Reeves Oil 50ml Paint

Jasco Pty Limited

Chemwatch Hazard Alert Code: 3

Chemwatch: **5395-98**
Version No: **4.1**
Safety Data Sheet according to Work Health and Safety Regulations (Hazardous Chemicals) 2023 and ADG requirements

Issue Date: **23/12/2022**
Print Date: **11/08/2024**
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SECTION 1 Identification of the substance / mixture and of the company / undertaking

Product Identifier

Product name	Reeves Oil 50ml Paint
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.

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, Sensitisation (Skin) Category 1, Serious Eye Damage/Eye Irritation Category 1, Specific Target Organ Toxicity - Single Exposure (Respiratory Tract Irritation) 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**

Page 1 continued...

Hazard statement(s)

H315	Causes skin irritation.
H317	May cause an allergic skin reaction.
H318	Causes serious eye damage.
H335	May cause respiratory irritation.

Precautionary statement(s) Prevention

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.
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.
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.

SECTION 3 Composition / information on ingredients

Substances

See section below for composition of Mixtures

Mixtures

CAS No	%[weight]	Name
8001-26-1	20-60	linseed oil
471-34-1	20-60	calcium carbonate
8001-78-3	1-5	castor oil, hydrogenated
67701-08-0	<1	fatty acids, C16-18 and C18-unsaturated
57-55-6	<1	propylene glycol
Not Available	0-20	pigments
Not Available		may contains
13463-67-7	NotSpec	titanium dioxide
6486-23-3	NotSpec	C.I. Pigment Yellow 3
2512-29-0	NotSpec	C.I. Pigment Yellow 1
20344-49-4	NotSpec	ferric hydroxide
1309-37-1	NotSpec	C.I. Pigment Red 101
3520-72-7	NotSpec	C.I. Pigment Orange 13
7023-61-2	NotSpec	C.I. Pigment Red 48:2
6410-26-0	NotSpec	C.I. Pigment Red 21
147-14-8	NotSpec	C.I. Pigment Blue 15
1317-61-9	NotSpec	C.I. Pigment Black 11
980-26-7	NotSpec	C.I. Pigment Red 122
57455-37-5	NotSpec	C.I. Pigment Blue 29

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CAS No	%[weight]	Name
1325-87-7	NotSpec	C.I. Pigment Blue 1
1333-86-4	NotSpec	C.I. Pigment Black 7
2814-77-9	NotSpec	C.I. Pigment Red 4
5280-68-2	NotSpec	C.I. Pigment Red 146

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	If this product comes in contact with the eyes: ▸ Immediately hold eyelids apart and flush the eye continuously with running water. ▸ Ensure complete irrigation of the eye by keeping eyelids apart and away from eye and moving the eyelids by occasionally lifting the upper and lower lids. ▸ Continue flushing until advised to stop by the Poisons Information Centre or a doctor, or for at least 15 minutes. ▸ Transport to hospital or doctor without delay. ▸ Removal of contact lenses after an eye injury should only be undertaken by skilled personnel.
Skin Contact	If skin contact occurs: ▸ Immediately remove all contaminated clothing, including footwear. ▸ Flush skin and hair with running water (and soap if available). ▸ Seek medical attention in event of irritation.
Inhalation	▸ If fumes 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	▸ Immediately give a glass of water. ▸ First aid is not generally required. If in doubt, contact a Poisons Information Centre or a doctor.

Indication of any immediate medical attention and special treatment needed

Treat symptomatically.

SECTION 5 Firefighting measures

Extinguishing media

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

Special hazards arising from the substrate or mixture

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

Advice for firefighters

Fire Fighting	▸ Alert Fire Brigade and tell them location and nature of hazard. ▸ Wear full body protective clothing with breathing apparatus. ▸ Prevent, by any means available, spillage from entering drains or water course. ▸ Use water delivered as a fine spray to control fire and cool adjacent area. ▸ Avoid spraying water onto liquid pools. ▸ **DO NOT** approach containers suspected to be hot. ▸ Cool fire exposed containers with water spray from a protected location. ▸ If safe to do so, remove containers from path of fire.
Fire/Explosion Hazard	▸ Combustible. ▸ Slight fire hazard when exposed to heat or flame. ▸ Heating may cause expansion or decomposition leading to violent rupture of containers. ▸ On combustion, may emit toxic fumes of carbon monoxide (CO). ▸ May emit acrid smoke. ▸ Mists containing combustible materials may be explosive. Combustion products include: carbon dioxide (CO_2) acrolein

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	nitrogen oxides (NOx) metal oxides other pyrolysis products typical of burning organic material. May emit poisonous fumes. May emit corrosive fumes.
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	Slippery when spilt. ▸ 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	Slippery when spilt. 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	▸ **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	▸ 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

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Suitable container	▸ Metal can or drum ▸ Packaging as recommended by manufacturer. ▸ Check all containers are clearly labelled and free from leaks.
Storage incompatibility	▸ Avoid strong acids, acid chlorides, acid anhydrides and chloroformates. ▸ Avoid reaction with oxidising agents

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	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	titanium dioxide	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	ferric hydroxide	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	ferric hydroxide	Iron oxide fume (Fe2O3) (as Fe)	5 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	C.I. Pigment Red 101	Iron oxide fume (Fe2O3) (as Fe)	5 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	C.I. Pigment Red 101	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	C.I. Pigment Blue 1	Molybdenum, soluble compounds (as Mo)	5 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	C.I. Pigment Black 7	Carbon black	3 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available

Emergency Limits

Ingredient	TEEL-1	TEEL-2	TEEL-3
calcium carbonate	45 mg/m3	210 mg/m3	1,300 mg/m3
propylene glycol	30 mg/m3	1,300 mg/m3	7,900 mg/m3
titanium dioxide	30 mg/m3	330 mg/m3	2,000 mg/m3
ferric hydroxide	30 mg/m3	330 mg/m3	2,000 mg/m3
ferric hydroxide	15 mg/m3	360 mg/m3	2,200 mg/m3
ferric hydroxide	24 mg/m3	260 mg/m3	1,600 mg/m3
C.I. Pigment Red 101	15 mg/m3	360 mg/m3	2,200 mg/m3
C.I. Pigment Black 11	21 mg/m3	230 mg/m3	1,400 mg/m3
C.I. Pigment Black 7	9 mg/m3	99 mg/m3	590 mg/m3

Ingredient	Original IDLH	Revised IDLH
linseed oil	Not Available	Not Available
calcium carbonate	Not Available	Not Available
castor oil, hydrogenated	Not Available	Not Available
fatty acids, C16-18 and C18-unsaturated	Not Available	Not Available
propylene glycol	Not Available	Not Available
titanium dioxide	5,000 mg/m3	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Yellow 3	Not Available	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Yellow 1	Not Available	Not Available
ferric hydroxide	2,500 mg/m3	Not Available

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Ingredient	Original IDLH	Revised IDLH
C.I. Pigment Red 101	2,500 mg/m3	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Orange 13	Not Available	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Red 48:2	Not Available	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Red 21	Not Available	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Blue 15	Not Available	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Black 11	Not Available	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Red 122	Not Available	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Blue 29	Not Available	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Blue 1	1,000 mg/m3	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Black 7	1,750 mg/m3	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Red 4	Not Available	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Red 146	Not Available	Not Available

Occupational Exposure Banding

Ingredient	Occupational Exposure Band Rating	Occupational Exposure Band Limit
linseed oil	E	≤ 0.1 ppm
C.I. Pigment Yellow 3	E	≤ 0.01 mg/m³
C.I. Pigment Yellow 1	E	≤ 0.01 mg/m³
C.I. Pigment Orange 13	C	> 0.1 to ≤ milligrams per cubic meter of air (mg/m³)
C.I. Pigment Red 21	C	> 0.1 to ≤ milligrams per cubic meter of air (mg/m³)
C.I. Pigment Black 11	E	≤ 0.01 mg/m³
Notes:	***Occupational exposure banding is a process of assigning chemicals into specific categories or bands based on a chemical's potency and the adverse health outcomes associated with exposure. The output of this process is an occupational exposure band (OEB), which corresponds to a range of exposure concentrations that are expected to protect worker health.***	

MATERIAL DATA

Exposure controls

Appropriate engineering controls

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

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.
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.

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

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	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 The selection of suitable gloves does not only depend on the material, but also on further marks of quality which vary from manufacturer to manufacturer. Where the chemical is a preparation of several substances, the resistance of the glove material can not be calculated in advance and has therefore to be checked prior to the application. The exact break through time for substances has to be obtained from the manufacturer of the protective gloves and has to be observed when making a final choice. Personal hygiene is a key element of effective hand care. Gloves must only be worn on clean hands. After using gloves, hands should be washed and dried thoroughly. Application of a non-perfumed moisturiser is recommended. Suitability and durability of glove type is dependent on usage. Important factors in the selection of gloves include: · frequency and duration of contact, · chemical resistance of glove material, · glove thickness and · dexterity Select gloves tested to a relevant standard (e.g. Europe EN 374, US F739, AS/NZS 2161.1 or national equivalent). · When prolonged or frequently repeated contact may occur, a glove with a protection class of 5 or higher (breakthrough time greater than 240 minutes according to EN 374, AS/NZS 2161.10.1 or national equivalent) is recommended. · When only brief contact is expected, a glove with a protection class of 3 or higher (breakthrough time greater than 60 minutes according to EN 374, AS/NZS 2161.10.1 or national equivalent) is recommended. · Some glove polymer types are less affected by movement and this should be taken into account when considering gloves for long-term use. · Contaminated gloves should be replaced. As defined in ASTM F-739-96 in any application, gloves are rated as: · Excellent when breakthrough time > 480 min · Good when breakthrough time > 20 min · Fair when breakthrough time < 20 min · Poor when glove material degrades For general applications, gloves with a thickness typically greater than 0.35 mm, are recommended. It should be emphasised that glove thickness is not necessarily a good predictor of glove resistance to a specific chemical, as the permeation efficiency of the glove will be dependent on the exact composition of the glove material. Therefore, glove selection should also be based on consideration of the task requirements and knowledge of breakthrough times. Glove thickness may also vary depending on the glove manufacturer, the glove type and the glove model. Therefore, the manufacturers technical data should always be taken into account to ensure selection of the most appropriate glove for the task. Note: Depending on the activity being conducted, gloves of varying thickness may be required for specific tasks. For example: · Thinner gloves (down to 0.1 mm or less) may be required where a high degree of manual dexterity is needed. However, these gloves are only likely to give short duration protection and would normally be just for single use applications, then disposed of. · Thicker gloves (up to 3 mm or more) may be required where there is a mechanical (as well as a chemical) risk i.e. where there is abrasion or puncture potential Gloves must only be worn on clean hands. After using gloves, hands should be washed and dried thoroughly. Application of a non-perfumed moisturiser is recommended.
Body protection	See Other protection below
Other protection	‣ Overalls. ‣ P.V.C apron. ‣ Barrier cream. ‣ Skin cleansing cream. ‣ Eye wash unit.

Recommended material(s)

GLOVE SELECTION INDEX

Glove selection is based on a modified presentation of the:
"Forsberg Clothing Performance Index".

Respiratory protection

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

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The effect(s) of the following substance(s) are taken into account in the ***computer-generated*** selection:
Reeves Oil 50ml Paint

Material	CPI
PE/EVAL/PE	A

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

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

Required Minimum Protection Factor	Half-Face Respirator	Full-Face Respirator	Powered Air Respirator
up to 10 x ES	A-AUS P2	-	A-PAPR-AUS / Class 1 P2
up to 50 x ES	-	A-AUS / Class 1 P2	-
up to 100 x ES	-	A-2 P2	A-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

SECTION 9 Physical and chemical properties

Information on basic physical and chemical properties

Appearance	Liquid.

Physical state	Liquid	**Relative density (Water = 1)**	Not Available
Odour	Not Available	**Partition coefficient n-octanol / water**	Not Available
Odour threshold	Not Available	**Auto-ignition temperature (°C)**	Not Available
pH (as supplied)	9-10	**Decomposition temperature (°C)**	Not Available
Melting point / freezing point (°C)	Not Applicable	**Viscosity (cSt)**	Not Available
Initial boiling point and boiling range (°C)	Not Applicable	**Molecular weight (g/mol)**	Not Applicable
Flash point (°C)	Not Applicable	**Taste**	Not Available
Evaporation rate	Not Available	**Explosive properties**	Not Available
Flammability	Not Applicable	**Oxidising properties**	Not Available
Upper Explosive Limit (%)	Not Applicable	**Surface Tension (dyn/cm or mN/m)**	Not Available
Lower Explosive Limit (%)	Not Applicable	**Volatile Component (%vol)**	Not Available
Vapour pressure (kPa)	Not Available	**Gas group**	Not Available
Solubility in water	Not Available	**pH as a solution (1%)**	Not Available
Vapour density (Air = 1)	Not Available	**VOC g/L**	Not Available

SECTION 10 Stability and reactivity

Reactivity	See section 7
Chemical stability	▸ Unstable in the presence of incompatible materials. ▸ Product is considered stable. ▸ Hazardous polymerisation will not occur.

