ultrafine particles into the interstitium.</p> <p>Fine titanium dioxide particles show minimal cytotoxicity to and inflammatory/pro-fibrotic mediator release from primary human alveolar macrophages in vitro compared with other particles. Ultrafine titanium dioxide particles inhibit phagocytosis of alveolar macrophages in vitro at mass dose concentrations at which this effect does not occur with fine titanium dioxide. In-vitro studies with fine and ultrafine titanium dioxide and purified DNA show induction of DNA damage that is suggestive of the generation of reactive oxygen species by both particle types. This effect is stronger for ultrafine than for fine titanium oxide, and is markedly enhanced by exposure to simulated sunlight/ultraviolet light.</p> <p>Animal carcinogenicity data</p> <p>Pigmentary and ultrafine titanium dioxide were tested for carcinogenicity by oral administration in mice and rats, by inhalation in rats and female mice, by intratracheal administration in hamsters and female rats and mice, by subcutaneous injection in rats and by intraperitoneal administration in male mice and female rats.</p> <p>In one inhalation study, the incidence of benign and malignant lung tumours was increased in female rats. In another inhalation study, the incidences of lung adenomas were increased in the high-dose groups of male and female rats. Cystic keratinizing lesions that were diagnosed as squamous-cell carcinomas but re-evaluated as non-neoplastic pulmonary keratinizing cysts were also observed in the high-dose groups of female rats. Two inhalation studies in rats and one in female mice were negative.</p> <p>Intratracheally instilled female rats showed an increased incidence of both benign and malignant lung tumours following treatment with two types of titanium dioxide. Tumour incidence was not increased in intratracheally instilled hamsters and female mice.</p> <p>In-vivo studies have shown enhanced micronucleus formation in bone marrow and peripheral blood lymphocytes of intraperitoneally instilled mice. Increased Hprt mutations were seen in lung epithelial cells isolated from titanium dioxide-instilled rats. In another study, no enhanced oxidative DNA damage was observed in lung tissues of rats that were intratracheally instilled with titanium dioxide. The results of most in-vitro genotoxicity studies with titanium dioxide were negative.</p>
CALCIUM CARBONATE	No evidence of carcinogenic properties. No evidence of mutagenic or teratogenic effects.
PROPYLENE GLYCOL	<p>The acute oral toxicity of propylene glycol is very low, and large quantities are required to cause perceptible health damage in humans. Serious toxicity generally occurs only at plasma concentrations over 1 g/L, which requires extremely high intake over a relatively short period of time. It would be nearly impossible to reach toxic levels by consuming foods or supplements, which contain at most 1 g/kg of PG. Cases of propylene glycol poisoning are usually related to either inappropriate intravenous administration or accidental ingestion of large quantities by children. The potential for long-term oral toxicity is also low. Because of its low chronic oral toxicity, propylene glycol was classified by the U. S. Food and Drug Administration as "generally recognized as safe" (GRAS) for use as a direct food additive.</p> <p>Prolonged contact with propylene glycol is essentially non-irritating to the skin. Undiluted propylene glycol is minimally irritating to the eye, and can produce slight transient conjunctivitis (the eye recovers after the exposure is removed). Exposure to mists may cause eye irritation, as well as upper respiratory tract irritation. Inhalation of the propylene glycol vapours appears to present no significant hazard in ordinary applications. However, limited human experience indicates that inhalation of propylene glycol mists could be irritating to some individuals. It is therefore recommended that propylene glycol not be used in applications where inhalation exposure or human eye contact with the spray mists of these materials is likely, such as fogs for theatrical productions or antifreeze solutions for emergency eye wash stations.</p> <p>Propylene glycol is metabolised in the human body into pyruvic acid (a normal part of the glucose-metabolism process, readily converted to energy), acetic acid (handled by ethanol-metabolism), lactic acid (a normal acid generally abundant during digestion), and propionaldehyde (a potentially hazardous substance).</p> <p>Propylene glycol shows no evidence of being a carcinogen or of being genotoxic.</p>

