

Pebeo Phosphorescent Gel Studio Acrylics

Jasco Pty Limited

Chemwatch Hazard Alert Code: 1

Chemwatch: 5416-49

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

L.GHS.AUS.EN

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

Product Identifier

Product name	Pebeo Phosphorescent Gel Studio Acrylics
Chemical Name	Not Applicable
Synonyms	EN-FDS065 Phospo Gel Acr
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	Paints & Varnishes for artists. 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	CHEMWATCH EMERGENCY RESPONSE (24/7)
Emergency telephone numbers	13 11 26 (24/7)	+61 1800 951 288
Other emergency telephone numbers	Not Available	+61 3 9573 3188


Once connected and if the message is not in your preferred language then please dial 01

SECTION 2 Hazards identification

Classification of the substance or mixture

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

Label elements

Hazard pictogram(s)	
Signal word	Warning

Pebeo Phosphorescent Gel Studio Acrylics

Hazard statement(s)

H315	Causes skin irritation.
H319	Causes serious eye irritation.

Precautionary statement(s) Prevention

P280	Wear protective gloves, protective clothing, eye protection and face protection.
P264	Wash all exposed external body areas thoroughly after handling.

Precautionary statement(s) Response

P305+P351+P338	IF IN EYES: Rinse cautiously with water for several minutes. Remove contact lenses, if present and easy to do. Continue rinsing.
P337+P313	If eye irritation persists: Get medical advice/attention.
P302+P352	IF ON SKIN: Wash with plenty of water.
P332+P313	If skin irritation occurs: Get medical advice/attention.
P362+P364	Take off contaminated clothing and wash it before reuse.

Precautionary statement(s) Storage

Not Applicable

Precautionary statement(s) Disposal

Not Applicable

SECTION 3 Composition / information on ingredients

Substances

See section below for composition of Mixtures

Mixtures

CAS No	%[weight]	Name
12004-37-4	2.5-10	<u>strontium aluminate</u>
Not Available	balance	Ingredients determined not to be hazardous

Legend: 1. Classified by Chemwatch; 2. Classification drawn from HCIS; 3. Classification drawn from Regulation (EU) No 1272/2008 - Annex VI; 4. Classification drawn from C&L; * EU IOELVs available

SECTION 4 First aid measures

Description of first aid measures

Eye Contact	<p>If this product comes in contact with the eyes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Wash out immediately with fresh running water. ▶ Ensure complete irrigation of the eye by keeping eyelids apart and away from eye and moving the eyelids by occasionally lifting the upper and lower lids. ▶ Seek medical attention without delay; if pain persists or recurs seek medical attention. ▶ Removal of contact lenses after an eye injury should only be undertaken by skilled personnel.
Skin Contact	<p>If skin contact occurs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Immediately remove all contaminated clothing, including footwear. ▶ Flush skin and hair with running water (and soap if available). ▶ Seek medical attention in event of irritation.
Inhalation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ If fumes, aerosols or combustion products are inhaled remove from contaminated area. ▶ Other measures are usually unnecessary.
Ingestion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ If swallowed do NOT induce vomiting. ▶ If vomiting occurs, lean patient forward or place on left side (head-down position, if possible) to maintain open airway and prevent aspiration. ▶ Observe the patient carefully. ▶ Never give liquid to a person showing signs of being sleepy or with reduced awareness; i.e. becoming unconscious. ▶ Give water to rinse out mouth, then provide liquid slowly and as much as casualty can comfortably drink. ▶ Seek medical advice.

Indication of any immediate medical attention and special treatment needed

Treat symptomatically.

SECTION 5 Firefighting measures

Continued...

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Extinguishing media

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

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 breathing apparatus plus protective gloves. ▶ Prevent, by any means available, spillage from entering drains or water courses. ▶ Use water delivered as a fine spray to control fire and cool adjacent area. ▶ 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. ▶ Equipment should be thoroughly decontaminated after use.
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) 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"> ▶ Clean up all spills immediately. ▶ Avoid contact with skin and eyes. ▶ Wear impervious gloves and safety goggles. ▶ Trowel up/scrape up. ▶ Place spilled material in clean, dry, sealed container. ▶ Flush spill area with water.
Major Spills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Clear area of personnel and move upwind. ▶ Alert Fire Brigade and tell them location and nature of hazard. ▶ Wear breathing apparatus plus protective gloves. ▶ Prevent, by any means available, spillage from entering drains or water course. ▶ Stop leak if safe to do so. ▶ Contain spill with sand, earth or vermiculite. ▶ Collect recoverable product into labelled containers for recycling. ▶ Neutralise/decontaminate residue (see Section 13 for specific agent). ▶ Collect solid residues and seal in labelled drums for disposal. ▶ Wash area and prevent runoff into drains. ▶ After clean up operations, decontaminate and launder all protective clothing and equipment before storing and re-using. ▶ 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

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Safe handling	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ 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. ▶ DO NOT allow material to contact humans, exposed food or food utensils. ▶ 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. Launder contaminated clothing before re-use. ▶ 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 are maintained.
Other information	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Store in original containers. ▶ Keep containers securely sealed. ▶ Store in a cool, dry, well-ventilated area. ▶ Store away from incompatible materials and foodstuff containers. ▶ Protect containers against physical damage and check regularly for leaks. ▶ Observe manufacturer's storage and handling recommendations contained within this SDS.