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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	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. Not normally a hazard due to non-volatile nature of product Inhalation of oil droplets/ aerosols may cause discomfort and may produce chemical pneumonitis. Acute effects from inhalation of high concentrations of vapour are pulmonary irritation, including coughing, with nausea; central nervous system depression - characterised by headache and dizziness, increased reaction time, fatigue and loss of co-ordination
Ingestion	The material has **NOT** been classified by EC Directives or other classification systems as "harmful by ingestion". This is because of the lack of corroborating animal or human evidence. The material may still be damaging to the health of the individual, following ingestion, especially where pre-existing organ (e.g liver, kidney) damage is evident. Present definitions of harmful or toxic substances are generally based on doses producing mortality rather than those producing morbidity (disease, ill-health). Gastrointestinal tract discomfort may produce nausea and vomiting. In an occupational setting however, ingestion of insignificant quantities is not thought to be cause for concern.
Skin Contact	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. 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	When applied to the eye(s) of animals, the material produces severe ocular lesions which are present twenty-four hours or more after instillation.
Chronic	Long-term exposure to respiratory irritants may result in disease of the airways involving difficult breathing and related systemic problems.

Reeves Oil 50ml Paint	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	Not Available	Not Available
linseed oil	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	Oral (Rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[2]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
		Skin (human):300 mg/3days-moderate
		Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
calcium carbonate	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Eye (rabbit): 0.75 mg/24h - SEVERE
	Inhalation (Rat) LC50: >3 mg/l4h[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
	Oral (Rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Skin (rabbit): 500 mg/24h-moderate
		Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
castor oil, hydrogenated	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
	Oral (Rat) LD50: >5000 mg/kg[1]	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
fatty acids, C16-18 and C18-unsaturated	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	Not Available	Not Available

Continued...

propylene glycol	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	Dermal (rabbit) LD50: 11890 mg/kg[2]	Eye (rabbit): 100 mg - mild
	Inhalation (Rat) LC50: >44.9 mg/l4h[1]	Eye (rabbit): 500 mg/24h - mild
	Oral (Rat) LD50: 20000 mg/kg[2]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
		Skin(human):104 mg/3d Intermit Mod
		Skin(human):500 mg/7days mild
		Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
titanium dioxide	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	dermal (hamster) LD50: >=10000 mg/kg[2]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
	Inhalation (Rat) LC50: >2.28 mg/l4h[1]	Skin (human): 0.3 mg /3D (int)-mild *
	Oral (Rat) LD50: >=2000 mg/kg[1]	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
C.I. Pigment Yellow 3	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
	Oral (Rat) LD50: >10000 mg/kg[2]	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
C.I. Pigment Yellow 1	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
	Oral (Rat) LD50: >5000 mg/kg[2]	Non-irritating/non-sensitising [Dominion]
		Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
ferric hydroxide	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	Oral (Rat) LD50: >10000 mg/kg[2]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
		Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
C.I. Pigment Red 101	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	Oral (Rat) LD50: >5000 mg/kg[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
		Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
C.I. Pigment Orange 13	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
	Oral (Rat) LD50: >10000 mg/kg[2]	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
C.I. Pigment Red 48:2	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	dermal (rat) LD50: >2500 mg/kg[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
	Inhalation (Rat) LC50: >=4.76 mg/l4h[1]	Eyes (rabbit) (-) (-) Non-irrit. [Manufacturer}
	Oral (Rat) LD50: >5000 mg/kg[2]	Skin (rabbit) (-) (-) Non-irrit.
		Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
C.I. Pigment Red 21	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	Not Available	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Blue 15	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Eye (human): non-irritant [Manuf. C.G.]
	Inhalation (Rat) LC50: >1.084<5.212 mg/l4h[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
	Oral (Rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Skin (human): non-irritant
		Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
C.I. Pigment Black 11	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	Oral (Rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
		Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]

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C.I. Pigment Red 122	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	Dermal (rabbit) LD50: >3000 mg/kg[2]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
	Oral (Rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
C.I. Pigment Blue 29	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	Oral (Rat) LD50: >10000 mg/kg[2]	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Blue 1	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	Oral (Rat) LD50: >5000 mg/kg[2]	Eye: adverse effect observed (irritating)[1]
		Skin: adverse effect observed (irritating)[1]
C.I. Pigment Black 7	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	Dermal (rabbit) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
	Oral (Rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
C.I. Pigment Red 4	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
	Oral (Mouse) LD50; >10000 mg/kg[1]	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating)[1]
C.I. Pigment Red 146	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	Oral (Rat) LD50: 10000 mg/kg[2]	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***	

LINSEED OIL

* Akzo Nobel SDS
The following information refers to contact allergens as a group and may not be specific to this product.
Contact allergies quickly manifest themselves as contact eczema, more rarely as urticaria or Quincke's oedema. The pathogenesis of contact eczema involves a cell-mediated (T lymphocytes) immune reaction of the delayed type. Other allergic skin reactions, e.g. contact urticaria, involve antibody-mediated immune reactions. The significance of the contact allergen is not simply determined by its sensitisation potential: the distribution of the substance and the opportunities for contact with it are equally important. A weakly sensitising substance which is widely distributed can be a more important allergen than one with stronger sensitising potential with which few individuals come into contact. From a clinical point of view, substances are noteworthy if they produce an allergic test reaction in more than 1% of the persons tested.
A high consumption of oxidised polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs), which are found in most types of vegetable oil, may increase the likelihood that postmenopausal women will develop breast cancer. Similar effect was observed on prostate cancer, but the study was performed on mice Another "analysis suggested an inverse association between total polyunsaturated fatty acids and breast cancer risk, but individual polyunsaturated fatty acids behaved differently [from each other]. [...] a 20:2 derivative of linoleic acid [...] was inversely associated with the risk of breast cancer"
PUFAs are prone to spontaneous oxidation/ peroxidation. The feeding of lipid oxidation products and oxidised fats has been reported to cause adverse biological effects on laboratory animals, including growth retardation, teratogenicity, tissue damage and increased liver and kidney weights, as well as cellular damage to the testes and epididymes, increased peroxidation of membrane and tissue lipids and induction of cytochrome P450 activities in the colon and liver.
The propensity for PUFAs to oxidise leads to the generation of free radicals and eventually to rancidity.
Culinary oils, when heated, undergo important chemical reaction involving self-sustaining, free radical-mediated oxidative deterioration of PUFAs. Such by-products may be cytotoxic, mutagenic, reproductive toxins and may produce chronic disease.
Samples of repeatedly used oils collected from fast-food retail outlets and restaurants have confirmed the production of aldehydic lipid oxidation products (LOPs) at levels exceeding 10 exp-2 moles per kilogram (mol/kg) during “on-site” frying episodes. Volatile emissions from heated culinary oils used in Chinese-style cooking are mutagenic; exposure to such indoor air pollution may render humans more susceptible to contracting lung or further cancers, together with rhinitis and diminished lung function. The high temperatures used in standard (especially Chinese) frying result in fumes that are rich in volatile LOPs, including acrolein.
The end products of lipid peroxidation are reactive aldehydes, such as malondialdehyde (MDA) and 4-hydroxynonenal (HNE), the second one being known also as "second messenger of free radicals" and major bioactive marker of lipid peroxidation, due to its numerous biological activities resembling activities of reactive oxygen species. end-products of lipid peroxidation may be mutagenic and carcinogenic malondialdehyde reacts with deoxyadenosine and deoxyguanosine in DNA, forming DNA adducts. Malondialdehyde produces mutagenic effects in several bioassays.
Side products of lipid peroxidation can also exert toxic effects, even at sites distant from the primary oxidation site. Such products (typically malondialdehyde and a large group of hydroxyalkenals - alpha-beta-unsaturated aldehydes) may interact with protein thiols (producing intermolecular cross-links) and, as a result produce functional impairment to enzyme systems, receptors and structural proteins. Aldehydes may also inhibit protein biosynthesis and increase osmotic fragility of lysosymes (releasing hydrolytic enzymes) and other subcellular organelles. They may also react with nucleic acids.
The toxicity of lipid hydroperoxides to animals is best illustrated by the lethal phenotype of glutathione peroxidase 4 (GPX4) knockout mice. These animals do not survive past embryonic day 8, indicating that the removal of lipid hydroperoxides is essential for mammalian life.

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Peroxidised linoleic acid applied to the shaved skin of guinea pigs, in a patch test experiment, produced necrosis and bleeding.
When the abdominal skin of guinea pig was patched for 8 days with a cream containing 25 nmol (in terms of malondialdehyde) of lipid peroxides per gram, a thickening of the epidermis was found
Lipid peroxidation in cellular membranes may produce several morphological alterations resulting, for example, in membrane aggregation, deformation or breakage. This may result in the release of hydrolytic enzymes which in turn may degrade functional macromolecules and cause secondary damage. In addition membrane-bound enzyme systems may be disrupted.
For aliphatic fatty acids (and salts)
Acute oral (gavage) toxicity:
The acute oral LD50 values in rats for both were greater than >2000 mg/kg bw Clinical signs were generally associated with poor condition following administration of high doses (salivation, diarrhoea, staining, piloerection and lethargy).There were no adverse effects on body weight in any study In some studies, excess test substance and/or irritation in the gastrointestinal tract was observed at necropsy.
Skin and eye irritation potential, with a few stated exceptions, is chain length dependent and decreases with increasing chain length
According to several OECD test regimes the animal skin irritation studies indicate that the C6-10 aliphatic acids are severely irritating or corrosive, while the C12 aliphatic acid is irritating, and the C14-22 aliphatic acids generally are not irritating or mildly irritating.
Human skin irritation studies using more realistic exposures (30-minute,1-hour or 24-hours) indicate that the aliphatic acids have sufficient, good or very good skin compatibility.
Animal eye irritation studies indicate that among the aliphatic acids, the C8-12 aliphatic acids are irritating to the eye while the C14-22 aliphatic acids are not irritating.
Eye irritation potential of the ammonium salts does not follow chain length dependence; the C18 ammonium salts are corrosive to the eyes.
Dermal absorption:
The in vitro penetration of C10, C12, C14, C16 and C18 fatty acids (as sodium salt solutions) through rat skin decreases with increasing chain length. At 86.73 ug C16/cm2 and 91.84 ug C18/cm2, about 0.23% and less than 0.1% of the C16 and C18 soap solutions is absorbed after 24 h exposure, respectively.
Sensitisation:
No sensitisation data were located.
Repeat dose toxicity:
Repeated dose oral (gavage or diet) exposure to aliphatic acids did not result in systemic toxicity with NOAELs greater than the limit dose of 1000 mg/kg bw. .
Mutagenicity
Aliphatic acids do not appear to be mutagenic or clastogenic in vitro or in vivo
Carcinogenicity
No data were located for carcinogenicity of aliphatic fatty acids.
Reproductive toxicity
No effects on fertility or on reproductive organs, or developmental effects were observed in studies on aliphatic acids and the NOAELs correspond to the maximum dose tested. The weight of evidence supports the lack of reproductive and developmental toxicity potential of the aliphatic acids category.

Given the large number of substances in this category, their closely related chemical structure, expected trends in physical chemical properties, and similarity of toxicokinetic properties, both mammalian and aquatic endpoints were filled using read-across to the closest structural analogue, and selecting the most conservative supporting substance effect level.
Structure-activity relationships are not evident for the mammalian toxicity endpoints.That is, the low mammalian toxicity of this category of substances limits the ability to discern structural effects on biological activity. Regardless, the closest structural analogue with the most conservative effect value was selected for read across. Irritation is observed for chain lengths up to a cut-off" at or near 12 carbons).
Metabolism:
The aliphatic acids share a common degradation pathway in which they are metabolized to acetyl-CoA or other key metabolites in all living systems. Common biological pathways result in structurally similar breakdown products, and are, together with the physico-chemical properties, responsible for similar environmental behavior and essentially identical hazard profiles with regard to human health.
Differences in metabolism or biodegradability of even and odd numbered carbon chain compounds or saturated/ unsaturated compounds are not expected; even-and odd-numbered carbon chain compounds, and the saturated and unsaturated compounds are naturally occurring and are expected to be metabolized and biodegraded in the same manner.
The acid and alkali salt forms of the homologous aliphatic acid are expected to have many similar physicochemical and toxicological properties when they become bioavailable; therefore,data read across is used for those instances where data are available for the acid form but not the salt, and vice versa. In the gastrointestinal tract, acids and bases are absorbed in the undissociated (non-ionised) form by simple diffusion or by facilitated diffusion. It is expected that both the acids and the salts will be present in (or converted to) the acid form in the stomach. This means that for both aliphatic acid or aliphatic acid salt,the same compounds eventually enter the small intestine, where equilibrium, as a result of increased pH, will shift towards dissociation (ionised form).
Hence, the situation will be similar for compounds originating from acids and therefore no differences in uptake are anticipated
Note that the saturation or unsaturation level is not a factor in the toxicity of these substances and is not a critical component of the read across process..
Toxicokinetics:
The turnover of the [14C] surfactants in the rat showed that there was no significant difference in the rate or route of excretion of 14C given by intraperitoneal or subcutaneous administration. The main route of excretion was as 14CO2 in the expired air at 6 h after administration. The remaining material was incorporated in the body. Longer fatty acid chains are more readily incorporated than shorter chains. At ca. 1.55 and 1.64 mg/kg bw, 71% of the C16:0 and 56% of the C18:0 was incorporated and 21% and 38% was excreted as 14CO2, respectively.