	<p>Research has suggested that individuals who cannot tolerate propylene glycol probably experience a special form of irritation, but that they only rarely develop allergic contact dermatitis. Other investigators believe that the incidence of allergic contact dermatitis to propylene glycol may be greater than 2% in patients with eczema.</p> <p>One study strongly suggests a connection between airborne concentrations of propylene glycol in houses and development of asthma and allergic reactions, such as rhinitis or hives in children</p> <p>Another study suggested that the concentrations of PGEs (counted as the sum of propylene glycol and glycol ethers) in indoor air, particularly bedroom air, is linked to increased risk of developing numerous respiratory and immune disorders in children, including asthma, hay fever, eczema, and allergies, with increased risk ranging from 50% to 180%. This concentration has been linked to use of water-based paints and water-based system cleansers.</p> <p>Patients with vulvodynia and interstitial cystitis may be especially sensitive to propylene glycol. Women suffering with yeast infections may also notice that some over the counter creams can cause intense burning. Post menopausal women who require the use of an oestrogen cream may notice that brand name creams made with propylene glycol often create extreme, uncomfortable burning along the vulva and perianal area. Additionally, some electronic cigarette users who inhale propylene glycol vapor may experience dryness of the throat or shortness of breath. As an alternative, some suppliers will put Vegetable Glycerin in the "e-liquid" for those who are allergic (or have bad reactions) to propylene glycol.</p> <p>Adverse responses to intravenous administration of drugs which use PG as an excipient have been seen in a number of people, particularly with large dosages thereof. Responses may include "hypotension, bradycardia... QRS and T abnormalities on the ECG, arrhythmia, cardiac arrest, serum hyperosmolality, lactic acidosis, and haemolysis". A high percentage (12% to 42%) of directly-injected propylene glycol is eliminated/secreted in urine unaltered depending on dosage, with the remainder appearing in its glucuronide-form. The speed of renal filtration decreases as dosage increases, which may be due to propylene glycol's mild anesthetic / CNS-depressant -properties as an alcohol. In one case, intravenous administration of propylene glycol-suspended nitroglycerin to an elderly man may have induced coma and acidosis.</p> <p>Propylene glycol is an approved food additive for dog food under the category of animal feed and is generally recognized as safe for dogs with an LD50 of 9 mL/kg. The LD50 is higher for most laboratory animals (20 mL/kg)</p> <p>Similarly, propylene glycol is an approved food additive for human food as well. The exception is that it is prohibited for use in food for cats due to links to Heinz body anemia.</p>
C.I. PIGMENT BLUE 29	NOTE: 90 day (chronic), teratological and mutagenicity tests here all provided negative results. Animal tests have also demonstrated no skin irritation or sensitization. [IC]
CARBON BLACK	Inhalation (rat) TLo: 50 mg/m ³ /6h/90D-I Nil reported WARNING: This substance has been classified by the IARC as Group 2B: Possibly Carcinogenic to Humans.
C.I. PIGMENT GREEN 17	<p>Substance has been investigated as a mutagen in bacteria and rodents and a tumorigen by intraperitoneal, intrapleural and intratracheal administration to rats.</p> <p>The following information refers to contact allergens as a group and may not be specific to this product.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>For chrome(III) and other valence states (except hexavalent):</p> <p>For inhalation exposure, all trivalent and other chromium compounds are treated as particulates, not gases.</p> <p>The mechanisms of chromium toxicity are very complex, and although many studies on chromium are available, there is a great deal of uncertainty about how chromium exerts its toxic influence. Much more is known about the mechanisms of hexavalent chromium toxicity than trivalent chromium toxicity. There is an abundance of information available on the carcinogenic potential of chromium compounds and on the genotoxicity and mutagenicity of chromium compounds in experimental systems. The consensus from various reviews and agencies is that evidence of carcinogenicity of elemental, divalent, or trivalent chromium compounds is lacking. Epidemiological studies of workers in a number of industries (chromate production, chromate pigment production and use, and chrome plating) conclude that while occupational exposure to hexavalent chromium compounds is associated with an increased risk of respiratory system cancers (primarily bronchogenic and nasal), results from occupational exposure studies to mixtures that were mainly elemental and trivalent (ferrochromium alloy worker) were inconclusive. Studies in leather tanners, who were exposed to trivalent chromium were consistently negative. In addition to the lack of direct evidence of carcinogenicity of trivalent or elemental chromium and its compounds, the genotoxic evidence is overwhelmingly negative. The lesser potency of trivalent chromium relative to hexavalent chromium is likely related to the higher redox potential of hexavalent chromium and its greater ability to enter cells. enter cells</p> <p>The general inability of trivalent chromium to traverse membranes and thus be absorbed or reach peripheral tissue in significant amounts is generally accepted as a probable explanation for the overall absence of systemic trivalent chromium toxicity. Elemental and divalent forms of chromium are not able to traverse membranes readily either. This is not to say that elemental, divalent, or trivalent chromium compounds cannot traverse membranes and reach peripheral tissue, the mechanism of absorption is simply less efficient in comparison to absorption of hexavalent chromium compounds. Hexavalent chromium compounds exist as tetrahedral chromate anions, resembling the forms of other natural anions like sulfate and phosphate which are permeable across nonselective membranes. Trivalent chromium forms octahedral complexes which cannot easily enter through these channels, instead being absorbed via passive diffusion and phagocytosis. Although trivalent chromium is less well absorbed than hexavalent chromium, workers exposed to trivalent compounds have had detectable levels of chromium in the urine at the end of a workday. Absorbed chromium is widely distributed throughout the body via the bloodstream, and can reach the foetus. Although there is ample in vivo evidence that hexavalent chromium is efficiently reduced to trivalent chromium in the gastrointestinal tract and can be reduced to the trivalent form by ascorbate and glutathione in the lungs, there is no evidence that trivalent chromium is converted to hexavalent chromium in biological systems. In general, trivalent chromium compounds are cleared rapidly from the blood and more slowly from the tissues. Although not fully characterized, the biologically active trivalent chromium molecule appears to be chromodulin, also referred to as (GTF). Chromodulin is an oligopeptide complex containing four chromic ions. Chromodulin may facilitate interactions of insulin with its receptor site, influencing protein, glucose, and lipid metabolism. Inorganic trivalent chromium compounds, which do not appear to have insulin-potentiating properties, are capable of being converted into biologically active forms by humans and animals</p> <p>Chromium can be a potent sensitiser in a small minority of humans, both from dermal and inhalation exposures.</p> <p>The most sensitive endpoint identified in animal studies of acute exposure to trivalent chromium appears to involve the respiratory system. Specifically, acute exposure to trivalent chromium is associated with impaired lung function and lung damage.</p> <p>Based on what is known about absorption of chromium in the human body, its potential mechanism of action in cells, and occupational data indicating that valence states other than hexavalent exhibit a relative lack of toxicity the toxicity of elemental and divalent chromium compounds is expected to be similar to or less than common trivalent forms.</p>
SILICA CRYSTALLINE - QUARTZ	<p>WARNING: For inhalation exposure <u>ONLY</u>: This substance has been classified by the IARC as Group 1: CARCINOGENIC TO HUMANS</p> <p>The International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) has classified occupational exposures to respirable (<5 um) crystalline silica as being carcinogenic to humans. This classification is based on what IARC considered sufficient evidence from epidemiological studies of humans for the carcinogenicity of inhaled silica in the forms of quartz and cristobalite. Crystalline silica is also known to cause silicosis, a non-cancerous lung disease.</p> <p>Intermittent exposure produces; focal fibrosis, (pneumoconiosis), cough, dyspnoea, liver tumours.</p> <p>* Millions of particles per cubic foot (based on impinger samples counted by light field techniques).</p> <p>NOTE : the physical nature of quartz in the product determines whether it is likely to present a chronic health problem. To be a hazard the material must enter the breathing zone as respirable particles.</p>
C.I. PIGMENT ORANGE 48	Kremer Pigment SDS Cinquasia Gold, red-gold

The utility of acridines and acridones as chemotherapeutics is due to their chemical and biological stability and their capability of effective binding to DNA or RNA, resulting in the disorder of the biological functions in living cells. The mechanism of their intercalation into DNA is based on p-stacking interaction with base pairs of double-stranded nucleic acids. The heterocyclic, polyaromatic flat structure of acridine fits effectively into the gap between two chains of polynucleotides, and the intercalation of the acridine moiety disturbs their crucial role in cell division. The ability of acridines to intercalate into DNA is necessary for their antitumor activity. The strength and kinetics of binding acridine to DNA have a crucial impact on the activity of this type of anticancer agent. Examination of a large number of such derivatives proved that there is a good correlation between their strength together with the time of binding to DNA and their biological activity. Acridine derivatives perturb the function of cancer cells by decreasing the activity of some enzymes that are crucial for proper DNA actions, such as topoisomerases, telomerases and cyclin-dependent kinases.

For HIF (hypoxia-inducible factor) inhibitors

Considering that endothelial HIF-1alpha was shown to be critical for left heart adaptation to overload, systemically targeting HIFs might have unintended consequences for ventricular adaptation in pulmonary hypertension (PH). HIF-2 inhibition appeared to improve right ventricular haemodynamics over a short period, but a detailed functional analysis at later time points would be prudent.

Under normoxic conditions, HIF-1alpha and HIF-2alpha are hydroxylated by PHD (prolyl hydroxylase domain) proteins (particularly PHD2), ubiquitinated, and rapidly degraded. PHD activity becomes rate limited during hypoxia, allowing accumulation of HIF-1alpha/2alpha and induction of HIF activity.

Additionally, the observation that mice with loss of PHD2 developed severe PH should raise a cautionary flag regarding the clinical use of PHD inhibitors, which are currently in development for chronic anemia. Early clinical trials did not report any major side effects, but assessments were made based on short-term use. Serious pulmonary side effects could be possible with chronic use of PHD inhibitors.

For MCT (monocarboxylate transporter) inhibitors

The important roles exerted by MCTs in physiology call for attention on possible toxicities associated with MCT inhibitors.

In genetically engineered mouse models, a full knockout of MCT1 was found to be embryonically lethal due to neuronal defects [205].

Comparatively, a systemic MCT1 genotype and an oligodendrocyte-selective MCT1 knockdown produced living mice, but these animals had impaired axon myelination, leading to axon damage and decreased neuron survival in the central nervous system. The regeneration of motor and sensory peripheral nerves after a lesion was also delayed in MCT1 knockdown mice. These results are consistent with the decreased expression of MCT1 observed in neurodegenerative human diseases, such as amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) and Alzheimer's disease suggesting an important role of this transporter in the maintenance of axon integrity, putatively because it facilitates lactate shuttles between oligodendrocytes and neurons.

In the brain, MCT2 is preferentially expressed in neurons where it conveys lactate uptake. Adult rats injected with antisense oligonucleotides in the hippocampus showed memory defects. MCT2-deficiency did not alter short-term memory but significantly disrupted long-term memory.

Neither glucose nor lactate rescued amnesia, indicating that processes dependent on MCT2 are essential for long-term memory.

Accordingly, MCT2 expression was found to be decreased in animal models of Alzheimer's disease.