Conditions for safe storage, including any incompatibilities

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

SECTION 8 Exposure controls / personal protection**Control parameters****Occupational Exposure Limits (OEL)****INGREDIENT DATA**

Not Available

Emergency Limits

Ingredient	TEEL-1	TEEL-2	TEEL-3
Pebeo Phosphorescent Gel Studio Acrylics	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available

Ingredient	Original IDLH	Revised IDLH
strontium aluminate	Not Available	Not Available

Occupational Exposure Banding

Ingredient	Occupational Exposure Band Rating	Occupational Exposure Band Limit
strontium aluminate	E	≤ 0.01 mg/m ³

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

The TLV is based on the exposures to aluminium chloride and the amount of hydrolysed acid and the corresponding acid TLV to provide the same degree of freedom from irritation. Workers chronically exposed to aluminium dusts and fumes have developed severe pulmonary reactions including fibrosis, emphysema and pneumothorax. A much rarer encephalopathy has also been described.

Exposure controls

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

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

Within each range the appropriate value depends on:

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

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

Individual protection measures, such as personal protective equipment



Eye and face protection

- ▶ Safety glasses with side shields.
- ▶ Chemical goggles. [AS/NZS 1337.1, EN166 or national equivalent]
- ▶ Contact lenses may pose a special hazard; soft contact lenses may absorb and concentrate irritants. A written policy document, describing the wearing of lenses or restrictions on use, should be created for each workplace or task. This should include a review of lens absorption and adsorption for the class of chemicals in use and an account of injury experience. Medical and first-aid personnel should be trained in their removal and suitable equipment should be readily available. In the event of chemical exposure, begin eye irrigation immediately and remove contact lens as soon as practicable. Lens should be removed at the first signs of eye redness or irritation - lens should be removed in a clean environment only after workers have washed hands thoroughly. [CDC NIOSH Current Intelligence Bulletin 59].

Skin protection

See Hand protection below

Hands/feet protection

- ▶ Wear chemical protective gloves, e.g. PVC.
- ▶ Wear safety footwear or safety gumboots, e.g. Rubber

Body protection

See Other protection below

Other protection

- ▶ Overalls.
- ▶ P.V.C apron.
- ▶ Barrier cream.
- ▶ Skin cleansing cream.
- ▶ Eye wash unit.

Respiratory protection

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

SECTION 9 Physical and chemical properties

Information on basic physical and chemical properties

Appearance	Paste; mixes with water.
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Physical state	Non Slump Paste	Relative density (Water = 1)	1.11
Odour	Not Available	Partition coefficient n-octanol / water	Not Available
Odour threshold	Not Available	Auto-ignition temperature (°C)	Not Available
pH (as supplied)	8.30	Decomposition temperature (°C)	Not Available
Melting point / freezing point (°C)	Not Available	Viscosity (cSt)	Not Available
Initial boiling point and boiling range (°C)	Not Available	Molecular weight (g/mol)	Not Applicable
Flash point (°C)	Not Available	Taste	Not Available
Evaporation rate	Not Available	Explosive properties	Not Available
Flammability	Not Available	Oxidising properties	Not Available
Upper Explosive Limit (%)	Not Available	Surface Tension (dyn/cm or mN/m)	Not Available
Lower Explosive Limit (%)	Not Available	Volatile Component (%vol)	Not Available
Vapour pressure (kPa)	Not Available	Gas group	Not Available
Solubility in water	Miscible	pH as a solution (1%)	Not Available
Vapour density (Air = 1)	Not Available	VOC g/L	33.96

SECTION 10 Stability and reactivity

Reactivity	See section 7
Chemical stability	Product is considered stable and 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	The material is not thought to produce either adverse health effects or irritation of the respiratory tract following inhalation (as classified by EC Directives using animal models). Nevertheless, adverse systemic effects have been produced following exposure of animals by at least one other route and good hygiene practice requires that exposure be kept to a minimum and that suitable control measures be used in an occupational setting.
Ingestion	Accidental ingestion of the material may be damaging to the health of the individual. Ingestion may result in nausea, abdominal irritation, pain and vomiting
Skin Contact	Evidence exists, or practical experience predicts, that the material either produces inflammation of the skin in a substantial number of individuals following direct contact, and/or produces significant inflammation when applied to the healthy intact skin of animals, for up to four hours, such inflammation being present twenty-four hours or more after the end of the exposure period. Skin irritation may also be present after prolonged or repeated exposure; this may result in a form of contact dermatitis (nonallergic). The dermatitis is often characterised by skin redness (erythema) and swelling (oedema) which may progress to blistering (vesiculation), scaling and thickening of the epidermis. At the microscopic level there may be intercellular oedema of the spongy layer of the skin (spongiosis) and intracellular oedema of the epidermis. The material may accentuate any pre-existing dermatitis condition 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.
Eye	Evidence exists, or practical experience predicts, that the material may cause eye irritation in a substantial number of individuals and/or may produce significant ocular lesions which are present twenty-four hours or more after instillation into the eye(s) of experimental animals. Repeated or prolonged eye contact may cause inflammation characterised by temporary redness (similar to windburn) of the conjunctiva (conjunctivitis); temporary impairment of vision and/or other transient eye damage/ulceration may occur.
Chronic	Limited evidence suggests that repeated or long-term occupational exposure may produce cumulative health effects involving organs or biochemical systems. Occupational exposure to aluminium compounds may produce asthma, chronic obstructive lung disease and pulmonary fibrosis. Long-term overexposure may produce dyspnoea, cough, pneumothorax, variable sputum production and nodular interstitial fibrosis; death has been reported. Chronic interstitial pneumonia with severe cavitations in the right upper lung and small cavities in the remaining lung tissue, have been observed in gross pathology. Shaver's Disease may result from occupational exposure to