Glycidyl fatty acid esters (GEs), one of the main contaminants in processed oils, are mainly formed during the deodorisation step in the refining process of edible oils and therefore occur in almost all refined edible oils. GEs are potential carcinogens, due to the fact that they readily hydrolyze into the free form glycidol in the gastrointestinal tract, which has been found to induce tumours in various rat tissues. Therefore, significant effort has been devoted to inhibit and eliminate the formation of GEs

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GEs contain a common terminal epoxide group but exhibit different fatty acid compositions. This class of compounds has been reported in edible oils after overestimation of 3-monochloropropane-1,2-diol (3-MCPD) fatty acid esters analysed by an indirect method , 3-MCPD esters have been studied as food processing contaminants and are found in various food types and food ingredients, particularly in refined edible oils. 3-Monochloropropane-1,2-diol (3-MCPD) and 2-monochloropropane-1,3-diol (2-MCPD) are chlorinated derivatives of glycerol (1,2,3-propanetriol). 3- and 2-MCPD and their fatty acid esters are among non-volatile chloropropanols, Glycidol is associated with the formation and decomposition of 3- and 2-MCPD. It forms monoesters with fatty acids (GE) during the refining of vegetable oils. Chloropropanols are formed in HVP during the hydrochloric acid-mediated hydrolysis step of the manufacturing process. In food production, chloropropanols form from the reaction of endogenous or added chloride with glycerol or acylglycerol.
Although harmful effects on humans and animals have not been demonstrated, the corresponding hydrolysates, 3-MCPD and glycidol, have been identified as rodent genotoxic carcinogens, ultimately resulting in the formation of kidney tumours (3-MCPD) and tumours at other tissue sites (glycidol). Therefore, 3-MCPD and glycidol have been categorised as ‘‘possible human carcinogens (group 2B) and “probably carcinogenic to humans (group 2A), respectively, by the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC).
Diacylglyceride (DAG) based oils produced by one company were banned from the global market due to “high levels” of GEs. Several reports have also suggested that a bidirectional transformation process may occur not only between glycidol and 3-MCPD but also their esterified forms in the presence of chloride ions. The transformation rate of glycidol to 3-MCPD was higher than that of 3-MCPD to glycidol under acidic conditions in the presence of chloride ion.
Precursors of GEs in refined oils have been identified as partial acylglycerols, that is, DAGs and monoacylglycerides (MAGs); however, whether they also originate from triacylglycerides (TAGs) is still a topic of controversial debates. Several authors noted that pure TAGs were stable during heat treatment (such as 235 deg C) for 3 h and were therefore not involved in the formation of GEs. However, experimental results have shown that small amounts of GEs are present in a heat-treated oil model consisting of almost 100% TAGs. The formation of GEs from TAGs can be attributed to the pyrolysis of TAGs to DAGs and MAGs. In contrast, 3-MCPD esters in refined oils can be obtained from TAG . Presently, the mechanism for the formation of GE intermediates and the relationship between GEs and 3-MCPD esters are still unknown.
Epoxidation of double bonds is a common bioactivation pathway for alkenes. The allylic epoxides, so formed, were found to possess sensitising capacity in vivo and in vitro and to chemically reactive towards a common hexapeptide containing the most common nucleophilic amino acids. Further-more, a SAR study of potentially prohaptenic alkenes demonstrated that conjugated dienes in or in conjunction with a six-membered ring are prohaptens, whereas related alkenes containing isolated double bonds or an acyclic conjugated diene were weak or nonsensitizing compounds.This difference in sensitizing capacity of conjugated dienes as compared to alkenes with isolated double bonds was found to be due to the high reactivity and sensitizing capacity of the allylic epoxides metabolically formed from conjugated dienes.
Allergic Contact Dermatitis—Formation, Structural Requirements,and Reactivity of Skin Sensitizers.
Ann-Therese Karlberg et al: Chem. Res. Toxicol. 2008, 21, pp 53–69
https://ftp.cdc.gov/pub/Documents/OEL/06.%20Dotson/References/Karlberg_2008.pdf
For Group E aliphatic esters (polyol esters):
According to a classification scheme described by the American Chemistry Council' Aliphatic Esters Panel, Group E substances are esters of monoacids, mainly common fatty acids, and trihydroxy or polyhydroxyalcohols or polyols, such as pentaerythritol (PE), 2-ethyl-2-(hydroxymethyl)- 1,3-propanediol or trimethylolpropane (TMP), and dipentaerythritol (diPE). The Group E substances often are referred to as "polyol esters" The polyol esters are unique in their chemical characteristics since they lack beta-tertiary hydrogen atoms, thus leading to stability against oxidation and elimination. The fatty acids often range from C5-C10 to as high as C18 (e.g., oleic, stearic, isostearic, tall oil fatty acids) in carbon number and generally are derived from naturally occurring sources. Group E esters may have multiple ester linkages and may include mixed esters derived from different carbon-length fatty acid mixtures. The lack of beta-tertiary hydrogen atoms in the structure of the polyol esters makes them characteristically and chemically stable against oxidation and elimination in comparison to other ester classes or groups. For these reasons, trimethylolpropane (TMP) and pentaerythritol (PE) esters with fatty acids of C5 to C10 carbon-chain length have applications as synthetic lubricants for passenger car motor oil and military and civilian jet engines. TMP and PE esters of C18 acids (e.g., isostearic and oleic acids) also have found use in synthetic lubricant applications, including refrigeration lubricants and hydraulic fluids. Because of their higher thermal stability characteristics, they also find use in a variety of high temperature applications such as industrial oven chain oils, high temperature greases, fire resistant transformer coolants and turbine engines
Polyol esters that are extensively esterified also have greater polarity, less volatility and enhanced lubricity characteristics. **Acute toxicity:** Depending on the degree of esterification, the polyol esters can be resistant or slow towards chemical or enzymatic hydrolysis (i.e., esterase or lipases) as a result of steric hindrance. PE and diPE esters that are capable of being enzymatically hydrolyzed will generate pentaerythritol or dipentaerythritol, and the corresponding fatty acids which, for most of the Group E esters, are comprised mainly of oleic, linoleic and stearic acids as well as the fatty acids in the C5-10 carbon-length. Similarly, TMP esters can undergo metabolism to yield trimethylolpropane (2-ethyl-2-hydroxymethyl-1,3-propanediol) and fatty acid constituents. Pentaerythritol and trimethylolpropane have been reported to have a low order of toxicity The acute oral LD50 for these substances was greater than 2000 mg/kg indicating a relatively low order of toxicity. The similarity in the low order of toxicity for these substances is consistent with their similar chemical structure and physicochemical properties.
Metabolic studies of polyglyceryl esters indicated that these esters are hydrolyzed in the gastrointestinal (GI) tract, and utilization and digestibility studies supported the assumption that the fatty acid moiety is metabolized in the normal manner. Analytical studies have produced no evidence of accumulation of the polyglycerol moiety in body tissues.
In an acute dermal toxicity study in rats, the LD50 of 1,2,3-propanetriol, homopolymer, diisooctadecanoate was>5000 mg/kg Low toxicity was reported in acute oral studies. In rats, the LD50 >2000 mg/kg for polyglyceryl-3 caprate, polyglyceryl-3 caprylate, polyglyceryl-4 caprate, diisostearoyl polyglyceryl-3 dimer dilinoleate, and the LD50 was >5000 mg/kg for polyglyceryl-3 iso-stearate, polyglyceryl-3-oleate, polyglyceryl-2 diisostearate and polyglyceryl-3 diisostearate.
The ability to enhance skin penetration was examined for several of the polyglyceryl fatty acid esters.
Repeat dose toxicity: Polyol esters are generally well tolerated by rats in 28-day oral toxicity studies. NOAEL for these substances was 1000 mg/kg/day in Sprague-Dawley rats. The TMP ester of heptanoic and octanoic acid did not produce signs of overt systemic toxicity at any dose levels tested (i.e., 100, 300, and 1000 mg/kg/day). There were no treatment-related clinical in-life, functional observation battery, or gross postmortem findings. There were no treatment related mortality, and no adverse effects on body weight, food consumption, clinical laboratory parameters, or organ weights. However, there were increased numbers of hyaline droplets in the proximal cortical tubular epithelium of the 300 and 1000 mg/kg/day in male rats. Based on these findings (hyaline droplets), the NOAEL for this polyol ester
was established at 100 mg/kg/day for male rats. Hyaline droplet formation observed in the male kidneys is believed to be a sex/species condition specific to only male rats, which has little relevance to humans.