In eyes, MCT3 facilitates lactate export by the retina. It is therefore not surprising that MCT3 knockout mice developed visual defects. They were attributed to a decrease in photoreceptor currents in response to light and associated to a 4-fold increase in lactate levels in the retina and, possibly, acidification of the subretinal space. However, histological features of the eyes were preserved.

In humans, genetic polymorphisms of MCT1 impact the oxidative clearance of lactate by slow-twitching muscle fibers, with certain variants showing poorer lactate clearance during high intensity exercise.

Novel MCT1 mutations (either homozygous or heterozygous) have been identified in several patients. These resulted in recurrent and severe episodes of keto-acidosis, i.e., accumulation of ketone bodies in the blood due to an imbalance between their production in the liver and their use in peripheral tissues, possibly resulting from a decreased uptake capacity of ketone bodies by MCT1-deficient cells. Thus, keto-acidosis is important to consider upon therapeutic MCT1 inhibition as well.

For quinacridone pigments

It is considered unlikely that the quinacridone pigments of this category become systemically bioavailable after dermal or inhalation exposure.

Worker DNELs for acute exposure - local effects are not derived, because quinacridone pigments of this category have not to be classified as irritating to skin or eyes, are considered unlikely to become bioavailable in the skin and are considered not to be classified regarding respiratory tract irritation. Finally, there is no established accepted methodology for the derivation of acute toxicity DNELs existing. Apart from that, relevant occupational exposure limits for inert dusts should be applied.

Repeat dose toxicity

The toxicity of the test item, C.I. Pigment Red 122, when given by oral administration (gavage) to rats for 13 consecutive weeks at dosages of 50, 200 or 1000 mg/kg/day, and recovery from any treatment-related effects over a recovery period of 4 weeks, has been investigated. No toxicologically relevant changes were observed during the in vivo phase or at the post mortem examinations.

On the basis of these results, it could be concluded that the No Observed Adverse Effect Level (NOAEL) in this study was 1000 mg/kg/day.

Liver and blood plasma samples of male and female rats of the 1000 mg/kg bw/day group collected at the end of the exposure period were below quantifiable limit concentrations of 1.5 ug/g dried liver and 0.4 / 0.6 ppm dried blood plasma.

Genetic toxicity:

Mutagenic activity of the test item was investigated in Salmonella typhimurium strains TA 1535, TA 1537, TA98, TA100 and Escherichia coli strain WP2uvrA with (induced rat liver S9 mix) and without metabolic activation at concentrations of 3, 10, 33, 100, 333, 1000, 2500, and 5000 µg/plate using the plate incorporation assay. Additionally, a preincubation assay with or without metabolic activation was performed using the concentrations 33, 100, 333, 1000, 2500, and 5000 µg/plate.

The test item did not reveal any mutagenic activity under the conditions tested.

The test item is not mutagenic in the micronucleus test.

Toxicokinetics

In one toxicokinetic study, the radiolabelled test item (Pigment Violet 19) was administered orally to groups of male and female Fisher 344 rats by gavage. The tissue distribution of radioactivity was determined by whole body autoradiography at selected times up to 48 hours after dosing. The autoradiogram showed that radioactivity was localized only in the gastrointestinal tract of both male and female rats. No radioactivity was detected in other organs and tissues of the animals. The highest concentrations of radioactivity were found at 2 hours post dosing. Most of the radioactivity was eliminated from the rats at 24 hours and it was virtually undetected at 18 hours post-dose.

**TRIDECYL ALCOHOL,
ETHOXYLATED,
PHOSPHATED, POTASSIUM
SALT**

for alkyl alcohol alkoxyolate phosphate (AAPD) surfactants (alkyl or alcohol ether phosphates):

Acute toxicity: This group of surfactants exhibits similar effects to the alcohol ether sulfates (AAASDs) (typically sodium lauryl ether sulfate - SLES - CAS RN 68891-38-3).

They are likely to be skin/ eye irritants (R36/38) in their undiluted forms but not acutely toxic. The reported oral LD50 values were higher than 1600 mg/kg for the alkyl ether phosphates family described by CAS RN: 9046-01-9. No effects were found at any concentration tested dermally.

Commercial products may contain excess phosphoric acid and may produce serious eye irritation (R41) or may even be classified as corrosive, acidic substances.

Subchronic toxicity: Data for sulfate derivatives has been identified in the public domain. Subchronic 21-day repeat dose dietary studies showed low toxicity of compounds with carbon lengths of C12-15, C12-14 and C13-15 with sodium or ammonium alkyl ethoxylates with POE (polyoxyethylene) n=3. One study indicated that C16-18 POE n=18 had comparable low toxicity. No-observed-adverse-effect levels (NOAELs) range from 120 to 468 mg/kg/day, similar to a NOAEL from a 90-day rat gavage study with NaC12-14 POE n=2(CAS RN 68891-38-3), which was reported to be 225 mg/kg/day. In addition, another 90-day repeat dose dietary study with NaC12-15 POE n=3 (CAS RN 68424-50-0) resulted in low toxicity, with a NOAEL of greater than approximately 50 mg/kg/day (calculated based on dose of 1000 ppm in diet). Effects were usually related to hepatic hypertrophy, increased liver weight, and related increases in haematological endpoints related to liver enzyme induction.

SLES was evaluated for effects on the reproduction and prenatal/postnatal development of the rat when administered orally via the drinking water through two successive generations. Based on this study an overall no-observed-adverse-effect level (NOAEL) for systemic effects was 0.1%, which was 86.6 mg/kg/day for the F0 generation, and 149.5 mg/kg/day for the F1 generation. The NOAEL of 86.6 mg/kg/day was selected as the toxicology endpoint for the chronic risk assessment for the sulfate derivatives

Genotoxicity: Alcohol ether phosphates are unlikely to be genotoxic by analogy with their alcohol ether sulfate equivalents.

Carcinogenicity: Chronic dietary studies conducted with rats on sulfate derivatives showed no incidence of cancer and no effects at the concentrations tested (lowest dose tested was ca 75 mg/kg/day).]

Reproductive and developmental toxicity: Studies with sulfate derivatives showed little to no toxicity in dams or pups with the NOEL in a developmental toxicity study in rats with SLES at the limit dose of 1000 mg/kg/day and a reproductive NOAEL of 0.3% in drinking water

(equivalent to 300 mg/kg/day), the highest dose tested in a two-generation reproduction study. In studies with phosphate derivatives, the reproductive/ developmental NOAEL for an OECD 422 study with CAS 681340-47-2 was 800 mg/kg/day, the highest dose tested, and for CAS RN 78330-24-2 the NOEL was 200 mg/kg/day. An NOAEL of 200 mg/kg/day was selected as the toxicological endpoint for the chronic risk assessment for phosphate derivatives by the US EPA.

Both alcohol ether sulfates and phosphates have been evaluated in acute, subchronic, developmental and reproductive studies capable of detecting effects on endocrine mediated events. The results of these studies did not give any indication of a treatment-related effect on the oestrogen receptor or endocrine system.

Metabolic fate: For compounds of comparable C16 carbon chain, the metabolites of the lower molecular weight ethoxylated (POE n=3) alcohol ether sulfate surfactants are readily absorbed and excreted primarily in the urine whereas the C16 surfactants with increased ethoxylation (POE n=9) are poorly absorbed and excreted primarily in the faeces. There was also no evidence of hydrolysis of the sulfate group from C16 POE n=3 and C16 POE n=9 or of metabolism of the ethoxylate portion of the molecule. With C11 POE n=3 and C12 POE n=3 metabolic studies in rats confirmed that the alkyl chain is extensively metabolised by beta- or omega oxidation leaving the ethoxysulfate, which is excreted directly.