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fumes or dusts; this may produce respiratory distress and fibrosis with large blebs. Animal studies produce no indication that aluminium or its compounds are carcinogenic.

Because aluminium competes with calcium for absorption, increased amounts of dietary aluminium may contribute to the reduced skeletal mineralisation (osteopenia) observed in preterm infants and infants with growth retardation. In very high doses, aluminium can cause neurotoxicity, and is associated with altered function of the blood-brain barrier. A small percentage of people are allergic to aluminium and experience contact dermatitis, digestive disorders, vomiting or other symptoms upon contact or ingestion of products containing aluminium, such as deodorants or antacids. In those without allergies, aluminium is not as toxic as heavy metals, but there is evidence of some toxicity if it is consumed in excessive amounts. Although the use of aluminium cookware has not been shown to lead to aluminium toxicity in general, excessive consumption of antacids containing aluminium compounds and excessive use of aluminium-containing antiperspirants provide more significant exposure levels. Studies have shown that consumption of acidic foods or liquids with aluminium significantly increases aluminium absorption, and maltol has been shown to increase the accumulation of aluminium in nervous and osseous tissue. Furthermore, aluminium increases oestrogen-related gene expression in human breast cancer cells cultured in the laboratory. These salts' estrogen-like effects have led to their classification as a metalloestrogen. Some researchers have expressed concerns that the aluminium in antiperspirants may increase the risk of breast cancer.

After absorption, aluminium distributes to all tissues in animals and humans and accumulates in some, in particular bone. The main carrier of the aluminium ion in plasma is the iron binding protein, transferrin. Aluminium can enter the brain and reach the placenta and foetus. Aluminium may persist for a very long time in various organs and tissues before it is excreted in the urine. Although retention times for aluminium appear to be longer in humans than in rodents, there is little information allowing extrapolation from rodents to the humans.

At high levels of exposure, some aluminium compounds may produce DNA damage in vitro and in vivo via indirect mechanisms. The database on carcinogenicity of aluminium compounds is limited. No indication of any carcinogenic potential was obtained in mice given aluminium potassium sulphate at high levels in the diet.

Aluminium has shown neurotoxicity in patients undergoing dialysis and thereby chronically exposed parenterally to high concentrations of aluminium. It has been suggested that aluminium is implicated in the aetiology of Alzheimer's disease and associated with other neurodegenerative diseases in humans. However, these hypotheses remain controversial. Several compounds containing aluminium have the potential to produce neurotoxicity (mice, rats) and to affect the male reproductive system (dogs). In addition, after maternal exposure they have shown embryotoxicity (mice) and have affected the developing nervous system in the offspring (mice, rats). The available studies have a number of limitations and do not allow any dose-response relationships to be established. The combined evidence from several studies in mice, rats and dogs that used dietary administration of aluminium compounds produce lowest-observed-adverse-effect levels (LOAELs) for effects on neurotoxicity, testes, embryotoxicity, and the developing nervous system of 52, 75, 100, and 50 mg aluminium/kg bw/day, respectively. Similarly, the lowest no-observed-adverse-effect levels (NOAELs) for effects on these endpoints were reported at 30, 27, 100, and for effects on the developing nervous system, between 10 and 42 mg aluminium/kg bw per day, respectively.

Controversy exists over whether aluminium is the cause of degenerative brain disease (Alzheimer's disease or AD). Several epidemiological studies show a possible correlation between the incidence of AD and high levels of aluminium in drinking water. A study in Toronto, for example, found a 2.6 times increased risk in people residing for at least 10 years in communities where drinking water contained more than 0.15 mg/l aluminium compared with communities where the aluminium level was lower than 0.1 mg/l. A neurochemical model has been suggested linking aluminium exposure to brain disease. Aluminium concentrates in brain regions, notably the hippocampus, cerebral cortex and amygdala where it preferentially binds to large pyramid-shaped cells - it does not bind to a substantial degree to the smaller interneurons. Aluminium displaces magnesium in key metabolic reactions in brain cells and also interferes with calcium metabolism and inhibits phosphoinositide metabolism. Phosphoinositide normally controls calcium ion levels at critical concentrations.