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The results from these repeated dose dermal toxicity studies suggest that polyol esters exhibit a low order of toxicity following repeated application. This may be attributable to similarities in their chemical structures, physicochemical properties, and common metabolic pathways (i.e., esters can be enzymatically hydrolyzed to the corresponding polyalcohol and the corresponding fatty acids) The polyol, hexanedioic acid, mixed esters with decanoic acid, heptanoic acid, octanoic acid and PE, was applied to the skin of groups of 10 (male and female) rats for five days a week for four (4) weeks at dose levels of 0, 125, 500 and 2000 mg/kg/day. Treated animals exhibited no signs indicative of systemic toxicity. No visible signs of irritation were observed a treatment sites. Microscopically, treated skin (viz., greater than or equal to 500 mg/kg/day) exhibited a dose-related increased incidence and severity of hyperplasia and hyperkeratosis of the epidermis and sebaceous gland hyperplasia. These effects were reversible. None of the minor changes in haematology and serum chemistry parameters were considered biologically significant. High dose females (2000 mg/kg/day) exhibited a significant increase in relative adrenal and brain weights when compared to the controls. These differences were attributed to the lower final body weight of the female animals. The NOAEL in this study for systemic toxicity was established as 500 mg /kg/day and 125 mg/kg/day for skin irritation.
Two 28-day study conducted with fatty acids, C5-10, esters with pentaerythritol (CAS RN: 68424-31-7) and dipentaerythritol ester of n-C5/iso-C9 acids (CAS RN: 647028-25-9) showed no signs of overt toxicity. The 90-day study pentaerythritol ester of pentanoic acids and isononanoic acid (CAS RN: 146289-36-3) did not show any signs of overt toxicity. However, increased kidney and liver weights in the male animals was observed. In conclusion, since the effects observed are not considered to be systemic and relevant for humans, the NOAEL was found to exceed 1000 mg/kg bw for all substances based on the result from the 28 and 90-day studies.
Reproductive and developmental toxicity: Since metabolism of the polyol esters can occur, leading to the generation of the corresponding fatty acids and the polyol alcohol (such as pentaerthyritol, trimethylolpropane, and dipentaerythritol), the issue of whether these metabolites may pose any potential reproductive/developmental toxicity concerns is important.. However, the polyol alcohols such as pentaerthyritol, trimethylolpropane, and dipentaerythritol, would be expected to undergo further metabolism, conjugation and excretion in the urine. Available evidence indicates that these ester hydrolysates (i.e., hydrolysis products), primarily fatty acids (e.g., heptanoic, octanoic, and decanoic acids) and secondarily the polyol alcohols should exhibit a low order of reproductive toxicity. it can be concluded that this group of high molecular weight polyol esters should not produce profound reproductive effects in rodents.
Genotoxicity: Polyols tested for genetic activity in the Salmonella assay, have been found to be inactive. Several polyol esters have been adequately tested for chromosomal mutation in the in vitro mammalian chromosome aberration assay, and all were inactive. Two TMP esters were also tested for in vivo chromosomal aberration in rats, and both demonstrated no activity. Thus, it is unlikely that these substances are chromosomal mutagens.
Carcinogenicity: In a 2-yr study, 28 male and 28 female rats were fed 5% polyglyceryl ester in the diet. No adverse effects on body weight, feed consumption, haematology values, or survival rate were noted. Liver function tests and renal function tests performed at 59 and 104 wks of the study were comparable between the test group and a control group fed 5% ground nut oil. The carcass fat contained no polyglycerol, and the levels of free fatty acid, unsaponifiable residue and fatty acid composition of carcass fat were not different from the controls. Organ weights, tumour incidence and tumour distribution were similar in control and test groups. A complete histological examination of major organs showed nothing remarkable
For polyunsaturated fatty acids and oils (triglycerides)
Studies on animals have shown a link between polyunsaturated fat and the incidence of tumours. In some of these studies the incidence of tumours increased with increasing intake of polyunsaturated fat, up to about 5% of total energy, near to the middle of the current dietary intake in humans.
The propensity for polyunsaturated fats to oxidise is another possible risk factor. This leads to the generation of free radicals and eventually to rancidity
Research evidence suggests that consuming high amounts of polyunsaturated fat may increase the risk of cancer spreading. Researchers found that linoleic acid in polyunsaturated fats produced increasing membrane phase separation, and thereby increased adherence of circulating tumour cells to blood vessel walls and remote organs.
At least one study in mice has shown that consuming high amounts of polyunsaturated fat (but not monounsaturated fat) may increase the risk of metastasis in cancer.
Lipid peroxides with complex components can damage macromolecules, such as DNA, proteins, and membrane lipids. Some components of lipid peroxides, for example, 4,5(E)-epoxy-2(E)-heptenal (EH) can react with L-lysine and damage proteins . 4,5-epoxy-2-alkenals can react with phenylalanine and cause strecker-type degradation of amino acids. Autoxidized methyl linoleate can decrease DNA synthesis in thymocytes Animals consuming oxidized lipids suffered a wide array of biological consequences, such as decreased feed utilization and performance, oxidative stress and tissue lipid oxidation and, most strikingly, adverse effects on redox indices and shelf life of meat. This manifested in malondialdehyde (MDA) content reduced activities of antioxidant enzymes and elevated transcript levels of oxidative stress-responsive genes
The intestinal mucosa is directly exposed to oxidized fatty acids of dietary origin and this tissue readily experiences redox imbalances and oxidative stress after the ingestion of large amounts of oxidized fat . As the first line of defense, the intestines with abundant gut-associated lymphoid tissues (GALTs) and lymphocytes play an important role in immune defense. The immune response in the intestinal tract is complex and is impaired by any damage to the mucosal barrier. When oxidative stress of the intestines caused by oxidized fat occurs, its immune competence and responsiveness may be compromised by the peroxides they contain
When body insulin levels are low, fatty acids flow from the fat cells into the bloodstream and are taken up by various cells and metabolised in a process called beta-oxidation. The end result of beta-oxidation is a molecule called acetyl-coA, and as more fatty acids are released and metabolised, acetyl-coA levels in the cells rise. Liver cells shunt excess acetyl-coA into "ketogenesis", or the making of ketone bodies. When the rate of synthesis of ketone bodies exceeds the rate of utilisation, their concentration in blood increases; this is known as ketonaemia. This is followed by ketonuria – excretion of ketone bodies in urine. The overall picture of ketonaemia and ketonuria is commonly referred as ketosis. Smell of acetone in breath is a common feature in ketosis
For polyunsaturated fatty acids and oils (triglycerides), products of heating and recycling.*
Culinary oils, when heated, undergo important chemical reaction involving self-sustaining, free radical-mediated oxidative deterioration of polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs). Such by-products may be cytotoxic, mutagenic, reproductive toxins and may produce chronic disease.
Saturated fatty acid (SFA)-rich fats also undergo such reactions but to a substantially lower degree.
Samples of repeatedly used oils collected from fast-food retail outlets and restaurants have confirmed the production of aldehydic lipid oxidation products (LOPs, active aldehydes) at levels exceeding 10 exp-2 moles per kilogram (mol/kg) during “on-site” frying episodes. Volatile emissions from heated culinary oils used in Chinese-style cooking are mutagenic; exposure to such indoor air pollution may render humans more susceptible to contracting lung or further cancers, together with rhinitis and

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diminished lung function. The high temperatures used in standard (especially Chinese) frying result in fumes that are rich in volatile LOPs, including acrolein.
Teratogenic actions. In principle, if aldehydic LOPs induce DNA and chromosomal damage during embryo development, foetal malformations may arise. A study was conducted to investigate the ability of the chain-breaking antioxidant a-tocopherol (a-TOH, vitamin E) to prevent the teratogenic effects of uncontrolled diabetes mellitus in rats (a study based on the hypothesis that diabetic animals have an elevated level of oxidative stress and therefore in vivo lipid peroxidation when expressed relative to that of healthy controls). It found that a PUFA-rich culinary oil (which served as a vehicle for oral administration of a-TOH) increased the rate of malformations and reabsorptions in both normal and diabetic pregnancies. Further investigations revealed that safflower oil subjected to thermal stressing episodes (according to standard frying practices for a period of 20 minutes) markedly enhanced its teratogenic effects. That is, the evidence indicates that the LOPs therein are primarily responsible for these actions.
Further adverse health effects of dietary LOPs. Further documented health effects of LOPs include their pro-inflammatory and gastropathic properties (for the latter, oral administration of the LOP, 4-hydroxy-trans-2-nonenal -HNE- to rats at a dose level of only 0.26 umol·dm-3, a level similar to that of healthy human blood plasma, induced peptic ulcers), and also a significant elevation in systolic blood pressure and an impaired vasorelaxation observed in rats fed pre-heated soy oil
Oxidative degradation process involving culinary oils, can generate extremely toxic conjugated lipid hydroperoxydienes (CHPDs). These are unstable at standard frying temperatures (ca. 180 degrees C) and are degraded to a broad range of secondary products, particularly saturated and unsaturated aldehydes, together with di- and epoxyaldehydes. Such aldehydic fragments also have toxicological properties in humans owing to their high reactivity with critical biomolecules in vivo (proteins such as low-density lipoprotein, amino acids, thiols such as glutathione, DNA, etc.). Despite their reactivities, high levels of CHPDs can remain in PUFA-rich oils which have been subjected to routine frying practices.
Thermally stressed PUFA-containing culinary oils contain high levels of alpha,beta-unsaturated aldehydes (including trans-2-alkenals, and cis,trans- and trans,trans-alka-2,4-dienals, the latter including the mutagen trans,trans-2,4-decadienal), and n-alkanals, together with their CHPD and hydroxydiene precursors .
Toxicological and pathogenic properties of dietary LOPS
Potential influence of dietary LOPS on metabolic pathways. As a consequence of their absorption from the gut into the systemic circulation, LOPs may penetrate cellular membranes, allowing their entry into particular intracellular sites/organelles where many critical metabolic processes occur. Literature evidence indicates that feeding thermally stressed or repeatedly used culinary oils to experimental animals induces significant modifications to key liver microsomal pathways and to the mitochondrial respiratory chain, for example. These effects are likely to occur via reactions of LOPs with key enzymes (and more especially their active sites), for example, the oxidation of active methioninyl and cysteinyl residues by CHPDs, or alteration of critical side-chain amino acid amine or thiol groups with aldehydes via Schiff base or Michael addition reactions.
Atherosclerosis. Investigations have revealed that dietary derived LOPs can accelerate all three stages of the development of atherosclerosis (i.e., endothelial injury, accumulation of plaque, and thrombosis). Animal studies have shown that diets containing thermally stressed, PUFA-laden (and hence LOP-rich) oils exhibit a greater atherogenicity than those containing unheated ones . Because cytotoxic aldehydes can be absorbed, they have the capacity to attack and structurally alter the apolipoprotein B component of low density lipoproteins (LDLs). This mechanism can engender uptake of lipid-loaded LDLs by macrophages, which, in turn, transforms them to foam cells, the accumulation of which is responsible for the development of aortic fatty streaks, a hallmark of the aetiology of atherosclerosis and its pathological sequelae. More recently, our co-investigators found that aldehydic LOPs elevated the expression of the CD36 scavenger receptor of macrophages, a phenomenon that also promotes this process .
Mutagenic and carcinogenic properties. Since they are powerful electrophilic alkylating agents, alpha,beta-unsaturated aldehydes can covalently modify DNA base units via a mechanistically complex process that may involve their prior epoxidation in vivo.Such chemically altered bases may therefore be of mutagenic potential. Additionally, these LOPs can inactivate DNA replicating systems, a process that can, at least in principle, elevate the extent of DNA damage. Hence, following cellular uptake, such aldehydes have the potential to cause both DNA and chromosomal damage.
Malondialdehyde (MDA) is also generated by thermally stressing culinary oils, although at concentrations much lower than those of the more reactive alpha,beta-unsaturated aldehydes. MDA and other aldehydes arising from lipid peroxidation (especially acrolein) present a serious carcinogenic hazard. Indeed, adenomas and carcinomas of the thyroid gland, together with adenomas of the pancreatic islet cells, were induced in rats by MDA in a prolonged gavage study; nasal and laryngeal cancers arose in rats and hamsters, respectively, during long-term acetaldehyde inhalation experiments. Hence, both these aldehydes satisfied the NIOSH criteria for classification as carcinogens, and therefore it has set exacting limits for their occupational exposure.
The most obvious solution to the generation of LOPs in culinary oils during frying is to avoid consuming foods fried in PUFA-rich oils as much as possible. Indeed, consumers, together with those involved in the fast-food sector, could employ culinary oils of only a low PUFA content, or mono-unsaturated fatty acids (MUFA) such as canola (a variety of rape seed oil), olive oil, (both oils are rich in oleic acid) selected palm oils (rich in palmitic acid), or coconut oils (an SFA alternative rich in lauric and myristic acids) - for frying MUFAs such as oleoylglycerol adducts are much more resistant to peroxidative degradation than are PUFAs , and hence markedly lower levels of only selected classes of aldehydes are generated during frying.
Previous studies that investigated the prospective health effects or benefits of dietary PUFAs (i.e., those involving feeding trials with humans or animals or, alternatively, related epidemiological ones) should be scrutinized. With hindsight, it seems to us that many of these experimental investigations were flawed since, in addition to some major design faults, they failed to take into account or even consider the nature and concentrations of any cytotoxic LOPs present in the oils or diets involved. Similarly, corresponding epidemiological (or meta-analysis-based) investigations incorporated only the (estimated) total dietary intake of selected PUFAs and further fatty acids, and ignored any LOPs derived or derivable from frying/cooking. Even if PUFA containing culinary oils are unheated, it is virtually impossible to rule out the presence of traces of LOPs within them (analysis of apparently pure PUFAs or their corresponding triglycerides obtained from reputable commercial sources has revealed that these materials contain traces of CHPDs and/or aldehydes
As expected, the levels of total aldehydes generated increase proportionately with oil PUFA content, and over half are the more highly cytotoxic alpha,beta-unsaturated classes, which include acrolein and 4-hydroxy-trans-2-nonenal (HNE), as well as 4-hydroperoxy-, 4-hydroxy-, and 4,5-epoxy-trans-2-alkenals. Total alpha,beta-unsaturated aldehyde concentrations in culinary oils (heated at 180 deg C for 30-90 minutes or longer) are often higher than 20 mmol/kg and can sometimes approach 50 mmol/kg. Furthermore, relatively low concentrations of detectable aldehydes and their CHPD precursors are even found in newly purchased unheated culinary oils.
Acrylamide (which can exert toxic effects on the nervous system and fertility, and may also be carcinogenic) can also arise from an acrolein source when asparagine-rich foods are deep-fried in PUFA-rich oils. The levels of acrylamide generated in foods during high-temperature cooking/frying processes are substantially lower than those recorded for aldehydes formed in PUFA-rich culinary oils during frying episodes (to date, the very highest reported levels are only ca. 4 ppm, equivalent to 56 umol/kg).