By analogy alcohol ether phosphate esters may initially undergo metabolism to generate the corresponding alkyl alcohol alkoxylate and POE (or POE/POP - polyoxypropylene) phosphate glycol; the dephosphorylated metabolite should be hydrolysed to the POE (or POE/POP) polyalkoxylate glycols and linear branched saturated and unsaturated alkyl alcohol metabolites. The resultant alkyl alcohol metabolites would be oxidised in fatty acid oxidation pathways. The polyalkoxylate glycols may either be conjugated and excreted unchanged or hydrolysed/oxidised to various degraded metabolites before being conjugated and excreted.

Sensitising potential: 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 ACD to these compounds by patch testing.

4-NONYLPHENOL, BRANCHED, ETHOXYLATED

for linear material: Maternal effects, effects on fertility recorded.

For nonylphenol and its compounds:

Alkylphenols like nonylphenol and bisphenol A have estrogenic effects in the body. They are known as xenoestrogens. Estrogenic substances and other endocrine disruptors are compounds that have hormone-like effects in both wildlife and humans. Xenoestrogens usually function by binding to estrogen receptors and acting competitively against natural estrogens. Nonylphenol has been found to act as an agonist of GPER (G protein-coupled estrogen receptor). Nonylphenol has been shown to mimic the natural hormone 17beta-estradiol, and it competes with the endogenous hormone for binding with the estrogen receptors ERalpha and ERbeta.

Effects in pregnant women.

Subcutaneous injections of nonylphenol in late pregnancy causes the expression of certain placental and uterine proteins, namely CaBP-9k, which suggest it can be transferred through the placenta to the fetus. It has also been shown to have a higher potency on the first trimester placenta than the endogenous estrogen 17beta-estradiol. In addition, early prenatal exposure to low doses of nonylphenol cause an increase in apoptosis (programmed cell death) in placental cells. These "low doses" ranged from 10-13-10-9 M, which is lower than what is generally found in the environment.

Nonylphenol has also been shown to affect cytokine signaling molecule secretions in the human placenta. In vitro cell cultures of human placenta during the first trimester were treated with nonylphenol, which increase the secretion of cytokines including interferon gamma, interleukin 4, and interleukin 10, and reduced the secretion of tumor necrosis factor alpha. This unbalanced cytokine profile at this part of pregnancy has been documented to result in implantation failure, pregnancy loss, and other complications.

Effects on metabolism

Nonylphenol has been shown to act as an obesity enhancing chemical or obesogen, though it has paradoxically been shown to have anti-obesity properties. Growing embryos and newborns are particularly vulnerable when exposed to nonylphenol because low-doses can disrupt sensitive processes that occur during these important developmental periods. Prenatal and perinatal exposure to nonylphenol has been linked with developmental abnormalities in adipose tissue and therefore in metabolic hormone synthesis and release. Specifically, by acting as an estrogen mimic, nonylphenol has generally been shown to interfere with hypothalamic appetite control. The hypothalamus responds to the hormone leptin, which signals the feeling of fullness after eating, and nonylphenol has been shown to both increase and decrease eating behavior by interfering with leptin signaling in the midbrain. Nonylphenol has been shown to mimic the action of leptin on neuropeptide Y and anorectic POMC neurons, which has an anti-obesity effect by decreasing eating behavior. This was seen when estrogen or estrogen mimics were injected into the ventromedial hypothalamus. On the other hand, nonylphenol has been shown to increase food intake and have obesity enhancing properties by lowering the expression of these anorexigenic neurons in the brain. Additionally, nonylphenol affects the expression of ghrelin: an enzyme produced by the stomach that stimulates appetite. Ghrelin expression is positively regulated by estrogen signaling in the stomach, and it is also important in guiding the differentiation of stem cells into adipocytes (fat cells). Thus, acting as an estrogen mimic, prenatal and perinatal exposure to nonylphenol has been shown to increase appetite and encourage the body to store fat later in life. Finally, long-term exposure to nonylphenol has been shown to affect insulin signaling in the liver of adult male rats.

Cancer

Nonylphenol exposure has also been associated with breast cancer. It has been shown to promote the proliferation of breast cancer cells, due to its agonistic activity on ERalpha (estrogen receptor alpha) in estrogen-dependent and estrogen-independent breast cancer cells. Some argue that nonylphenol's suggested estrogenic effect coupled with its widespread human exposure could potentially influence hormone-dependent breast cancer disease.

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 TGBE 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

	<p>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.</p> <p>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. TGME 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).</p> <p>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.</p> <p>for nonylphenol: Nonylphenol was studied for oral toxicity in rats in a 28-day repeat dose toxicity test at doses of 0, 4, 15, 60 and 250 mg/kg/day. Changes suggesting renal dysfunction were mainly noted in both sexes given 250 mg/kg. Liver weights were increased in males given 60 mg/kg and in both sexes given 250 mg/kg group. Histopathologically, hypertrophy of the centrilobular hepatocytes was noted in both sexes given 250 mg/kg. Kidney weights were increased in males given 250 mg/kg and macroscopically, disseminated white spots, enlargement and pelvic dilatation were noted in females given 250 mg/kg. Histopathologically, the following lesions were noted in the 250 mg/kg group: basophilic change of the proximal tubules in both sexes, single cell necrosis of the proximal tubules, inflammatory cell infiltration in the interstitium and casts in females, basophilic change and dilatation of the collecting tubules in both sexes, simple hyperplasia of the pelvic mucosa and pelvic dilatation in females. In the urinary bladder, simple hyperplasia was noted in both sexes given 250 mg/kg. In the caecum, macroscopic dilatation was noted in both sexes given 250 mg/kg. Almost all changes except those in the kidney disappeared after a 14-day recovery period. The NOELs for males and females are considered to be 15 mg/kg/day and 60 mg/kg/day, respectively, under the conditions of the present study.</p> <p>Nonylphenol was not mutagenic to Salmonella typhimurium, TA100, TA1535, TA98, TA1537 and Escherichia coli WP2 uvrA, with or without an exogenous metabolic activation system.</p> <p>Nonylphenol induced neither structural chromosomal aberrations nor polyploidy in CHL/IU cells, in the absence or presence of an exogenous metabolic activation system.</p> <p>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 epidermis. Histologically there may be intercellular oedema of the spongy layer (spongiosis) and intracellular oedema of the epidermis.</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">KAOLIN</p>	<p>for bentonite clays: Bentonite (CAS No. 1302-78-9) consists of a group of clays formed by crystallisation of vitreous volcanic ashes that were deposited in water. The expected acute oral toxicity of bentonite in humans is very low (LD50>15 g/kg). However, severe anterior segment inflammation, uveitis and retrocorneal abscess from eye exposure were reported when bentonite had been used as a prophylactic.</p> <p>In a 33 day dietary (2 and 6%) and a 90 day dietary (1, 3 and 5%) studies in chickens, no changes in behaviour, overall state, clinical and biochemical parameters and electrolytic composition of the blood. Repeat dietary administration of bentonite did not affect calcium or phosphorus metabolism. However, larger amounts caused decreased growth, muscle weakness, and death with marked changes in both calcium and phosphorus metabolism.</p> <p>Bentonite did not cause fibrosis after 1 year exposure of 60 mg dust (<5 um) in a rat study. However, in a second rat study, where 5 um particles were intratracheally instilled at 5, 15 and 45 mg/rat, dose-related fibrosis was observed. Bentonite clay dust is believed to be responsible for bronchial asthma in workers at a processing plant in USA.</p> <p>Ingestion of bentonite without adequate liquids may result in intestinal obstruction in humans.</p> <p>Hypokalaemia and microcytic iron-deficiency anaemia may occur in patients after repeat doses of clay. Chronic ingestion has been reported to cause myositis.</p>
<p>C.I. PIGMENT WHITE 6 & C.I. PIGMENT GREEN 17</p>	<p>The substance is classified by IARC as Group 3: NOT classifiable as to its carcinogenicity to humans. Evidence of carcinogenicity may be inadequate or limited in animal testing.</p>
<p>CALCIUM CARBONATE & FERRIC OXIDE & AMMONIUM HYDROXIDE</p>	<p>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.</p>
<p>CALCIUM CARBONATE & AMMONIUM HYDROXIDE & 4-NONYLPHENOL, BRANCHED, ETHOXYLATED</p>	<p>The material may produce severe irritation to the eye causing pronounced inflammation. Repeated or prolonged exposure to irritants may produce conjunctivitis.</p>
<p>CALCIUM CARBONATE & PROPYLENE GLYCOL</p>	<p>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.</p>
<p>CARBON BLACK & TRIDECYL ALCOHOL, ETHOXYLATED, PHOSPHATED, POTASSIUM SALT & KAOLIN</p>	<p>No significant acute toxicological data identified in literature search.</p>
<p>TRIDECYL ALCOHOL, ETHOXYLATED, PHOSPHATED, POTASSIUM SALT & 4-NONYLPHENOL, BRANCHED, ETHOXYLATED</p>	<p>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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>Allergic Contact Dermatitis—Formation, Structural Requirements, and Reactivity of Skin Sensitizers. Ann-Therese Karlberg et al; Chem. Res. Toxicol.2008,21,53-69</p> <p>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.</p>