Under the microscope the brain of AD sufferers show thickened fibrils (neurofibrillary tangles - NFT) and plaques consisting of amyloid protein deposited in the matrix between brain cells. Tangles result from alteration of "tau" a brain cytoskeletal protein. AD tau is distinguished from normal tau because it is hyperphosphorylated. Aluminium hyperphosphorylates tau in vitro. When AD tau is injected into rat brain NFT-like aggregates form but soon degrade. Aluminium stabilises these aggregates rendering them resistant to protease degradation. Plaque formation is also enhanced by aluminium which induces the accumulation of amyloid precursor protein in the thread-like extensions of nerve cells (axons and dendrites). In addition aluminium has been shown to depress the activity of most neuro-transmitters similarly depressed in AD (acetylcholine, norepinephrine, glutamate and GABA). Aluminium enters the brain in measurable quantities, even when trace levels are contained in a glass of tap water. Other sources of bioavailable aluminium include baking powder, antacids and aluminium products used for general food preparation and storage (over 12 months, aluminium levels in soft drink packed in aluminium cans rose from 0.05 to 0.9 mg/l). [Walton, J and Bryson-Taylor, D. - *Chemistry in Australia*, August 1995]

the main target organs of aluminum are the central nervous system and bone. Aluminum binds with dietary phosphorus and impairs gastrointestinal absorption of phosphorus. The decreased phosphate body burden results in osteomalacia (softening of the bones due to defective bone mineralization) and rickets. Aluminum's neurotoxicity is believed to involve several mechanisms. Changes in cytoskeletal protein functions as a result of altered phosphorylation, proteolysis, transport, and synthesis are believed to be one cause. Aluminum may induce neurobehavioral effects by affecting permeability of the blood-brain barrier, cholinergic activity, signal transduction pathways, lipid peroxidation, and impair neuronal glutamate nitric oxide-cyclic GMP pathway, as well as interfere with metabolism of essential trace elements because of similar coordination chemistries and consequent competitive interactions. It has been suggested that aluminum's interaction with estrogen receptors, but studies have not been able to establish a clear link between aluminum and increased risk of breast cancer. Certain aluminum salts induce immune responses by activating inflammasomes.

Strontium accumulates in teeth and bone, especially in the epiphyseal region of rapidly growing bone. A chronic diet high in strontium and low in calcium produced severe bone deformities, incoordination, weakness and hind-leg with calcium absorption and has induced neurologic disorders in pigs. Public health concerns, related to strontium, arise from radioactive isotopes of strontium which occur in "fall-out" following nuclear weapons testing.

There is no direct evidence that strontium is toxic to humans, but there is suggestive epidemiological evidence that the oral toxicity observed at high doses in juvenile laboratory animals may pertain to humans under special circumstances. Stable strontium is of relatively low toxicity. It comprises about 4.6 ppm by weight of the human body, but does not have any recognised essential biological role.

Human exposure to strontium is primarily by the oral route (via fruits, vegetables, and drinking water), although inhalation exposures are also possible. No toxic effects of stable strontium have been reported for the exposure levels normally encountered in the environment. Strontium is not readily absorbed through intact skin, but is absorbed through abraded skin and through puncture wounds. The biological effects of strontium are related to its chemical similarity to calcium, with both elements being found in Group 2 of the periodic table and forming divalent cations. However, since strontium is not the same size as

calcium, it does not substitute precisely for calcium in biological processes. At different stages of the life cycle, organisms vary in their ability to discriminate between strontium and calcium, which may cause age-related differences in gastrointestinal absorption, and therefore in health effects. Because of its similarity to calcium, strontium accumulates to a high degree in bone, and, in high concentrations, may seriously interfere with the normal process of bone development. The young are particularly vulnerable because a lack of discrimination between calcium and strontium occurs during a dynamic period of bone formation and growth. For this reason, body burdens of strontium will be higher in children than in adults, and the health effects associated with high exposure levels would be more severe. As suggested in one human study and demonstrated in several animal studies, strontium 'rickets' is one potential consequence of childhood exposure to excess stable strontium.

The fact that strontium is chemically similar to calcium allows it to exchange for calcium in bone and other cellular compartments that are enriched in calcium. Many enzymes that are calcium-dependent will function when strontium is substituted, but changes in kinetic parameters may occur. Strontium can interact with secondary cell messenger systems and transporter systems that normally use calcium. Furthermore, synaptic transmission may be variably affected by strontium. Consequently, at high concentrations, differences in the chemical characteristics between strontium and calcium may be the basis for neurotoxic and neuromuscular perturbations associated with strontium intoxication. The only evidence for neurotoxicity of stable strontium is a report of hindlimb paralysis following intermediate-duration ingestion of excess strontium. Given the absence of any other evidence for neurotoxicity, it is possible that, in this case, the paralysis may have resulted from compression of the hypertrophic epiphyseal cartilage, which was insufficiently mineralized to support the weight of the body.