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Acrolein is just one of the alpha,beta-unsaturated aldehydes generated in thermally stressed PUFA-rich oils: Many others generated in this manner have comparable toxicological properties The foregoing considerations exclude possible toxicological properties of their isomeric CHPD precursors (also present in the high millimolar range in thermally stressed oils) in a typical fried food meal. Indeed, in one early investigation, a single intravenous dose of methyl linoleate hydroperoxide (20 mg/kg) administered to rats gave rise to a high mortality within 24 hours (animals dying from lung damage), although a higher dose given orally was without effect. This observation may reflect the limited in vivo absorption of these particular aldehyde precursors, in contrast to the known absorption of aldehydes.
Furthermore, with regard to the risk of inhalation of aldehydes volatilised during frying practices by humans, the maximum US Occupational Safety and Health (OSHA) permissible exposure limit (PEL) for acrolein, which is an (atmospheric) level of 0.1 ppm (equivalent to only 1.8 umol/kg in the fried food model) for a time-weighted long-term (8 hour) exposure, and 0.3 ppm (5.4 umol/kg)for a short-term (15 minute) one. This 15-minute exposure time can be considered to be less than the time taken to consume a typical fried meal
The concentrations of aldehydes generated in culinary oils during episodes of heating at 180 deg C represent only what remains in the oil: Owing to their low boiling points, many of the aldehydes generated are volatilized at standard frying temperatures. These represent inhalation health hazards, in view of their inhalation by humans, especially workers in inadequately ventilated fast-food retail outlets.
The composition and content of hazardous LOPs available in fried foods depend on the identity of the frying/cooking oil and its PUFA content, the frying conditions employed, the length of the frying process, exposure of the frying medium to atmospheric oxygen, the reactivities of these agents with a range of other biomolecules (e.g., amino acids and proteins), and, to a limited extent, the antioxidant content of the frying matrix. Experiments have shown that shallow frying gives rise to much higher levels of LOPs than deep frying under the same conditions (reflecting the influence of the surface area of the frying medium, its exposure to atmospheric oxygen, and the subsequent dilution of LOPs generated into the bulk medium).
In vivo absorption of dietary LOPs
Except for direct damage to the gastrointestinal epithelium, the toxicological actions exerted by LOPs depend on their rate and extent of absorption from the gut into the systemic circulation where they may cause damage to essential organs, tissues, and cells. Experiments in rats have demonstrated that trans-2-alkenals, which are generated in PUFA-containing culinary oils during thermal stressing episodes, are absorbed . Following absorption, these cytotoxic agents are metabolized by a process involving the primary addition (Michael addition reaction) of glutathione across their electrophilic carbon-carbon double bonds and finally excreted in the urine as C-3 mercapturate derivatives.
* Martin Grootveld, Victor Ruiz Rodado, and Christopher J.L. Silwood
Detection, monitoring, and deleterious health effects of lipid oxidation products generated in culinary oils during thermal stressing episodes
American Oil Chemists Society, 25 (10), pp. 614-624. November/December 2014
For triglycerides:
Carboxylic acid esters will undergo enzymatic hydrolysis by ubiquitously expressed GI esterases. The rate of hydrolysis is dependant on the structure of the ester, and may therefore be rapid or rather slow. Thus, due to hydrolysis, predictions on oral absorption based on the physico-chemical characteristics of the intact parent substance alone may no longer apply.
When considering the hydrolysis product glycerol, absorption is favoured based on passive and active absorption of glycerol.
The Cosmetic Ingredient Review (CIR) Expert Panel has issued three final reports on the safety of 25 triglycerides, i.e., fatty acid triesters of glycerin
High purity is needed for the triglycerides. Previously the Panel published a final report on a diglycerides, and concluded that the ingredients in the diglyceride family are safe in the present practices of use and concentration provided the content of 1,2-diesters is not high enough to induce epidermal hyperplasia. The Panel discussed that there was an increased level of concern because of data regarding the induction of protein kinase C (PKC) and the tumor promotion potential of 1,2-diacylglycerols. The Panel noted that, nominally, glyceryl-1,3-diesters contain 1,2-diesters, raising the concern that 1,2-diesters could potentially induce hyperplasia. The Panel did note that these compounds are more likely to cause these effects when the fatty acid chain length is <=14 carbons, when one fatty acid is saturated and one is not, and when given at high doses, repeatedly. Although minimal percutaneous absorption of triolein has been demonstrated in vivo using guinea pigs (but not hairless mice) and in vitro using full-thickness skin from hairless mice, the Expert Panel recognizes that, reportedly, triolein and tricaprylin can enhance the skin penetration of other chemicals, and recommends that care should be exercised in using these and other glyceryl triesters in cosmetic products.
The Panel acknowledged that some of the triglycerides may be formed from plant-derived or animal-derived constituents. The Panel thus expressed concern regarding pesticide residues and heavy metals that may be present in botanical ingredients. They stressed that the cosmetics industry should continue to use the necessary procedures to sufficiently limit amounts of such impurities in an ingredient before blending them into cosmetic formulations. Additionally, the Panel considered the risks inherent in using animal-derived ingredients, namely the transmission of infectious agents. Although tallow may be used in the manufacture of glyceryl tallowate and is clearly animal-derived, the Panel notes that tallow is highly processed, and tallow derivatives even more so. The Panel agrees with determinations by the U.S. FDA that tallow derivatives are not risk materials for transmission of infectious agents.
Finally, the Panel discussed the issue of incidental inhalation exposure, as some of the triglycerides are used in cosmetic sprays and could possibly be inhaled. For example, triethylhexanoin and triisostearin are reported to be used at maximum concentrations of 36% and 30%, respectively, in perfumes, and 14.7% and 10.4%, respectively, in face powders.The Panel noted that in aerosol products, 95% – 99% of droplets/particles would not be respirable to any appreciable amount. Furthermore, droplets/particles deposited in the nasopharyngeal or bronchial regions of the respiratory tract present no toxicological concerns based on the chemical and biological properties of these ingredients. Coupled with the small actual exposure in the breathing zone and the concentrations at which the ingredients are used, the available information indicates that incidental inhalation would not be a significant route of exposure that might lead to local respiratory or systemic effects
Cosmetic Ingredient Review (CIR) : Amended Safety Assessment of Triglycerides as Used in Cosmetics August 2017
Glyceryl triesters are also known as triglycerides; ingested triglycerides are metabolized to monoglycerides, free fatty acids, and glycerol, all of which are absorbed in the intestinal mucosa and undergo further metabolism. Dermal absorption of Triolein in mice was nil; the oil remained at the application site. Only slight absorption was seen in guinea pig skin. Tricaprylin and other glyceryl triesters have been shown to increase the skin penetration of drugs. Little or no acute, subchronic, or chronic oral toxicity was seen in animal studies unless levels approached a significant percentage of caloric intake. Subcutaneous injections of Tricaprylin in rats over a period of 5 weeks caused a granulomatous reaction characterized by oil deposits surrounded by macrophages. Dermal application was not associated with significant irritation in rabbit skin. Ocular exposures were, at most, mildly irritating to rabbit eyes. No evidence of sensitization or photosensitization was seen in a guinea pig maximization test. Most of the genotoxicity test systems were negative. Tricaprylin, Trioctanoin, and Triolein have historically been used as vehicles

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	in carcinogenicity testing of other chemicals. In one study, subcutaneous injection of Tricaprylin in newborn mice produced more tumors in lymphoid tissue than were seen in untreated animals, whereas neither subcutaneous or intraperitoneal injection in 4- to 6-week-old female mice produced any tumors in another study. Trioctanoin injected subcutaneously in hamsters produced no tumors. Trioctanoin injected intraperitoneally in pregnant rats was associated with an increase in mammary tumors in the offspring compared to that seen in offspring of untreated animals, but similar studies in pregnant hamsters and rabbits showed no tumors in the offspring. One study of Triolein injected subcutaneously in rats showed no tumors at the injection site. As part of an effort to evaluate vehicles used in carcinogenicity studies, the National Toxicology Program conducted a 2-year carcinogenicity study in rats given Tricaprylin by gavage. This treatment was associated with a statistically significant dose-related increase in pancreatic acinar cell hyperplasia and adenoma, but there were no acinar carcinomas, the incidence of mononuclear leukemia was less, and nephropathy findings were reduced, all compared to corn oil controls. Overall, the study concluded that Tricaprylin did not offer significant advantages over corn oil as vehicles in carcinogenicity studies. Trilaurin was found to inhibit the formation of neoplasms initiated by dimethylbenzanthracene (DMBA) and promoted by croton oil. Tricaprylin was not teratogenic in mice or rats, but some reproductive effects were seen in rabbits. A low level of fetal eye abnormalities and a small percentage of abnormal sperm were reported in mice injected with Trioctanoin as a vehicle control. Clinical tests of Trilaurin at 36.3% in a commercial product applied to the skin produced no irritation reactions. Trilaurin, Tristearin, and Tribehenin at 40%, 1.68%, and 0.38%, respectively, in commercial products were also negative in repeated-insult patch tests. Tristearin at 0.32% in a commercial product induced transient, mild to moderate, ocular irritation after instillation into the eyes of human subjects. Based on the enhancement of penetration of other chemicals by skin treatment with glyceryl triesters, it is recommended that care be exercised in using them in cosmetic products. Cosmetic Ingredient Review (CIR) Expert Panel: Final Report on the Safety Assessment of Trilaurin etc: Int J Toxicol, 20 Suppl 4, 61-94 2001
CALCIUM CARBONATE	No evidence of carcinogenic properties. No evidence of mutagenic or teratogenic effects. The material may produce severe irritation to the eye causing pronounced inflammation. Repeated or prolonged exposure to irritants may produce conjunctivitis.
CASTOR OIL, HYDROGENATED	for isostearyl isostearate, isostearyl hydroxystearate its metabolic products, 12-hydroxystearic acid, isostearyl alcohol: **Acute toxicity:** The esters are poor;y water-soluble and have molecular weights exceeding 200 Da making it unlikely they be well absorbed across the wall of the gastrointestinal tract nor have the ability to pass through aqueous pores by active or passive diffusion across the membrane. Hence there will be limited bioavailability of these chemicals via the oral route.. However the hydrolysis products (isostearyl alcohol and 12-hydroxystearic acid) may be absorbed in the gut. Similarly, the esters not expected to be absorbed in significant quantities when ocular exposure occurs due to their poor ability to dissolve in water; this is also expected of the hydrolysis products. Absorption through the respiratory system will not occur due to the very low vapour pressure. The esters function as an occlusive agent that prevents water evaporation; therefore it may be presumed that they are highly lipophilic as well as having very low water solubility. Absorption across the stratum corneum will be high, but the hydrophilic epidermal layers will likely impede absorption into the dermis. Therefore, the potential for significant systemic exposure after dermal contact is expected to be low. The distribution and metabolism of 12-hydroxystearic acid was evaluated on 90 young male Wistar rats, which were fed a diet of 8.7% 12-hydroxystearic Acid in 10% hydrogenated castor oil . The results of this study indicated that 12-hydroxystearic acid was deposited in body lipids and abdominal fat along with its metabolites. An acute oral toxicity study on isostearyl isostearate, determined the LD50 to be above 64000 mg/kg bw in rats and was considered to be of low toxicity via the oral route. Studies on the hydrolysis products also support these findings. Acute oral toxicity experiments on rats using lipstick products containing up to 27.0% isostearyl alcohol found no adverse effects or significant changes in organs at necropsy. **Irritation and Sensitisation:** An in vitro eye irritation test was performed on isostearyl hydroxystearate using the EpiOcular Tissue Model The investigators concluded that the chemical did not elicit any signs of irritancy, as there was no reduction in cell viability after exposure to the notified chemical. A skin sensitisation study of isostearyl isostearate in guinea pigs found that the chemical did not cause any skin reactions on challenged sites 24 and 48 hours after exposure. The investigators concluded that isostearyl isostearate has no skin sensitising potential based on the conditions of the test. **Repeat dose toxicity:** A subchronic oral toxicity study was performed on the hydrolysis product, 12-hydroxystearic acid Weanling rats were maintained on a diet consisting of 8.7% 12-hydroxystearic acid in castor oil for ninety days. Based on haematological and microscopic examinations and organ weights, there were no significant adverse effects. **Genotoxicity**: Hydroxystearic acid was not found to be mutagenic to Salmonella strains under the conditions of the Ames test but the chemical was mutagenic to the Hs30 strain of E.coli Hydroxystearic acid was also not mutagenic in a mouse lymphoma assay, with or without metabolic activation This product contains partially hydrogenated fatty acids and/ or trans fatty acids. The consumption of trans fats increases the risk of coronary heart disease by raising levels of LDL cholesterol and lowering levels of "good" HDL cholesterol. There is an ongoing debate about a possible differentiation between trans fats of natural origin and trans fats of man-made origin but so far no scientific consensus has been found. Two Canadian studies have shown that the natural trans fat vaccenic acid, found in beef and dairy products, may have an opposite health effect and could actually be beneficial compared to hydrogenated vegetable shortening, or a mixture of pork lard and soy fat, by lowering total and LDL cholesterol and triglyceride levels. In lack of recognized evidence and scientific agreement, nutritional authorities consider all trans fats as equally harmful for health and recommend that consumption of trans fats be reduced to trace amounts. The use of hydrogenated oils in foods has never been completely satisfactory. Because the center arm of the triglyceride is shielded somewhat by the end fatty acids, most of the hydrogenation occurs on the end fatty acids, While full hydrogenation produces largely saturated fatty acids, partial hydrogenation results in the transformation of unsaturated cis fatty acids to trans fatty acids in the oil mixture due to the heat used in hydrogenation. Partially hydrogenated oils and their trans fats have increasingly been viewed as "unhealthy". Trans fat is the common name for unsaturated fat with trans-isomer (E-isomer) fatty acid(s). Because the term refers to the configuration of a double carbon-carbon bond, trans fats are sometimes monounsaturated or polyunsaturated, but never saturated. Trans fats do exist in nature but also occur during the processing of polyunsaturated fatty acids in food production. Trans fats occur naturally in a limited number of cases: vaccenyl and conjugated linoleyl (CLA) containing trans fats occur naturally in trace amounts in meat and dairy products from ruminants.