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

<https://doi.org/10.5487/TR.2015.31.2.105>

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 home decor chalk paints	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
C.I. Pigment White 6	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	BCF	1008h	Fish	<1.1-9.6	7
	EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	3.75-7.58mg/l	4
	EC50	48h	Crustacea	1.9mg/l	2
	LC50	96h	Fish	1.85-3.06mg/l	4
	NOEC(ECx)	672h	Fish	>=0.004mg/L	2
calcium carbonate	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	>14mg/l	2
	LC50	96h	Fish	>165200mg/L	4
propylene glycol	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	19300mg/l	2
	EC50	48h	Crustacea	>114.4mg/L	4
	LC50	96h	Fish	710mg/L	4
	EC50	96h	Algae or other aquatic plants	19000mg/l	2
C.I. Pigment Blue 29	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	LC50	96h	Fish	000mg/l	Not Available
carbon black	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	>0.2mg/l	2
	EC50	48h	Crustacea	33.076-41.968mg/l	4
	LC50	96h	Fish	>100mg/l	2
C.I. Pigment Green 17	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	NOEC(ECx)	24h	Crustacea	3200mg/l	1
	EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.013mg/L	2
	EC50	48h	Crustacea	3.24mg/l	2
	EC10(ECx)	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	<0.001mg/L	2
LC50	96h	Fish	>0.001mg/L	2	

	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	ferric oxide	EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	18mg/l
EC50		48h	Crustacea	>100mg/l	2
NOEC(ECx)		504h	Fish	0.52mg/l	2
LC50		96h	Fish	0.05mg/l	2
ammonium hydroxide	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	LC50	96h	Fish	33.3mg/L	4
silica crystalline - quartz	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Orange 48	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	>10mg/l	2
	NOEC(ECx)	504h	Crustacea	>0.02mg/l	2
	EC50	48h	Crustacea	>100mg/l	2
	LC50	96h	Fish	>100mg/l	2
	EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	>100mg/l	2
	EC50	48h	Crustacea	>100mg/l	2
tridecyl alcohol, ethoxylated, phosphated, potassium salt	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
4-nonylphenol, branched, ethoxylated	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	19.485mg/l	2
	EC50	48h	Crustacea	14mg/l	2
	NOEC(ECx)	96h	Algae or other aquatic plants	8mg/l	2
	LC50	96h	Fish	>10mg/l	2
kaolin	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Legend:	<i>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</i>				

Toxic to aquatic organisms.

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.

Calcium provides an important link between tectonics, climate and the carbon cycle. In the simplest terms, uplift of mountains exposes Ca-bearing rocks to chemical weathering and releases Ca²⁺ into surface water. This Ca²⁺ eventually is transported to the ocean where it reacts with dissolved CO₂ to form limestone. Some of this limestone settles to the sea floor where it is incorporated into new rocks. Dissolved CO₂, along with carbonate and bicarbonate ions, are referred to as dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC).

For copper:

Atmospheric Fate - Copper is unlikely to accumulate in the atmosphere due to a short residence time for airborne copper aerosols. Airborne coppers, however, may be transported over large distances. Air Quality Standards: no data available.

Aquatic Fate: Toxicity of copper is affected by pH and hardness of water. Total copper is rarely useful as a predictor of toxicity. In natural sea water, more than 98% of copper is organically bound and in river waters a high percentage is often organically bound, but the actual percentage depends on the river water and its pH.

Ecotoxicity: Copper accumulates significantly in the food chain. The toxic effect of copper in the aquatic biota depends on the bio-availability of copper in water which, in turn, depends on its physico-chemical form (i.e. speciation). Bioavailability is decreased by complexation and adsorption of copper by natural organic matter, iron and manganese hydrated oxides, and chelating agents excreted by algae and other aquatic organisms. Copper exhibits significant toxicity in some aquatic organisms. Some algal species are very sensitive to copper. Silicate, iron, manganese and EDTA may reduce bioavailability.

Bentonite and kaolin have low toxicity to aquatic species, a large number of which have been tested

For copper: Ecotoxicity - Significant effects are expected on various species of microalgae, some species of macroalgae, and a range of invertebrates, including crustaceans, gastropods and sea urchins. Copper is moderately toxic to crab and their larvae and is highly toxic to gastropods (mollusks, including oysters, mussels and clams). In fish, the acute lethal concentrations of copper depends both on test species and exposure conditions. Waters with high concentrations of copper can have significant effects on diatoms and sensitive invertebrates, notably cladocerans (water fleas). Most taxonomic groups of macroalgae and invertebrates will be severely affected.

For Copper: Typical foliar levels of copper are: Uncontaminated soils (0.3-250 mg/kg) ; Contaminated soils (150-450 mg/kg) ; Mining/smelting soils (6.1-25 mg/kg/80 mg/kg/300 mg/kg).

Terrestrial Fate: Plants - Generally, vegetation reflects soil copper levels in its foliage. This is dependent upon the bioavailability of copper and the physiological requirements of species concerned. Crops are often more sensitive to copper than the native flora. Soil: In soil, copper levels are raised by application of fertilizer, fungicides, from deposition of highway dusts and from urban, mining and industrial sources. Chronic and or acute effects on sensitive species occur as a result of human activities such as copper fertilizer addition and addition of sludge. When soil levels exceed 150 mg Cu/kg, native and agricultural species show chronic effects. Soils in the range 500-1000 mg Cu/kg act in a strongly selective fashion allowing the survival of only copper-tolerant species and strains. At 2000 Cu mg/kg, most species cannot survive. By 3500 mg Cu/kg, areas are largely devoid of vegetation cover. The organic content of the soil appears to be a key factor affecting the bioavailability of copper. On normal forest soils, non-rooted plants such as mosses and lichens show higher copper concentrations. The fruiting bodies and mycorrhizal sheaths of soil fungi associated with higher plants in forests often accumulate copper to much higher levels than plants at the same site.