Beta emissions from radioactive ⁹⁰Sr have a limited ability to penetrate through tissue. For that reason, radiostrontium must be internalized or placed in close contact with skin before adverse health effects will occur. The 'bone-seeking' behavior of strontium is the basis for concern regarding oral or inhalation exposures to the radioactive isotopes, particularly ⁹⁰Sr, with its long half-life of 29 years and highly energetic 0.546 MeV beta particles, plus the 2.2 MeV beta particles of its short-lived ⁹⁰Y decay product isotope. Radioactive strontium isotopes incorporate into bone and irradiate the bone cells, the hemopoietic bone marrow, and potentially, the soft tissues surrounding bone, especially in the skull. Human populations accidentally exposed to high levels of radiation from radiostrontium (and other radionuclides and external radiation) experienced chronic radiation sickness (postirradiation changes in hematological parameters) and increased leukemia and cancer mortality in the decades following exposure. In animal studies, high-level exposures to ⁹⁰Sr led to death within weeks because of radiation damage to hemopoietic tissues. Longer-term lower level exposures that overcome genetic repair mechanisms may lead to myeloid leukemia, osteosarcoma, and lymphoma (only observed in some rodent studies). Because strontium is retained for a long time in the skeleton, acute- or intermediate-duration uptakes (i.e., absorption events occurring within a period of <2 weeks or <1 year, respectively) can result in decade-long (i.e., chronic) effects from internal exposure to the radiation emitted from the retained isotopes. Children would appear to have a higher lifetime risk for cancer effects per unit uptake, because of their relatively higher rate of skeletal incorporation of strontium and potentially longer radiation exposure period. Immediately nonlethal exposures to high levels of radioactive strontium may contribute to suppression of the immune system.

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

Pebeo Phosphorescent Gel Studio Acrylics	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	Not Available	Not Available
strontium aluminate	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

STRONTIUM ALUMINATE

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.

No significant acute toxicological data identified in literature search.

For aluminium compounds:

Aluminium present in food and drinking water is poorly absorbed through the gastrointestinal tract. The bioavailability of aluminium is dependent on the form in which it is ingested and the presence of dietary constituents with which the metal cation can complex. Ligands in food can have a marked effect on absorption of aluminium, as they can either enhance uptake by forming absorbable (usually water soluble) complexes (e.g., with carboxylic acids such as citric and lactic), or reduce it by forming insoluble compounds (e.g., with phosphate or dissolved silicate).

Considering the available human and animal data it is likely that the oral absorption of aluminium can vary 10-fold based on chemical form alone. Although bioavailability appears to generally parallel water solubility, insufficient data are available to directly extrapolate from solubility in water to bioavailability.

For oral intake from food, the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) has derived a tolerable weekly intake (TWI) of 1 milligram (mg) of aluminium per kilogram of bodyweight. In its health assessment, the EFSA states a medium bioavailability of 0.1 % for all aluminium compounds which are ingested with food. This corresponds to a systemically available tolerable daily dose of 0.143 microgrammes (µg) per kilogramme (kg) of body weight. This means that for an adult weighing 60 kg, a systemically available dose of 8.6 µg per day is considered safe.

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

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

Systemic toxicity after repeated exposure

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

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

The main toxic effects of aluminium that have been observed in experimental animals are neurotoxicity and nephrotoxicity.

Neurotoxicity has also been described in patients dialysed with water containing high concentrations of aluminium, but epidemiological data on possible adverse effects in humans at lower exposures are inconsistent

Reproductive and developmental toxicity:

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

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

Genotoxicity

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

Carcinogenicity.

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

Neurodegenerative diseases.

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

Contact sensitivity:

It has been suggested that the body burden of aluminium may be linked to different diseases. Macrophagic myofasciitis and chronic fatigue syndrome can be caused by aluminium-containing adjuvants in vaccines. Macrophagic myofasciitis (MMF) has been described as a disease in adults presenting with ascending myalgia and severe fatigue following exposure to aluminium

Pebeo Phosphorescent Gel Studio Acrylics

hydroxide-containing vaccines The corresponding histological findings include aluminium-containing macrophages infiltrating muscle tissue at the injection site. The hypothesis is that the long-lasting granuloma triggers the development of the systemic syndrome.

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

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

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

Pebeo Phosphorescent Gel Studio Acrylics	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
strontium aluminate	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available

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

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 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.

For strontium:

Environmental fate:

Continued...

Strontium present in the atmosphere is in the form of wet or dry aerosols. The principal chemical species in the air is strontium oxide (SrO). Strontium oxide will react rapidly in the presence of moisture to form Sr²⁺ and SrOH⁺ ions. Strontium is dispersed by atmospheric cycling and is subsequently deposited by wet deposition on the earth's surface. In surface water and groundwater, strontium exists primarily as a hydrated ion. Strontium can form ionic complexes with other inorganic or organic substances. Strontium is relatively mobile in water. However, the formation of insoluble complexes or sorption of strontium to soils can reduce its mobility in water. Strontium sorbs to soils by ion exchange, and tends to be more mobile in soils with a high concentration of exchangeable ions or in soils with low cation exchange capacities. Strontium is taken up and retained by aquatic and terrestrial plants and is concentrated in the bony tissues of animals that eat contaminated vegetation. The concentration of radioactive ⁹⁰Sr in the atmosphere has steadily decreased since its maximum concentration in 1963, probably as a result of reduced numbers of tests involving nuclear explosives. However radioactive strontium occurs naturally in the earth's crust and partitions between various environmental compartments.

Strontium exists almost exclusively in the environment as a +2 cation, and will form different species, some of which are more soluble than others. Because the different species have different solubilities, they will have different mobilities in the environment and different exposure potentials. Strontium exists as a hydrated cation, an ionic solution complex, or an ionic salt. In the environment, typical solution species for strontium are Sr²⁺ and SrOH⁺, and some strontium compounds (SrCO₃ and SrSO₄) are practically insoluble in neutral water.