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The exact biochemical methods by which trans fats produce specific health problems are a topic of continuing research. One theory is that the human lipase enzyme works only on the cis configuration and cannot metabolise a trans fat. A lipase is a water-soluble enzyme that helps digest, transport, and process dietary lipids such as triglycerides, fats, and oils in most - if not all - living organisms. While the mechanisms through which trans fats contribute to coronary heart disease are fairly well understood, the mechanism for trans fat's effect on diabetes is still under investigation. Trans fatty acids may impair the metabolism of long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (LCPUFAs), but maternal pregnancy trans fatty acid intake has been inversely associated with LCPUFAs levels in infants at birth thought to underlie the positive association between breastfeeding and intelligence.
There are suggestions that the negative consequences of trans fat consumption go beyond the cardiovascular risk. In general, there is much less scientific consensus asserting that eating trans fat specifically increases the risk of other chronic health problems:
It has been suggested that the intake of both trans fats and saturated fats promote the development of Alzheimer disease, although not confirmed in an animal model. It has been found that trans fats impaired memory and learning in middle-age rats. The rats' brains of trans-fat eaters had fewer proteins critical to healthy neurological function. Inflammation in and around the hippocampus, the part of the brain responsible for learning and memory. These are the exact types of changes normally seen at the onset of Alzheimer's, but seen after six weeks, even though the rats were still young.
There is a growing concern that the risk of type 2 diabetes increases with trans fat consumption.[52] However, consensus has not been reached. For example, one study found that risk is higher for those in the highest quartile of trans fat consumption.Another study has found no diabetes risk once other factors such as total fat intake and BMI were accounted for.
Research indicates that trans fat may increase weight gain and abdominal fat, despite a similar caloric intake. A 6-year experiment revealed that monkeys fed a trans fat diet gained 7.2% of their body weight, as compared to 1.8% for monkeys on a mono-unsaturated fat diet. Although obesity is frequently linked to trans fat in the popular media, this is generally in the context of eating too many calories; there is not a strong scientific consensus connecting trans fat and obesity, although the 6-year experiment did find such a link, concluding that "under controlled feeding conditions, long-term TFA consumption was an independent factor in weight gain. TFAs enhanced intra-abdominal deposition of fat, even in the absence of caloric excess, and were associated with insulin resistance, with evidence that there is impaired post-insulin receptor binding signal transduction.
Liver Dysfunction: Trans fats are metabolised differently by the liver than other fats and interfere with delta 6 desaturase. Delta 6 desaturase is an enzyme involved in converting essential fatty acids to arachidonic acid and prostaglandins, both of which are important to the functioning of cells.
Infertility in women: One 2007 study found, "Each 2% increase in the intake of energy from trans unsaturated fats, as opposed to that from carbohydrates, was associated with a 73% greater risk of ovulatory infertility...".
Major depressive disorder: Spanish researchers analysed the diets of 12,059 people over six years and found those who ate the most trans fats had a 48 per cent higher risk of depression than those who did not eat trans fats. One mechanism may be trans-fats' substitution for docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) levels in the orbitofrontal cortex (OFC). Very high intake of trans-fatty acids (43% of total fat) in mice from 2 to 16 months of age was associated with lowered DHA levels in the brain (p=0.001) When the brains of 15 major depressive subjects who had committed suicide were examined post-mortem and compared against 27 age-matched controls, the suicidal brains were found to have 16% less (male average) to 32% (female average) less DHA in the OFC. The OFC is known to control reward, reward expectation and empathy, which are all negatively impacted in depressive mood disorders, as well as regulating the limbic system>
Group A aliphatic monoesters (fatty acid esters) According to a classification scheme described by the American Chemistry Council' Aliphatic Esters Panel, Group A substances are simple monoesters derived from a monofunctional alcohol, such as 2-ethylhexyl alcohol (C8-alcohol) or tridecyl alcohol (C13 alcohol) and fatty acids such as palmitic, stearic, oleic or linoleic acid. Metabolism of the parent esters is expected to yield the corresponding fatty acids and alcohols. The fatty acids are naturally occurring and have a low order of toxicity. Group A substances are rather lipophilic (log Kow 10-15) in character due to the large number of carbon numbers in the ester molecule (e.g., 24,26, 31 carbons) and have relatively high boiling points. Owing to the non-volatile nature of these esters, their vapour pressures are very low and difficult to determine experimentally. Water solubility is also very low. Mammalian Toxicity: Acute Toxicity. Many higher fatty acid esters, such as the stearates, oleates and palmitates, have been cleared for use in the food industry ; thus, their general physiological response and toxicity are very low. Many of the higher fatty acid esters are considered safe for use in cosmetics. Available acute toxicity data indicate that the fatty acid esters in Group A, in general, have a low order of toxicity [e.g., palmitic acid, 2-ethylhexyl ester (LD50 > 5 g/kg) and tall oil fatty acid 2-ethylhexyl ester (LD50 > 64 g/kg)]. Consistent with that, available data spanning the carbon range of C22 to C34 indicate that the alkyl fatty acid esters are not toxic by oral administration [rat LD50 (oral) > 5g/kg, with range from 5 g/kg to 64 kg/kg]. Butyl stearate is tolerated by rats without lethal effects at oral doses of 32 g/kg while octyl oleate has a reported LD50 of >40 ml/kg. In addition, many alkyl fatty acid esters, such as the stearates, oleates and palmitates, have been demonstrated to be not toxic by dermal administration Because of the low volatility of these substances, inhalation exposure at toxicological significant levels is not expected. Repeated Dose Toxicity. 28-Day oral gavage studies in rats with decyl oleate (CAS 3687-46-5) at doses of 100,500 and 1000 mg/kg showed no toxicity as noted with respect to clinical symptoms, biochemistry, hematology, gross lesions or tissue/organ histopathology. The NOAEL was estimated to be 1000 mg/kg. Similarly, octyl or (2-ethylhexyl) stearate showed a NOAEL of 1000 mg/kg in 28-day oral gavage studies in rats. In chronic two-year feeding studies with butyl stearate at concentrations of 1.25% or 6.25% in the diet, exposed rats showed no significant difference from control animals with respect to growth, survival, blood counts or other haematological parameters. Besides the two substances above, various other long-chain fatty acid esters have also been studied for their repeated dose toxicity and the findings support a low order of toxicity.
Genotoxicity: Genetic Toxicity (Salmonella). Fatty acid, C 16- 18 saturated and C 18 unsaturated, 2-ethylhexanoate (CAS 85049-37-2); octyl stearate (CAS 109-36-4); and decyl oleate (CAS 3687-46-5)] were shown to be negative in the Ames assay. Since the monoesters are similar in chemical structure and carbon-number range, it is unlikely that esters in Group A will induce point mutation. In addition, the chemistry of the long-chain fatty acids does not suggest the likelihood that these substances or their constituent substructures (i.e., fatty acids, alcohols) are reactive or electrophilic in nature. Genetic Toxicity (Chromosomal Aberrations). The chemistry of the long-chain fatty acid esters does not suggest the likelihood that these substances or their constituent substructures (i.e., fatty acids, alcohols) are reactive or electrophilic in nature. Therefore, the likelihood that the fatty acid monoesters may cause chromosomal mutation is very low. Reproductive toxicity: Assessment of reproductive effects of alkyl fatty acid esters in Group A is based primarily on studies with butyl stearate. Fertility, litter size and survival of offspring were normal in rats fed diets containing 6.25% butyl stearate for 10 weeks. However, growth was reduced in offspring during the pre-weaning and post-weaning periods. No gross lesions were noted among the offspring killed at the end of the 21-day post-weaning periods These results indicate that long-chain fatty acid esters do not cause reproductive toxicity in rats..Given the relative low order of toxicity for long-chain fatty acid esters and their relative non-electrophilic and non-reactive nature, it seems unlikely that the long-chain fatty acid esters would present serious reproductive concerns. Developmental Toxicity/ Teratogenicity. Assessment of developmental effects for the long-chain fatty acid esters in this group was based primarily on data reported for fatty acid, C16-18, 2-ethylhexyl ester (CAS 91031-48-0). In oral gavage studies in rats administered doses of 100,300 and 1000

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	mg/kg during gestation, the maternal NOAEL was > 1000 mg/kg and the NOAEL for teratogenicity was >1000 mg/kg. Based on these findings and the fact Group A substances, are very chemically similar to the structure of the tested material, read-across assessment is thought to be appropriate.
FATTY ACIDS, C16-18 AND C18-UNSATURATED	Fatty acid salts are of low acute toxicity. Their skin and eye irritation potential is chain length dependent and decreases with increasing chain length - they are poorly absorbed through the skin nor are they skin sensitisers. The available repeated dose toxicity data demonstrate the low toxicity of the fatty acids and their salts. Also, they are not considered to be mutagenic, genotoxic or carcinogenic, and are not reproductive or developmental toxicants. Accidental ingestion of fatty acid salt containing detergent products is not expected to result in any significant adverse health effects. This assessment is based on toxicological data demonstrating the low acute oral toxicity of fatty acid salts and the fact that not a single fatality has been reported in the UK following accidental ingestion of detergents containing fatty acid salts. Also in a report published by the German Federal Institute for Health Protection of Consumers and Veterinary Medicine, detergent products were not mentioned as dangerous products with a high incidence if poisoning. The estimated total human exposure to fatty acid salts, from the different exposure scenarios for the handling and use of detergent products containing fatty acid salts, showed a margin of exposure (MOE) of 258,620. This extremely large MOE is large enough to be reassuring with regard to the relatively small variability of the hazard data on which it is based. Also, in the UK, the recommended dietary fatty acid intake by the Department of Health is about 100 g of fatty acids per day or 1.7 g (1700 mg) of fatty acids per kilogram body weight per day. This exposure is several orders of magnitude above that resulting from exposure to fatty acid salts in household cleaning products. Based on the available data, the use of fatty acid salts in household detergent and cleaning products does not raise any safety concerns with regard to consumer
PROPYLENE GLYCOL	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. 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. 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). Propylene glycol shows no evidence of being a carcinogen or of being genotoxic. 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. 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 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. 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 eostrogen 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. 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. 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) 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.
TITANIUM DIOXIDE	* IUCLID Exposure to the material may result in a possible risk of irreversible effects. The material may produce mutagenic effects in man. This concern is raised, generally, on the basis of appropriate studies using mammalian somatic cells in vivo. Such findings are often supported by positive results from in vitro mutagenicity studies. For titanium dioxide: 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

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	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. 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. No data were available on genotoxic effects in titanium dioxide-exposed humans. 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. 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. 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. **Animal carcinogenicity data** 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. 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. 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. 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. The material may produce moderate eye irritation leading to inflammation. Repeated or prolonged exposure to irritants may produce conjunctivitis. The material may cause skin irritation after prolonged or repeated exposure and may produce a contact dermatitis (nonallergic). This form of dermatitis is often characterised by skin redness (erythema) and swelling epidermis. Histologically there may be intercellular oedema of the spongy layer (spongiosis) and intracellular oedema of the epidermis. **WARNING:** This substance has been classified by the IARC as Group 2B: Possibly Carcinogenic to Humans.
C.I. PIGMENT YELLOW 3	▸ NOTE: Detailed analysis of the molecular structure, by various Authorities/ Agencies and in other cases by Chemwatch, indicates that the azo colourant can split off carcinogenic arylamines. The azo linkage is considered the most labile portion of an azo dye. The linkage easily undergoes enzymatic breakdown, but thermal or photochemical breakdown may also take place. The breakdown results in cleavage of the molecule and in release of the component amines. Water solubility determines the ultimate degradation pathways of the dyes. For example the azo linkage of many azo pigments is, due to very low solubility in water, not available for intracellular enzymatic breakdown but may be susceptible to endogenous micro-organisms found in the bladder or in the gut. After cleavage of the azo linkage by bacteria, the component aromatic amines are absorbed in the intestine and excreted in the urine. Twenty-two of the component amines are recognised as potential human carcinogens, and/or several of them have shown carcinogenic potential on experimental animals. Sulfonation of the dye reduces the toxicity by enhancement of the excretion. The component amines which may be released from azo dyes are mostly aromatic amines (compounds where an amine group or amine-generating group(s) are connected to an aryl moiety). In general, aromatic amines known as carcinogenic may be grouped into five groups ▸ Anilines, e.g. o-toluidine. ▸ Extended anilines, e.g. benzidine. ▸ Fused ring amines, e.g. 2-naphthylamine. ▸ Aminoazo and other azo compounds, e.g. 4-(phenylazo)aniline. ▸ Heterocyclic amines. The aromatic amines containing moieties of anilines, extended anilines and fused ring amines are components of the majority of the industrially important azo dyes. Reductive fission of the azo group, either by intestinal bacteria or by azo reductases of the liver and extra-hepatic tissues can cause benzidine-based aromatic amines to be released. Such breakdown products have been detected in animal experiments as well as in man (urine). Mutagenicity, which has been observed with numerous azo colourants in in vitro test systems, and the carcinogenicity in animal experiments are attributed to the release of amines and their subsequent metabolic activation. There are now epidemiological indications that occupational exposure to benzidene-based azo colourants can increase the incidence of bladder carcinoma. The acute toxicity of azo dyes is low.. However, potential health effects are recognised.