For Metal:

Atmospheric Fate - Metal-containing inorganic substances generally have negligible vapour pressure and are not expected to partition to air.

Environmental Fate: Environmental processes, such as oxidation, the presence of acids or bases and microbiological processes, may transform insoluble metals to more soluble ionic forms. Environmental processes may enhance bioavailability and may also be important in changing solubilities.

Aquatic/Terrestrial Fate: When released to dry soil, most metals will exhibit limited mobility and remain in the upper layer; some will leach locally into ground water and/ or surface water ecosystems when soaked by rain or melt ice. A metal ion is considered infinitely persistent because it cannot degrade further. Once released to surface waters and moist soils their fate depends on solubility and dissociation in water. A significant proportion of dissolved/ sorbed metals will end up in sediments through the settling of suspended particles. The remaining metal ions can then be taken up by aquatic organisms. Ionic species may bind to dissolved ligands or sorb to solid particles in water.

Ecotoxicity: Even though many metals show few toxic effects at physiological pH levels, transformation may introduce new or magnified effects.

for organic pigments:

With only a few recognised exceptions, color pigments, both organic and inorganic, are extremely insoluble in water and in the vehicles in which they are mixed. Colour pigments are not, therefore, a threat to the environment when disposed of with solid waste in appropriate lined landfills. Colour pigments are further protected from leaching into groundwater by the plastics, paints and inks that make up the final products incorporating colour pigments.

As pigments are designed to be chemically and photolytically stable, they are highly persistent in natural environments. Many pigments are visible in water at concentrations as low as 1 mg/l. Waste waters, typically with a pigment content in the range 10- 200 mg /l, are therefore usually highly coloured and discharge in open waters presents an aesthetic problem.

The high Log Kow and Koc values indicate that these substance will likely partition to soil and sediments. Modelling results indicate that if these chemical are released equally into the three major environmental compartments (air, water and soil), they will mainly partition into soil and sediments where they will persist.

Organic Pigments generally have high estimated values of log Koc and are expected show high absorptivity to soils; they are therefore expected to be immobile. Furthermore the very low estimated vapour pressure and Henry's Law Constants indicate that volatilisation will not occur from soil surfaces, and the low water solubility indicates indicates they will not be mobilised from the soil phase.

As a result of extreme insolubility, these compounds are non-toxic and very low in bioavailability. In the literature, there are three published summaries concerning the acute toxicity of pigments. The vast majority of these LD50 values are above 5000 mg/kg and no LD50 values for pigments are known to be below 2000 mg/kg. As such, when compared to other compounds, organic pigments are not assigned a high regulatory priority based on toxicity.

Due to their extremely low solubility, in both lipids and water, organic pigments are not bioaccumulative nor do they bioconcentrate in the food chain. This has been shown by extensive tests which have indicated that, even though log Kow values for organic pigments may be calculated at levels that would signal concern, in actual tests, organic pigments do not exhibit any potential to bioaccumulate.

The chemical processes underlying degradation and/ or destruction of organic pigments through light or atmospheric conditions are difficult to elucidate. Atmospheric contaminants such as peroxides, which appear as the products of radiation frequently initiate the degradation process.

For the most part organic pigments do not seem to be biodegradable, neither readily nor inherently.

As an example, the azo linkage of azo dyes, but not of azo pigments, may undergo metabolic cleavage resulting in free component aromatic amines. Azo pigments are, due to their very low solubility in water, in practice, not available for metabolic activity. Consequently, metabolic cleavage to the component aromatic amines has not been found for the pigments.

Chromium in the oxidation state +3 (the trivalent form) is poorly absorbed by cells found in microorganisms, plants and animals. Chromate anions (CrO₄⁻, oxidation state +6, the hexavalent form) are readily transported into cells and toxicity is closely linked to the higher oxidation state.

Chromium Ecotoxicology:

Toxicity in Aquatic Organisms:

Chromium is harmful to aquatic organisms in very low concentrations. Fish food organisms are very sensitive to low levels of chromium. Chromium is toxic to fish although less so in warm water. Marked decreases in toxicity are found with increasing pH or water hardness; changes in salinity have little if any effect. Chromium appears to make fish more susceptible to infection. High concentrations can damage and/or accumulate in various fish tissues and in invertebrates such as snails and worms.

Reproduction of Daphnia is affected by exposure to 0.01 mg/kg hexavalent chromium/litre

Toxicity of chromium in fresh-water organisms (50% mortality)*

Compound	Category	Exposure	Toxicity Range (mg/litre)	Most sensitive species
hexavalent chrome	invertebrate	acute	0.067-59.9	scud
		long-term	-	-
	vertebrate	acute	17.6-249	fathead minnow
		long-term	0.265-2.0	rainbow trout
trivalent chrome	invertebrate	acute	2.0-64.0	cladoceran
		long-term	0.066	cladoceran
	vertebrate	acute	33.0-71.9	guppy
		long-term	1.0	fathead minnow

* from Environmental Health Criteria 61: WHO Publication.

Toxicity in Microorganisms:

In general, toxicity for most microorganisms occurs in the range of 0.05-5 mg chromium/kg of medium. Trivalent chromium is less toxic than the hexavalent form. The main signs of toxicity are inhibition of growth and the inhibition of various metabolic processes such as photosynthesis or protein synthesis. Gram-negative soil bacteria are generally more sensitive to hexavalent chromium (1-12 mg/kg) than the gram-positive types. Toxicity to trivalent chromium is not observed at similar levels. The toxicity of low levels of hexavalent chromium (1 mg/kg) indicates that soil microbial transformation, such as nitrification, may be affected. Chromium should not be introduced to municipal sewage treatment facilities.

Toxicity in Plants: Chromium in high concentrations can be toxic for plants. The main feature of chromium intoxication is chlorosis, which is similar to iron deficiency. Chromium affects carbohydrate metabolism and leaf chlorophyll concentration decreases with hexavalent chromium concentration (0.01-1 mg/l). The hexavalent form appears to more toxic than the trivalent species.

Biological half-life: The elimination curve for chromium, as measured by whole-body counting, has an exponential form. In rats, three different components of the curve have been identified, with half-lives of 0.5, 5.9 and 83.4 days, respectively.

Water Standards: Chromium is identified as a hazardous substance in the Federal (U.S.) Water Pollution Control Act and further regulated by Clean Air Water Act Amendments (US). These regulations apply to discharge. The US Primary drinking water Maximum Contaminant Level (MCL), for chromium, is 0.05 mg/l (total chromium).

Since chromium compounds cannot volatilize from water, transport of chromium from water to the atmosphere is not likely, except by transport in windblown sea sprays. Most of the chromium released into water will ultimately be deposited in the sediment. A very small percentage of chromium can be present in water in both soluble and insoluble forms. Soluble chromium generally accounts for a very small percentage of the total chromium. Most of the soluble chromium is present as chromium(VI) and soluble chromium(III) complexes. In the aquatic phase, chromium(III) occurs mostly as suspended solids adsorbed onto clayish materials, organics, or iron oxide (Fe₂O₃) present in water. Soluble forms and suspended chromium can undergo intramedia transport. Chromium(VI) in water will eventually be reduced to chromium(III) by organic matter in the water.