The principal abiotic processes that transform strontium in soils and sediments are mediated by sorption and desorption reactions between the soil solution and matrix (precipitation, complexation, and ion exchange), and controlled by pH, ionic strength, solution speciation, mineral composition, organic matter, biological organisms, and temperature. For many soil systems, in the short term, strontium sorption is dominated by simple ion exchange, and strontium ions are readily exchangeable. At longer time scales, however, strontium ions may be relocated into sterically hindered sites that are not readily exchangeable.

Because strontium is an element, its atoms do not degrade by environmental processes such as hydrolysis or biodegradation. However, radioactive strontium will be subject to radioactive decay and transformation to other elements. Eventually, all of the radioactive strontium will be transformed into stable zirconium by the process of radioactive decay

$^{90}\text{Sr} (t_{1/2} = 29 \text{ years}) \rightarrow ^{90}\text{Y} (t_{1/2} = 64 \text{ hours}) + \beta^- \rightarrow ^{90}\text{Zr} (\text{stable}) + \beta^-$

Both radioactive and nonradioactive strontium compounds are subject to both biotic and abiotic transformation mechanisms.

Like calcium, strontium has moderate mobility in soils and sediments, and sorbs moderately to metal oxides and clays. The Sr²⁺ ion is strongly hydrated and is firmly coordinated with six or more water molecules in aqueous solution. When Sr²⁺ ions sorb on negatively charged mineral surface sites, the hydration sphere is retained. Strontium sorbs as hydrated ions on the surface of clay minerals (kaolinite), weathered minerals (amorphous silica), and iron oxides. Sorbed carbonate on iron oxides enhances the sorption of Sr²⁺ and permits the nucleation of Sr²⁺ as strontium carbonate. On calcite (calcium carbonate), Sr²⁺ sorption occurs by electrostatic attraction as hydrated ions. However, at higher concentrations, precipitation of strontianite (strontium carbonate) occurs, and strontium is likely to be less mobile.

Strontium is not necessary for growth or reproduction for most plants, but is typically absorbed to satisfy the plant's metabolic requirements for calcium. Soil to plant concentration ratios for strontium (the ratio of the concentration of strontium in wet vegetation to the concentration of strontium in dry soil) are, and indicate that strontium can be easily absorbed into plants from soil. The uptake of strontium by plants is greatest in sandy soils having low clay and organic matter content. The concentration of nutritive mineral elements in soil such as calcium lower the intake of strontium to the aboveground phytomass. The average reduction of the soil-to-plant concentration ratios for ⁹⁰Sr caused by amendment with Ca or K is around 50-60%.

Strontium may be deposited on plant surfaces from the atmosphere, remain on the plant, be washed off, or be absorbed directly into the plant through leaves. Contamination by direct deposition on foliage surfaces is predominantly a short-term mechanism with a weathering half-life of approximately 14 days. Once absorbed in the plant, strontium translocates to other parts of the plant, such as the leaves or fruit. Translocation of strontium in plants is affected by the particular species and stage of organism growth, and the most metabolically active parts (growing) will accumulate higher concentrations of strontium.

The primary routes of human exposure to strontium are from inhalation of aerosols and ingestion of food and drinking water containing strontium. The intake of strontium, therefore, depends upon the concentration of strontium in air, drinking water, and in the food items that comprise a person's diet, which may be highly variable.

External exposure to ⁹⁰Sr is not a concern because of minor emission of penetrating radiation from ⁹⁰Sr.

No estimate of the concentration of ⁹⁰Sr in air is available. However, it is assumed that ambient concentrations of ⁹⁰Sr in the atmosphere are small relative to exposures from water and diet. If the concentration of ⁹⁰Sr in average U.S. drinking water is estimated as 0.1 pCi/L (4 mBq/L) or one radiochemical event per 5-10 minutes, and the consumption rate of drinking water by a normal adult is assumed to be 2 L/day, then the exposure from drinking water would be 0.2 pCi (7 mBq) per day.

The distributions of ⁹⁰Sr in the body are significantly different for males and females. As expected, the highest concentrations of ⁹⁰Sr are measured in the bony tissue. Males and females averaged 10.4 and 65 pCi/kg (0.38 and 2.4 Bq/kg) wet weight, respectively. Males had a much higher concentration of ⁹⁰Sr in the muscular tissue compared to females. The heart and psoas muscles had respective concentrations of ⁹⁰Sr for men averaging 13.9 and 18.7 pCi/kg (0.51 and 0.69 Bq) wet weight versus respective concentrations of 7.4 and 1.9 pCi/kg (0.27 Bq/kg and 70 mBq/kg) wet weight for females.

Occupational exposure to strontium compounds affords the opportunity to accumulate higher levels of all forms of strontium.

Children drink more fluids, eat more food, breathe more air per kilogram of body weight, and have a larger skin surface in proportion to their body volume. A child's diet often differs from that of adults. The developing human's source of nutrition changes with age: from placental nourishment to breast milk or formula to the diet of older children who eat more of certain types of foods than adults. A child's behavior and lifestyle also influence exposure. Compared to adults, the potential for radiostromium exposure is greater for children who consume foods (e.g., milk, grains) produced in areas with elevated concentrations of radiostromium in the soil and for children with elevated concentrations of radiostromium in their drinking water. Children are more likely to be exposed to ⁹⁰Sr in cow's milk produced in contaminated areas.

Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR); Toxicological Profile for Strontium

For aluminium and its compounds and salts:

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

Environmental fate:

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

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

As an element, aluminium cannot be degraded in the environment, but may undergo various precipitation or ligand exchange reactions. Aluminium in compounds has only one oxidation state (+3), and would not undergo oxidation-reduction reactions under environmental conditions. Aluminium can be complexed by various ligands present in the environment (e.g., fulvic and humic acids). The solubility of aluminium in the environment will depend on the ligands present and the pH.

The trivalent aluminium ion is surrounded by six water molecules in solution. The hydrated aluminium ion, [Al(H₂O)₆]³⁺, undergoes hydrolysis, in which a stepwise deprotonation of the coordinated water ligands forms bound hydroxide ligands (e.g., [Al(H₂O)₅(OH)]²⁺, [Al(H₂O)₄(OH)₂]⁺). The speciation of aluminium in water is pH dependent. The hydrated trivalent aluminium ion is the predominant form at pH levels below 4. Between pH 5 and 6, the predominant hydrolysis products are Al(OH)₂⁺ and Al(OH)₂⁺, while the solid Al(OH)₃ is most prevalent between pH 5.2 and 8.8. The soluble species Al(OH)₄⁻ is the predominant species above pH 9, and is the only species present above pH 10. Polymeric aluminium hydroxides appear between pH 4.7 and 10.5, and increase in size until they are transformed

into colloidal particles of amorphous $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$, which crystallise to gibbsite in acid waters. Polymerisation is affected by the presence of dissolved silica; when enough silica is present, aluminum is precipitated as poorly crystallised clay mineral species.

Hydroxylaluminum compounds are considered amphoteric (e.g., they can act as both acids and bases in solution). Because of this property, aluminum hydroxides can act as buffers and resist pH changes within the narrow pH range of 4-5.

Monomeric aluminum compounds, typified by aluminum fluoride, chloride, and sulfate, are considered reactive or labile compounds, whereas polymeric aluminum species react much more slowly in the environment. Aluminum has a stronger attraction for fluoride in an acidic environment compared to other inorganic ligand. The adsorption of aluminum onto clay surfaces can be a significant factor in controlling aluminum mobility in the environment, and these adsorption reactions, measured in one study at pH 3.0-4.1, have been observed to be very rapid. However, clays may act either as a sink or a source for soluble aluminum depending on the degree of aluminum saturation on the clay surface.

Within the pH range of 5-6, aluminum complexes with phosphate and is removed from solution. Because phosphate is a necessary nutrient in ecological systems, this immobilization of both aluminum and phosphate may result in depleted nutrient states in surface water.

Plant species and cultivars of the same species differ considerably in their ability to take up and translocate aluminum to above-ground parts. Tea leaves may contain very high concentrations of aluminum, >5,000 mg/kg in old leaves. Other plants that may contain high levels of aluminum include *Lycopodium* (Lycopodiaceae), a few ferns, *Symplocos* (Symplocaceae), and *Orites* (Proteaceae). Aluminum is often taken up and concentrated in root tissue. In sub-alpine ecosystems, the large root biomass of the Douglas fir, *Abies amabilis*, takes up aluminum and immobilizes it, preventing large accumulation in above-ground tissue. It is unclear to what extent aluminum is taken up into root food crops and leafy vegetables. An uptake factor (concentration of aluminum in the plant/concentration of aluminum in soil) of 0.004 for leafy vegetables and 0.00065 for fruits and tubers has been reported, but the pH and plant species from which these uptake factors were derived are unclear. Based upon these values, however, it is clear that aluminum is not taken up in plants from soil, but is instead biodiluted.

Aluminum concentrations in rainbow trout from an alum-treated lake, an untreated lake, and a hatchery were highest in gill tissue and lowest in muscle. Aluminum residue analyses in brook trout have shown that whole-body aluminum content decreases as the fish advance from larvae to juveniles. These results imply that the aging larvae begin to decrease their rate of aluminum uptake, to eliminate aluminum at a rate that exceeds uptake, or to maintain approximately the same amount of aluminum while the body mass increases. The decline in whole-body aluminum residues in juvenile brook trout may be related to growth and dilution by edible muscle tissue that accumulated less aluminum than did the other tissues.

The greatest fraction of the gill-associated aluminum was not sorbed to the gill tissue, but to the gill mucus. It is thought that mucus appears to retard aluminum transport from solution to the membrane surface, thus delaying the acute biological response of the fish. It has been reported that concentrations of aluminum in whole-body tissue of the Atlantic salmon exposed to high concentrations of aluminum ranging from 3 ug/g (for fish exposed to 33 ug/L) to 96 ug/g (for fish exposed to 264 ug/L) at pH 5.5. After 60 days of exposure, BCFs ranged from 76 to 190 and were directly related to the aluminum exposure concentration. In acidic waters (pH 4.6-5.3) with low concentrations of calcium (0.5-1.5 mg Ca/L), labile aluminum between 25 and 75 ug/L is toxic. Because aluminum is toxic to many aquatic species, it is not bioaccumulated to a significant degree (BCF <300) in most fish and shellfish; therefore, consumption of contaminated fish does not appear to be a significant source of aluminum exposure in humans.