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	Despite a very broad field of application and exposure, sensitising properties of azo dyes have been identified in relatively few reports. Red azoic dyes have been linked to allergic contact dermatitis in heavily exposed workers. Furthermore, textiles coloured with disperse azo dyes have caused allergic dermatitis in a few cases.
C.I. PIGMENT ORANGE 13	In vitro screening test for mutagenicity: negative For diarylide (disazo) pigments (3,3'-dichlorobenzidine-containing): The substances in this category do not present a hazard for human health due to their low hazard profile. Adequate screening-level data are available to characterise the human health hazard for the purposes of the OECD Cooperative Chemicals Assessment Programme. Diarylide pigments are synthesized by bis-diazotizing diamino-diphenyl derivatives, mainly 3,3'-dichlorobenzidine (DCB), and coupling with acetoacetarylides or arylsubstituted pyrazolones Studies indicate that essentially there is no potential for uptake via the oral and dermal routes. However, following repeated oral exposure at high dose levels, there is some evidence that a very limited uptake of the compound (or its impurities) could occur, based on observations of staining of the mucosal surfaces of internal organs (although the possibility of contamination during necropsy cannot be excluded). In an oral reproductive developmental screening study, staining of the pups could indicate a potential for limited placental transfer, again at a high dose level. Given that the Pigment Yellows are essentially not absorbed into the body,metabolism is not relevant. However, the presence of very low levels of 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine has been demonstrated in two studies using very sensitive techniques following oral administration of some yellow pigment compounds. It seems likely that this is due to the presence of a mono-azo impurity in some of the yellow pigment parent compounds, which is absorbed and subsequently metabolised. No DCB was found in the urine of experimental animals after exposure orally or via the lungs in long term studies. Following ingestion, the vast majority of the pigments are excreted unchanged in the faeces. Many diarylide pigments are derived from DCB. Therefore, the diarylide pigments on DCB basis have been tested toxicologically very extensively. Diarylide pigments with their LD50 values above 2 000 mg/kg show no acute toxicity according to the EU classification criteria. They are not irritating to the skin or mucous membranes. For acute dermal toxicity a single LD50 of >3,000 mg/kg bw is available for Pigment Yellow 13. No deaths or clinical signs of toxicity were observed following oral or dermal exposure. The inhalation LC50 available is >4,448 mg/m3 for Pigment Yellow 13. Tachypnoea, dyspnoea, exophthalmos, ruffled fur and curved or ventral body position were observed, although all animals recovered and no gross abnormalities were observed at necropsy. Based on the available data the pigments have a minimal to slight potential for eye irritation. There is no indication that they are sensitisers No adverse effects were seen after 4-7 weeks oral administration of Pigment Yellow 12 at 1000 mg/kg/day (NOAEL), the highest dose tested in a well conducted and reported test of repeated dose toxicity study. Furthermore, in the cases of Pigment Yellow 12 and 83, no toxicologically significant effects were observed in a range of chronic toxicity studies of lesser quality (in terms of reporting) in rats and mice at doses up to 6500 mg/kg/day. Based on the kinetics of the three pigments and the chemical similarities, it can be concluded that these findings can be extrapolated to most if not all diarylide pigments. For the inhalation route the effects seen are related to the deposition of dust particles in the lungs, leading to Pigment Yellow 13 related effects even at the lowest exposure concentration of 54 mg/m3 (local LOAEL). Systemically no effects were observed at the highest concentration tested, 410 mg/m3 (systemic NOAEL). All three pigments are not genotoxic in bacterial tests. Pigment Yellow 12 did not induce clastogenic effects in mammalian cells. Based on the chemical similarities between the three pigments, it is predicted that all three Yellow Pigments will not induce chromosomal changes in mammalian cells. There are no in vitro data to suggest that the pigments are genotoxic in vivo. No increased tumour incidence after treatment with Pigment Yellow 12 and 83 were observed in several long-term studies in rats and mice (NOAEL (rat) > 630 mg/kg; NOAEL (mouse) > 1,960 mg/kg). Based on chemical similarity it can be concluded that the pigments are not carcinogenic. It can be concluded that Pigment Yellow 12 does not have any adverse effects on reproductive parameters. There was no evidence of teratogenicity. The NOAEL for maternal and reproductive toxicity is >1,000 mg/kg bw. Supporting evidence is also available from the fact that no changes on the reproductive organs were observed in the studies of repeat dose toxicity and carcinogenicity study with Pigment Yellow 83. In view of the structural similarities and similar kinetics no effects on reproduction or development are expected from pigments of this class. In studies of the bioavailability of several representatives of this group of pigments, no carcinogenic cleavage product was released in detectable amounts after oral, inhalative or intratracheal application on rats. One further study of the bioavailability of DCB (DCB haemoglobin adduct) has been performed with the diarylide pigments C.I. Pigment Yellow 13 and C.I. Pigment Yellow 17. In this study, no release of carcinogenic DCB from the pigments has been detected. This indicates the absence of metabolism to DCB under the test conditions. In summary then, according to the known studies, diarylide pigments do not represent any health risk although risks might attach to contaminants introduced during synthesis. Colourants for Food Contact Plastics - Aspects of Product Safety; Responsible Care initiative of the European Chemical Industry Council. For 3,3'-dichlorobenzidine: Various tumours developed after oral or subcutaneous administration of 3,3'-dichlorobenzidine to mice, rats, hamsters and dogs. Tumours have not yet been identified in persons exposed to the substance alone. The substance can be absorbed through the skin in dangerous quantities. Increases in temperature and relative humidity promote dermal absorption. Upper respiratory infection and sore throat were listed among several principal reasons for visits to a company s medical clinic by workers handling 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine dihydrochloride However, there is no conclusive evidence that these effects were due to inhalation of 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine dihydrochloride. No adverse health effects were observed in male rats exposed by inhalation to 3,3 - dichlorobenzidine free base (23,700 mg/m3) 2 hours per day for 7 days . In another study, 10 rats were exposed to an unspecified concentration of 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine dihydrochloride dust particles for 1 hour and then observed for 14 days. Slight-to-moderate pulmonary congestion and one pulmonary abscess were observed upon necropsy . The effects observed in the study using the ionized (hydrochloride) form of 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine may have been due to the irritative properties of hydrochloric acid released from the salt in combination with particulate toxicity. Gastrointestinal upset was one of the symptoms reported by employees who worked with 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine dihydrochloride. However, there is no conclusive evidence that the gastrointestinal effects, or other symptoms reported by employees, resulted specifically from inhalation of 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine dihydrochloride. The only relevant information regarding neurological effects in humans exposed to 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine was found in an early study which reported that headache and dizziness were among several principal reasons why employees working with 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine in a chemical manufacturing plant visited the company medical clinic. However, there is no conclusive evidence that these symptoms were caused specifically by 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine since there was exposure to other chemicals

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	as well. In a 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine carcinogenicity study, 1 of 6 dogs exhibited convulsions after 21, 28, or 42 months of oral treatment with 10.4 mg/kg/day over a period of 3.5 years **Carcinogenicity:** Several epidemiological studies have investigated cancer incidences among workers occupationally exposed to 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine . Exposure may have been by both inhalation and dermal routes. Due, in part, to structure-activity considerations, epidemiological studies of potential cancer effects of occupational exposure to 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine have been particularly concerned with bladder tumors, since 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine is structurally similar to benzidine, a chemical which is known to be a human bladder carcinogen. No bladder tumors were found in a group of 35 workers who handled only 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine; in the same dyestuff plant, bladder tumors occurred in 3 out of 14 workers exposed to both benzidine and 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine. The investigator reported a total exposure time of 68,505 hours, equivalent to nearly 140 full-time working years. No cases of bladder tumors were found in an epidemiology study of 259 workers exposed to dry and sernidry 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine base and hydrochloride. Workers were exposed to an average of less than 16 years each to 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine, which means that an adequate exposure duration and/or the latent period following exposure may not have been reached for tumor expression. In a retrospective epidemiological study of workers employed in a dye and pigment manufacturing plant that used 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine as chemical precursor, no bladder tumors were observed in a cohort of 207 workers, most of whom had been exposed for up to 15 years. Limitations of this study included using data from a very small and incomplete sample of workers; focusing solely on the occurrence of bladder tumors; and using data that may have been misleading and, at times, apparently inaccurate. A statistically significant increased incidence of hepatomas was observed in male ICR/JCL mice exposed to 0.1% 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine in the diet (170 mg/kg/day) at 6 months (8 of 8 treated as opposed to 0 of 5 controls) and 12 months (18 of 18 treated as opposed to 2 of 2 1 controls). Hepatic tumors were observed in 4/l 8 strain D mice exposed to 11.2-l 1.9 mg 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine/kg/day in the diet for 10 months No bladder carcinomas were observed in rats exposed to 0.03% 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine in the diet (27 mg/kg/day) for 4 or 40 weeks , nor were any mammary tumors observed in rats administered approximately 49 mg 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine dihydrochloride/kg/day by gavage once every 3 days over a 30-day period and sacrificed 8 months later. In a study in which rats were exposed to 10-20 mg 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine per day (120 mg/kg/day) in feed 6 days per week for 12 months, tumors were observed at a variety of sites, including the Zymbal gland (7 of 29 animals), mammary gland (7/29), bladder (3/29), hematopoietic system (3/29), skin (3/29), ileum (2/29), connective tissue (2/29), salivary gland (2/29), liver (l/29), and thyroid (l/29). In another rat study, 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine was administered to 50 male (70 mg/kg/day) and 50 female (80 mg/kg/day) Sprague-Dawley rats, in a standard diet for up to 16 months . In rats fed 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine in the diet for a total of 349 days (females) and 353 days (males), histopathological evaluations revealed mammary adenocarcinoma (16% incidence), malignant lymphoma (14%) granulocytic leukemia (20%), carcinoma of the Zymbal gland (18%) in males, and mammary adenocarcinoma (59%) in females. The authors noted that most of these tumors appeared to arise in the bone marrow and haematopoietic foci in the spleen and liver with subsequent metastasis to other organs. **Haematological Effects**. Although haematological effects may not be sensitive indicators for 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine toxicity, haemoglobin adducts have been detected in female Wistar rats orally administered single 127 or 253 mg/kg doses of 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine or with repeated doses between 0.3 and 5.8 mg/kg/day . It was suggested that metabolically formed nitroso derivatives and the formation of a sulfinic acid amide with cysteine residues in haemoglobin may be the mechanism of adduct formation. **Hepatic Effects**. Limited animal evidence suggests that chronic-duration oral exposure to 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine results in mild-to-moderate liver injury. **Genotoxic effects:** Genotoxic effects have been reported in animals treated with 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine. A single dose of 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine (1,000 mg/kg) administered to male and pregnant female mice induced micronuclei in polychromatic erythrocytes in the bone marrow of the males and in the liver of the foetuses, but not in bone marrow of the dams. In another study, an increase in unscheduled deoxyribonucleic acid synthesis (UDS) was observed in cultured liver cells from male mice previously pretreated orally with single doses of . 500 mg/kg 3,3 -dichlorobenzidine; no response was observed at a dose of .200 mg/kg. 3,3 -Dichlorobenzidine was also shown to bind extensively to tissue deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) in rats and mice
C.I. PIGMENT RED 122	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.