The reduction of chromium(VI) and the oxidation of chromium(III) in water has been investigated. The reduction of chromium(VI) by S⁻² or Fe⁺² ions under anaerobic conditions was fast, and the reduction half-life ranged from instantaneous to a few days. However, the reduction of chromium(VI) by organic sediments and soils was much slower and depended on the type and amount of organic material and on the redox condition of the water. The reaction was generally faster under anaerobic than aerobic conditions. The reduction half-life of chromium(VI) in water with soil and sediment ranged from 4 to 140 day. Dissolved oxygen by itself in natural waters did not cause any measurable oxidation of chromium(III) to chromium(VI) in 128 days. When chromium(III) was added to lake water, a slow oxidation of chromium(III) to chromium(VI) occurred, corresponding to an oxidation half-life of nine years. The oxidation of chromium(III) to chromium(VI) during chlorination of water was highest in the pH range of 5.5-7.0. However, the process would rarely occur during chlorination of drinking water because of the low concentrations of chromium(III) in these waters, and the presence of naturally occurring organics that may protect chromium(III) from oxidation, either by forming strong complexes with chromium(III) or by acting as a reducing agent to free available chlorine.

The bioconcentration factor (BCF) for chromium(VI) in rainbow trout (*Salmo gairdneri*) is 1. In bottom feeder bivalves, such as the oyster (*Crassostrea virginica*), blue mussel (*Mytilus edulis*), and soft shell clam (*Mya arenaria*), the BCF values for chromium(III) and chromium(VI) may range from 86 to 192.

The bioavailability of chromium(III) to freshwater invertebrates (*Daphnia pulex*) decreased with the addition of humic acid. This decrease in bioavailability was attributed to lower availability of the free form of the metal due to its complexation with humic acid. Based on this information, chromium is not expected to biomagnify in the aquatic food chain.

Although higher concentrations of chromium have been reported in plants growing in high chromium-containing soils (e.g., soil near ore deposits or chromium-emitting industries and soil fertilized by sewage sludge) compared with plants growing in normal soils, most of the increased uptake in plants is retained in roots, and only a small fraction is translocated in the aboveground part of edible plants. Therefore, bioaccumulation of chromium from soil

Continued...

to above-ground parts of plants is unlikely. There is no indication of biomagnification of chromium along the terrestrial food chain (soil-plant-animal).

The fate of chromium in soil is greatly dependent upon the speciation of chromium, which is a function of redox potential and the pH of the soil. In most soils, chromium will be present predominantly in the chromium(III) state. This form has very low solubility and low reactivity resulting in low mobility in the environment and low toxicity in living organisms. Under oxidizing conditions chromium(VI) may be present in soil as CrO_4^{2-} and HCrO_4^- . In this form, chromium is relatively soluble, mobile, and toxic to living organisms. In deeper soil where anaerobic conditions exist, chromium(VI) will be reduced to chromium(III) by S^{2-} and Fe^{2+} present in soil. The reduction of chromium(VI) to chromium(III) is possible in aerobic soils that contain appropriate organic energy sources to carry out the redox reaction. The reduction of chromium(VI) to chromium(III) is facilitated by low pH. From thermodynamic considerations, chromium(VI) may exist in the aerobic zone of some natural soil. The oxidation of chromium(III) to chromium(VI) in soil is facilitated by the presence of low oxidisable organic substances, oxygen, manganese dioxide, and moisture. Organic forms of chromium(III) (e.g., humic acid complexes) are more easily oxidised than insoluble oxides. Because most chromium(III) in soil is immobilized due to adsorption and complexation with soil materials, the barrier to this oxidation process is the lack of availability of mobile chromium(III) to immobile manganese dioxide in soil surfaces. Due to this lack of availability of mobile chromium(III) to manganese dioxide surfaces, a large portion of chromium in soil will not be oxidized to chromium(VI), even in the presence of manganese dioxide and favorable pH conditions. The microbial reduction of chromium(VI) to chromium(III) has been discussed as a possible remediation technique in heavily contaminated environmental media or wastes. Factors affecting the microbial reduction of chromium(VI) to chromium(III) include biomass concentration, initial chromium(VI) concentration, temperature, pH, carbon source, oxidation-reduction potential and the presence of both oxyanions and metal cations. Although high levels of chromium(VI) are toxic to most microbes, several resistant bacterial species have been identified which could ultimately be employed in remediation strategies.

Chromium in soil is present mainly as insoluble oxide $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$, and is not very mobile in soil. A leachability study was conducted to study the mobility of chromium in soil. Due to different pH values, a complicated adsorption process was observed and chromium moved only slightly in soil. Chromium was not found in the leachate from soil, possibly because it formed complexes with organic matter. These results support previous data finding that chromium is not very mobile in soil. These results are supported by leachability investigation in which chromium mobility was studied for a period of 4 years in a sandy loam. The vertical migration pattern of chromium in this soil indicated that after an initial period of mobility, chromium forms insoluble complexes and little leaching is observed. Flooding of soils and the subsequent anaerobic decomposition of plant detritus matters may increase the mobilization of chromium(III) in soils due to formation of soluble complexes. This complexation may be facilitated by a lower soil pH. A smaller percentage of total chromium in soil exists as soluble chromium(VI) and chromium(III), which are more mobile in soil. The mobility of soluble chromium in soil will depend on the sorption characteristics of the soil. The relative retention of metals by soil is in the order of lead > antimony > copper > chromium > zinc > nickel > cobalt > cadmium. The sorption of chromium to soil depends primarily on the clay content of the soil and, to a lesser extent, on Fe_2O_3 and the organic content of soil. Chromium that is irreversibly sorbed onto soil, for example, in the interstitial lattice of goethite, FeOOH , will not be bioavailable to plants and animals under any condition. Organic matter in soil is expected to convert soluble chromate, chromium(VI), to insoluble chromium(III) oxide, Cr_2O_3 . Chromium in soil may be transported to the atmosphere as an aerosol. Surface runoff from soil can transport both soluble and bulk precipitate of chromium to surface water. Soluble and unadsorbed chromium(VI) and chromium(III) complexes in soil may leach into groundwater. The leachability of chromium(VI) in the soil increases as the pH of the soil increases. On the other hand, lower pH present in acid rain may facilitate leaching of acid-soluble chromium(III) and chromium(VI) compounds in soil.

Chromium has a low mobility for translocation from roots to aboveground parts of plants. However, depending on the geographical areas where the plants are grown, the concentration of chromium in aerial parts of certain plants may differ by a factor of 2?3.

In the atmosphere, chromium(VI) may be reduced to chromium(III) at a significant rate by vanadium (V^{2+} , V^{3+} , and VO_2^+), Fe^{2+} , HSO_3^- , and As_3^+ . Conversely, chromium(III), if present as a salt other than Cr_2O_3 , may be oxidized to chromium(VI) in the atmosphere in the presence of at least 1% manganese oxide. However, this reaction is unlikely under most environmental conditions. The estimated atmospheric half-life for chromium(VI) reduction to chromium(III) was reported in the range of 16 hours to about 5 days. Microbial methylation plays important roles in the biogeochemical cycling of the metalloids and possibly in their detoxification. Many microorganisms (bacteria, fungi, and yeasts) and animals are now known to biomethylate arsenic, forming both volatile (e.g., methylarsines) and nonvolatile (e.g., methylarsonic acid and dimethylarsinic acid) compounds. Antimony and bismuth, also undergo biomethylation to some extent. Trimethylstibine formation by microorganisms is now well established, but this process apparently does not occur in animals. Formation of trimethylbismuth by microorganisms has been reported in a few cases.

Sulfide ion is very toxic to aquatic life, threshold concentration for fresh or saltwater fish is 0.5ppm. The product therefore is very toxic to aquatic life. The major decomposition product, hydrogen sulfide, is damaging to vegetation at 5ppm for 24 hours.

For Ammonia:

Atmospheric Fate: Ammonia reacts rapidly with available acids (mainly sulfuric, nitric, and sometimes hydrochloric acid) to form the corresponding salts. Ammonia is persistent in the air.