Bioconcentration of aluminum has also been reported for several aquatic invertebrate species. BCF values ranging from 0.13 to 0.5 in the whole-body were reported for the snail. Bioconcentration of aluminum has also been reported for aquatic insects.

Ecotoxicity:

Freshwater species pH >6.5

Fish: Acute LC50 (48-96 h) 5 spp: 0.6 (*Salmo salar*) - 106 mg/L; Chronic NOEC (8-28 d): 7 spp, NOEC, 0.034-7.1 mg/L. The lowest measured chronic figure was an 8-d LC50 of 0.17 mg/L for *Micropterus* sp.

Amphibian: Acute LC50 (4 d): *Bufo americanus*, 0.86-1.66 mg/L; Chronic LC50 (8-d) 2.28 mg/L

Crustaceans LC50 (48 h): 1 sp 2.3-36.9 mg/L; Chronic NOEC (7-28 d) 3 spp, 0.136-1.72 mg/L

Algae EC50 (96 h): population growth, 0.46-0.57 mg/L; 2 spp, chronic NOEC, 0.8-2.0 mg/L

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

Fish LC50 (24-96 h): 4 spp, 0.015 (*S. trutta*) - 4.2 mg/L; chronic data on *Salmo trutta*, LC50 (21-42 d) 0.015- 0.105 mg/L

Amphibians LC50 (4-5 d): 2 spp, 0.540-2.670 mg/L (absolute range 0.40-5.2 mg/L)

Alga: 1 sp NOEC growth 2.0 mg/L

Among freshwater aquatic plants, single-celled plants are generally the most sensitive to aluminium. Fish are generally more sensitive to aluminium than aquatic invertebrates. Aluminium is a gill toxicant to fish, causing both ionoregulatory and respiratory effects.

The bioavailability and toxicity of aluminium is generally greatest in acid solutions. Aluminium in acid habitats has been observed to be toxic to fish and phytoplankton. Aluminium is generally more toxic over the pH range 4.4-5.4, with a maximum toxicity occurring around pH 5.0-5.2. The inorganic single unit aluminium species ($\text{Al}(\text{OH})_2^+$) is thought to be the most toxic. Under very acid conditions, the toxic effects of the high H^+ concentration appear to be more important than the effects of low concentrations of aluminium; at approximately neutral pH values, the toxicity of aluminium is greatly reduced. The solubility of aluminium is also enhanced under alkaline conditions, due to its amphoteric character, and some researchers found that the acute toxicity of aluminium increased from pH 7 to pH 9. However, the opposite relationship was found in other studies. The uptake and toxicity of aluminium in freshwater organisms generally decreases with increasing water hardness under acidic, neutral and alkaline conditions. Complexing agents such as fluoride, citrate and humic substances reduce the availability of aluminium to organisms, resulting in lower toxicity. Silicon can also reduce aluminium toxicity to fish.

Drinking Water Standards:

aluminium: 200 ug/l (UK max.)

200 ug/l (WHO guideline)

chloride: 400 mg/l (UK max.)

250 mg/l (WHO guideline)

fluoride: 1.5 mg/l (UK max.)

1.5 mg/l (WHO guideline)

nitrate: 50 mg/l (UK max.)

50 mg/l (WHO guideline)

sulfate: 250 mg/l (UK max.)

Soil Guideline: none available.

Air Quality Standards: none available.

DO NOT discharge into sewer or waterways.

Persistence and degradability

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

Bioaccumulative potential

Ingredient	Bioaccumulation
	No Data available for all ingredients

Mobility in soil

Ingredient	Mobility
	No Data available for all ingredients

SECTION 13 Disposal considerations**Waste treatment methods**

Product / Packaging disposal	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ 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
strontium aluminate	Not Available

14.7.3. Transport in bulk in accordance with the IGC Code

Product name	Ship Type
strontium aluminate	Not Available

SECTION 15 Regulatory information**Safety, health and environmental regulations / legislation specific for the substance or mixture**

strontium aluminate is found on the following regulatory lists

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

Additional Regulatory Information

Not Applicable

National Inventory Status

National Inventory	Status
Australia - AIIC / Australia Non-Industrial Use	No (strontium aluminate)
Canada - DSL	No (strontium aluminate)
Canada - NDSL	Yes
China - IECSC	Yes

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National Inventory	Status
Europe - EINEC / ELINCS / NLP	Yes
Japan - ENCS	No (strontium aluminate)
Korea - KECI	Yes
New Zealand - NZIoC	Yes
Philippines - PICCS	No (strontium aluminate)
USA - TSCA	Yes
Taiwan - TCSI	Yes
Mexico - INSQ	No (strontium aluminate)
Vietnam - NCI	Yes
Russia - FBEPH	Yes
Legend:	Yes = All CAS declared ingredients are on the inventory No = One or more of the CAS listed ingredients are not on the inventory. These ingredients may be exempt or will require registration.

SECTION 16 Other information

Revision Date	10/03/2023
Initial Date	01/09/2020

SDS Version Summary

Version	Date of Update	Sections Updated
3.1	23/12/2022	Classification review due to GHS Revision change.
4.1	10/03/2023	Classification change due to full database hazard calculation/update.

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

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- ▶ 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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