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	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.
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. [ICI]
C.I. PIGMENT RED 4	**NOTE:** Substance has been shown to be mutagenic in at least one assay, or belongs to a family of chemicals producing damage or change to cellular DNA.
LINSEED OIL & CASTOR OIL, HYDROGENATED & FATTY ACIDS, C16-18 AND C18-UNSATURATED & TITANIUM DIOXIDE & FERRIC HYDROXIDE & C.I. PIGMENT RED 101 & C.I. PIGMENT RED 48:2 & C.I. PIGMENT RED 21 & C.I. PIGMENT BLACK 11 & C.I. PIGMENT BLACK 7 & C.I. PIGMENT RED 4	No significant acute toxicological data identified in literature search.
LINSEED OIL & CALCIUM CARBONATE & PROPYLENE GLYCOL	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.
CALCIUM CARBONATE & CASTOR OIL, HYDROGENATED & TITANIUM DIOXIDE & C.I. PIGMENT BLACK 11	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

Continued...

	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.
C.I. PIGMENT RED 48:2 & C.I. PIGMENT BLACK 11	No data of toxicological significance identified in literature search.

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

Reeves Oil 50ml Paint

Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available

linseed oil

Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	>0.4-0.6mg/l	2
EC50	48h	Crustacea	>0.8mg/l	2
NOEC(ECx)	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.4-0.6mg/l	2
LC50	96h	Fish	>1mg/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
NOEC(ECx)	1h	Fish	4-320mg/l	4

castor oil, hydrogenated

Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	>0.01mg/L	2
NOEC(ECx)	504h	Crustacea	>=0.01mg/l	2
LC50	96h	Fish	10000mg/l	1

fatty acids, C16-18 and C18-unsaturated

Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available

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
NOEC(ECx)	336h	Algae or other aquatic plants	<5300mg/l	1

titanium dioxide

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
EC50	96h	Algae or other aquatic plants	179.05mg/l	2

Continued...

C.I. Pigment Yellow 3

Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
EC50	48h	Crustacea	>100mg/l	2
NOEC(ECx)	504h	Crustacea	1mg/l	2
LC50	96h	Fish	>1mg/l	2

C.I. Pigment Yellow 1

Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
LC50	96h	Fish	>1mg/l	2
EC50	48h	Crustacea	>100mg/l	2
NOEC(ECx)	504h	Crustacea	1mg/l	2

ferric hydroxide

Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	18mg/l	2
EC50	48h	Crustacea	>100mg/l	2
NOEC(ECx)	504h	Fish	0.52mg/l	2
LC50	96h	Fish	0.05mg/l	2
LC50	96h	Fish	0.05mg/l	2
NOEC(ECx)	504h	Fish	0.52mg/l	2
EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	18mg/l	2
EC50	48h	Crustacea	>100mg/l	2

C.I. Pigment Red 101

Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	18mg/l	2
EC50	48h	Crustacea	>100mg/l	2
NOEC(ECx)	504h	Fish	0.52mg/l	2
LC50	96h	Fish	0.05mg/l	2

C.I. Pigment Orange 13

Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
BCF	1008h	Fish	0.75-5.6	7
LC50	96h	Fish	>500mg/l	2
NOEC(ECx)	504h	Crustacea	1mg/l	2

C.I. Pigment Red 48:2

Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	>100mg/l	2
EC50	48h	Crustacea	>100mg/l	2
LC50	96h	Fish	>100mg/l	2
EC10(ECx)	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.76mg/l	2

C.I. Pigment Red 21

Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available

C.I. Pigment Blue 15

Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
BCF	1008h	Fish	<0.33-11	7
EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	>100mg/l	2
EC50	48h	Crustacea	>500mg/l	2
LC50	96h	Fish	>100mg/l	2
EC50(ECx)	504h	Crustacea	>1mg/l	2

C.I. Pigment Black 11

Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	18mg/l	2
EC50	48h	Crustacea	>100mg/l	2
LC50	96h	Fish	0.05mg/l	2
NOEC(ECx)	504h	Fish	0.52mg/l	2

C.I. Pigment Red 122

Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	>10mg/l	2
EC50	48h	Crustacea	>100mg/l	2
LC50	96h	Fish	>100mg/l	2

Continued...

	NOEC(ECx)	504h	Crustacea	>0.02mg/l	2

C.I. Pigment Blue 29					
	Endpoint	**Test Duration (hr)**	**Species**	**Value**	**Source**
	LC50	96h	Fish	000mg/l	Not Available

C.I. Pigment Blue 1					
	Endpoint	**Test Duration (hr)**	**Species**	**Value**	**Source**
	EC50	48h	Crustacea	1mg/l	Not Available
	LC50	96h	Fish	0.1-1mg/l	Not Available
	EC50(ECx)	48h	Crustacea	1mg/l	Not Available

C.I. Pigment Black 7					
	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
	NOEC(ECx)	24h	Crustacea	3200mg/l	1

C.I. Pigment Red 4					
	Endpoint	**Test Duration (hr)**	**Species**	**Value**	**Source**
	EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	>100mg/l	2
	EC50	48h	Crustacea	>100mg/l	2
	LC50	96h	Fish	>100mg/l	2
	NOEC(ECx)	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	>0.006mg/L	2

C.I. Pigment Red 146					
	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***

DO NOT discharge into sewer or waterways.

Persistence and degradability

Ingredient	Persistence: Water/Soil	Persistence: Air
propylene glycol	LOW	LOW
titanium dioxide	HIGH	HIGH
C.I. Pigment Yellow 3	HIGH	HIGH
C.I. Pigment Yellow 1	HIGH	HIGH
C.I. Pigment Blue 15	HIGH	HIGH

Bioaccumulative potential

Ingredient	Bioaccumulation
propylene glycol	LOW (BCF = 1)
titanium dioxide	LOW (BCF = 10)
C.I. Pigment Yellow 3	MEDIUM (LogKOW = 4.1171)
C.I. Pigment Yellow 1	MEDIUM (LogKOW = 3.9388)
C.I. Pigment Orange 13	LOW (BCF = 5.6)
C.I. Pigment Blue 15	LOW (BCF = 11)

Mobility in soil

Ingredient	Mobility
propylene glycol	HIGH (Log KOC = 1)
titanium dioxide	LOW (Log KOC = 23.74)
C.I. Pigment Yellow 3	LOW (Log KOC = 460.5)
C.I. Pigment Yellow 1	LOW (Log KOC = 278.5)

Continued...

Ingredient	Mobility
C.I. Pigment Blue 15	LOW (Log KOC = 10000000000)

SECTION 13 Disposal considerations

Waste treatment methods

Product / Packaging disposal	Legislation addressing waste disposal requirements may differ by country, state and/ or territory. Each user must refer to laws operating in their area. In some areas, certain wastes must be tracked. A Hierarchy of Controls seems to be common - the user should investigate: ▸ Reduction ▸ Reuse ▸ Recycling ▸ Disposal (if all else fails) This material may be recycled if unused, or if it has not been contaminated so as to make it unsuitable for its intended use. If it has been contaminated, it may be possible to reclaim the product by filtration, distillation or some other means. Shelf life considerations should also be applied in making decisions of this type. Note that properties of a material may change in use, and recycling or reuse may not always be appropriate. ▸ **DO NOT** allow wash water from cleaning or process equipment to enter drains. ▸ It may be necessary to collect all wash water for treatment before disposal. ▸ In all cases disposal to sewer may be subject to local laws and regulations and these should be considered first. ▸ Where in doubt contact the responsible authority. ▸ Recycle wherever possible or consult manufacturer for recycling options. ▸ Consult State Land Waste Authority for disposal. ▸ Bury or incinerate residue at an approved site. ▸ Recycle containers if possible, or dispose of in an authorised landfill.

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
linseed oil	Not Available
calcium carbonate	Not Available
castor oil, hydrogenated	Not Available
fatty acids, C16-18 and C18-unsaturated	Not Available
propylene glycol	Not Available
titanium dioxide	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Yellow 3	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Yellow 1	Not Available
ferric hydroxide	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Red 101	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Orange 13	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Red 48:2	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Red 21	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Blue 15	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Black 11	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Red 122	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Blue 29	Not Available

Continued...

Product name	Group
C.I. Pigment Blue 1	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Black 7	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Red 4	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Red 146	Not Available

14.7.3. Transport in bulk in accordance with the IGC Code

Product name	Ship Type
linseed oil	Not Available
calcium carbonate	Not Available
castor oil, hydrogenated	Not Available
fatty acids, C16-18 and C18-unsaturated	Not Available
propylene glycol	Not Available
titanium dioxide	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Yellow 3	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Yellow 1	Not Available
ferric hydroxide	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Red 101	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Orange 13	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Red 48:2	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Red 21	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Blue 15	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Black 11	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Red 122	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Blue 29	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Blue 1	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Black 7	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Red 4	Not Available
C.I. Pigment Red 146	Not Available

SECTION 15 Regulatory information

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

linseed oil is found on the following regulatory lists

Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)

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)

castor oil, hydrogenated is found on the following regulatory lists

Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)

fatty acids, C16-18 and C18-unsaturated is found on the following regulatory lists

Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)

propylene glycol is found on the following regulatory lists

Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)

titanium dioxide 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
International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) - Agents Classified by the IARC Monographs - Group 2B: Possibly carcinogenic to humans
International WHO List of Proposed Occupational Exposure Limit (OEL) Values for Manufactured Nanomaterials (MNMS)

C.I. Pigment Yellow 3 is found on the following regulatory lists

Continued...

Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)

C.I. Pigment Yellow 1 is found on the following regulatory lists

Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)

ferric hydroxide is found on the following regulatory lists

Australia Standard for the Uniform Scheduling of Medicines and Poisons (SUSMP) - Schedule 2
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 5
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)

C.I. Pigment Red 101 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)

C.I. Pigment Orange 13 is found on the following regulatory lists

Australia Standard for the Uniform Scheduling of Medicines and Poisons (SUSMP) - Schedule 7
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
International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) - Agents Classified by the IARC Monographs - Group 1: Carcinogenic to humans
International WHO List of Proposed Occupational Exposure Limit (OEL) Values for Manufactured Nanomaterials (MNMS)

C.I. Pigment Red 48:2 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)

C.I. Pigment Red 21 is found on the following regulatory lists

Not Applicable

C.I. Pigment Blue 15 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 5
Australia Standard for the Uniform Scheduling of Medicines and Poisons (SUSMP) - Schedule 6
Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)
International WHO List of Proposed Occupational Exposure Limit (OEL) Values for Manufactured Nanomaterials (MNMS)

C.I. Pigment Black 11 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)

C.I. Pigment Red 122 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)

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)

C.I. Pigment Blue 1 is found on the following regulatory lists

Australia Standard for the Uniform Scheduling of Medicines and Poisons (SUSMP) - Schedule 4
Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)

C.I. Pigment Black 7 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
International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) - Agents Classified by the IARC Monographs - Group 2B: Possibly carcinogenic to humans
International WHO List of Proposed Occupational Exposure Limit (OEL) Values for Manufactured Nanomaterials (MNMS)

Continued...

C.I. Pigment Red 4 is found on the following regulatory lists

Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)
Chemical Footprint Project - Chemicals of High Concern List

C.I. Pigment Red 146 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)

Additional Regulatory Information

Not Applicable

National Inventory Status

National Inventory	Status
Australia - AIIC / Australia Non-Industrial Use	No (C.I. Pigment Red 21)
Canada - DSL	No (C.I. Pigment Red 21)
Canada - NDSL	No (linseed oil; castor oil, hydrogenated; fatty acids, C16-18 and C18-unsaturated; propylene glycol; C.I. Pigment Yellow 3; C.I. Pigment Yellow 1; C.I. Pigment Red 101; C.I. Pigment Orange 13; C.I. Pigment Red 48:2; C.I. Pigment Blue 15; C.I. Pigment Black 11; C.I. Pigment Red 122; C.I. Pigment Blue 29; C.I. Pigment Blue 1; C.I. Pigment Black 7; C.I. Pigment Red 4; C.I. Pigment Red 146)
China - IECSC	No (C.I. Pigment Red 21)
Europe - EINEC / ELINCS / NLP	Yes
Japan - ENCS	No (fatty acids, C16-18 and C18-unsaturated)
Korea - KECI	No (C.I. Pigment Red 21)
New Zealand - NZIoC	No (C.I. Pigment Red 21)
Philippines - PICCS	No (C.I. Pigment Red 21)
USA - TSCA	Yes
Taiwan - TCSI	No (C.I. Pigment Red 21)
Mexico - INSQ	No (fatty acids, C16-18 and C18-unsaturated; C.I. Pigment Yellow 3; C.I. Pigment Red 21; C.I. Pigment Red 122; C.I. Pigment Blue 1; C.I. Pigment Red 146)
Vietnam - NCI	Yes
Russia - FBEPH	No (fatty acids, C16-18 and C18-unsaturated; C.I. Pigment Red 21; C.I. Pigment Blue 1; C.I. Pigment Red 146)
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	23/12/2022
Initial Date	07/05/2020

SDS Version Summary

Version	Date of Update	Sections Updated
3.1	03/09/2020	Classification change due to full database hazard calculation/update.
4.1	23/12/2022	Classification review due to GHS Revision change.

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。

Continued...

- 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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