Aquatic Fate: Biodegrades rapidly to nitrate, producing a high oxygen demand. Non-persistent in water (half-life 2 days).

Ecotoxicity: Moderately toxic to fish under normal temperature and pH conditions and harmful to aquatic life at low concentrations. Does not concentrate in food chain.

DO NOT discharge into sewer or waterways.

Persistence and degradability

Ingredient	Persistence: Water/Soil	Persistence: Air
C.I. Pigment White 6	HIGH	HIGH
propylene glycol	LOW	LOW
C.I. Pigment Orange 48	HIGH	HIGH

Bioaccumulative potential

Ingredient	Bioaccumulation
C.I. Pigment White 6	LOW (BCF = 10)
propylene glycol	LOW (BCF = 1)
C.I. Pigment Orange 48	LOW (LogKOW = 1.377)

Mobility in soil

Ingredient	Mobility
C.I. Pigment White 6	LOW (Log KOC = 23.74)
propylene glycol	HIGH (Log KOC = 1)
C.I. Pigment Orange 48	LOW (Log KOC = 3827)

SECTION 13 Disposal considerations

Waste treatment methods

Product / Packaging disposal	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Containers may still present a chemical hazard/ danger when empty. ▶ Return to supplier for reuse/ recycling if possible. <p>Otherwise:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ 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. <p>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.</p> <p>A Hierarchy of Controls seems to be common - the user should investigate:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Reduction ▶ Reuse ▶ Recycling ▶ Disposal (if all else fails) <p>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</p>

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.

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
C.I. Pigment White 6	Not Available
calcium carbonate	Not Available
propylene glycol	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Blue 29	Not Available
carbon black	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Green 17	Not Available
ferric oxide	Not Available
ammonium hydroxide	Not Available
silica crystalline - quartz	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Orange 48	Not Available
tridecyl alcohol, ethoxylated, phosphated, potassium salt	Not Available
4-nonylphenol, branched, ethoxylated	Not Available
kaolin	Not Available

14.7.3. Transport in bulk in accordance with the IGC Code

Product name	Ship Type
C.I. Pigment White 6	Not Available
calcium carbonate	Not Available
propylene glycol	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Blue 29	Not Available
carbon black	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Green 17	Not Available
ferric oxide	Not Available
ammonium hydroxide	Not Available
silica crystalline - quartz	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Orange 48	Not Available
tridecyl alcohol, ethoxylated, phosphated, potassium salt	Not Available
4-nonylphenol, branched, ethoxylated	Not Available
kaolin	Not Available

SECTION 15 Regulatory information

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

C.I. Pigment White 6 is found on the following regulatory lists

Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)

Chemical Footprint Project - Chemicals of High Concern List

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

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

Continued...

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

calcium carbonate is found on the following regulatory lists

Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)

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

propylene glycol is found on the following regulatory lists

Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)

C.I. Pigment Blue 29 is found on the following regulatory lists

Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)

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

carbon black is found on the following regulatory lists

Australia Hazardous Chemical Information System (HCIS) - Hazardous Chemicals

Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)

Chemical Footprint Project - Chemicals of High Concern List

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

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

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

C.I. Pigment Green 17 is found on the following regulatory lists

Australia Model Work Health and Safety Regulations - Hazardous chemicals (other than lead) requiring health monitoring

Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)

International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) - Agents Classified by the IARC Monographs - Not Classified as Carcinogenic

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

ferric oxide is found on the following regulatory lists

Australia Standard for the Uniform Scheduling of Medicines and Poisons (SUSMP) - Schedule 4

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

Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)

International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) - Agents Classified by the IARC Monographs - Not Classified as Carcinogenic

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

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)

silica crystalline - quartz is found on the following regulatory lists

Australia Hazardous Chemical Information System (HCIS) - Hazardous Chemicals

Australia Model Work Health and Safety Regulations - Hazardous chemicals (other than lead) requiring health monitoring

Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)

Chemical Footprint Project - Chemicals of High Concern List

International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) - Agents Classified by the IARC Monographs - Group 1: Carcinogenic to humans

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

C.I. Pigment Orange 48 is found on the following regulatory lists

Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)

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

tridecyl alcohol, ethoxylated, phosphated, potassium salt is found on the following regulatory lists

Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)

4-nonylphenol, branched, ethoxylated is found on the following regulatory lists

Australia Hazardous Chemical Information System (HCIS) - Hazardous Chemicals

Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)

Chemical Footprint Project - Chemicals of High Concern List

kaolin is found on the following regulatory lists

Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)

Chemical Footprint Project - Chemicals of High Concern List

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

Additional Regulatory Information

Not Applicable

National Inventory Status

National Inventory	Status
Australia - AIIC / Australia Non-Industrial Use	Yes
Canada - DSL	Yes
Canada - NDSL	No (C.I. Pigment White 6; propylene glycol; C.I. Pigment Blue 29; carbon black; C.I. Pigment Green 17; ferric oxide; ammonium hydroxide; silica crystalline - quartz; C.I. Pigment Orange 48; tridecyl alcohol, ethoxylated, phosphated, potassium salt; 4-nonylphenol, branched, ethoxylated; kaolin)
China - IECSC	Yes
Europe - EINEC / ELINCS / NLP	No (tridecyl alcohol, ethoxylated, phosphated, potassium salt)
Japan - ENCS	No (tridecyl alcohol, ethoxylated, phosphated, potassium salt; kaolin)
Korea - KECI	Yes
New Zealand - NZIoC	Yes

Continued...

National Inventory	Status
Philippines - PICCS	Yes
USA - TSCA	All chemical substances in this product have been designated as TSCA Inventory 'Active'
Taiwan - TCSI	Yes
Mexico - INSQ	No (tridecyl alcohol, ethoxylated, phosphated, potassium salt)
Vietnam - NCI	Yes
Russia - FBEPH	No (C.I. Pigment Orange 48; tridecyl alcohol, ethoxylated, phosphated, potassium salt)
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	18/10/2024
Initial Date	07/10/2024

SDS Version Summary

Version	Date of Update	Sections Updated
2.1	07/10/2024	Toxicological information - Acute Health (eye), Toxicological information - Acute Health (inhaled), Toxicological information - Acute Health (skin), Toxicological information - Acute Health (swallowed), First Aid measures - Advice to Doctor, Physical and chemical properties - Appearance, Toxicological information - Chronic Health, Hazards identification - Classification, Disposal considerations - Disposal, Exposure controls / personal protection - Engineering Control, Ecological Information - Environmental, Firefighting measures - Fire Fighter (extinguishing media), Firefighting measures - Fire Fighter (fire/explosion hazard), Firefighting measures - Fire Fighter (fire fighting), Firefighting measures - Fire Fighter (fire incompatibility), First Aid measures - First Aid (eye), First Aid measures - First Aid (inhaled), First Aid measures - First Aid (skin), First Aid measures - First Aid (swallowed), Handling and storage - Handling Procedure, Composition / information on ingredients - Ingredients, Stability and reactivity - Instability Condition, Exposure controls / personal protection - Personal Protection (other), Exposure controls / personal protection - Personal Protection (Respirator), Exposure controls / personal protection - Personal Protection (eye), Exposure controls / personal protection - Personal Protection (hands/feet), Accidental release measures - Spills (major), Accidental release measures - Spills (minor), Handling and storage - Storage (storage incompatibility), Handling and storage - Storage (storage requirement), Handling and storage - Storage (suitable container), Transport information - Transport, Identification of the substance / mixture and of the company / undertaking - Use, Name
3.1	18/10/2024	Hazards identification - Classification, 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

- ▶ AIIC: 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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