



8616 Super Thermal Grease II

MG Chemicals UK Limited

Version No: 6.6

Safety Data Sheet (Conforms to Regulation (EU) No 2015/830)

Issue Date: 13/02/2018

Print Date: 13/02/2018

L.REACH.GBR.EN

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

1.1. Product Identifier

Product name	8616 Super Thermal Grease II
Synonyms	SDS Code: 8616; 8616-4G, 8616-3ML, 8616-25ML, 8616-85ML, 8616-1P, 8616-1G
Other means of identification	Not Available

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

Relevant identified uses	Thermal interface grease for improving heat flow between the CPU and heat sink
Uses advised against	Not Applicable

1.3. Details of the supplier of the safety data sheet

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

1.4. Emergency telephone number

Association / Organisation	CHEMTREC	Not Available
Emergency telephone numbers	+(44) 870-8200418	Not Available
Other emergency telephone numbers	+(1) 703-527-3887	Not Available

SECTION 2 HAZARDS IDENTIFICATION

2.1. Classification of the substance or mixture

Classification according to regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 [CLP] [1]	H410 - Chronic Aquatic Hazard Category 1
Legend:	1. Classified by Chemwatch; 2. Classification drawn from EC Directive 67/548/EEC - Annex I ; 3. Classification drawn from EC Directive 1272/2008 - Annex VI

2.2. Label elements

Hazard pictogram(s)	
SIGNAL WORD	WARNING

Hazard statement(s)

H410	Very toxic to aquatic life with long lasting effects.
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Supplementary statement(s)

Not Applicable

Precautionary statement(s) Prevention

P273	Avoid release to the environment.
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Continued...

Precautionary statement(s) Response

P391	Collect spillage.
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Precautionary statement(s) Storage

Not Applicable

Precautionary statement(s) Disposal

P501	Dispose of contents/container in accordance with local regulations.
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2.3. Other hazards

Inhalation and/or ingestion may produce health damage*.

Cumulative effects may result following exposure*.

RECh - Art.57-59: The mixture does not contain Substances of Very High Concern (SVHC) at the SDS print date.

SECTION 3 COMPOSITION / INFORMATION ON INGREDIENTS**3.1. Substances**

See 'Composition on ingredients' in Section 3.2

3.2. Mixtures

1.CAS No 2.EC No 3.Index No 4.REACH No	%[weight]	Name	Classification according to regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 [CLP]
1.1344-28-1 2.215-691-6 3.Not Available 4.01-2119529248-35-XXXX	42	<u>aluminium oxide</u>	Not Applicable
1.1314-13-2 2.215-222-5 3.030-013-00-7 4.01-2119463881-32-XXXX 01-2120089607-43-XXXX	37	<u>zinc oxide</u>	Acute Aquatic Hazard Category 1, Chronic Aquatic Hazard Category 1; H410 ^[3]
Legend:	1. Classified by Chemwatch; 2. Classification drawn from EC Directive 67/548/EEC - Annex I ; 3. Classification drawn from EC Directive 1272/2008 - Annex VI 4. Classification drawn from C&L		

SECTION 4 FIRST AID MEASURES**4.1. Description of first aid measures**

Eye Contact	If this product comes in contact with eyes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Wash out immediately with water. ▶ If irritation continues, seek medical attention. ▶ Removal of contact lenses after an eye injury should only be undertaken by skilled personnel.
Skin Contact	If skin or hair contact occurs: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Flush skin and hair with running water (and soap if available). ▶ Seek medical attention in event of irritation.
Inhalation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ If fumes, aerosols or combustion products are inhaled remove from contaminated area. ▶ Other measures are usually unnecessary.
Ingestion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Immediately give a glass of water. ▶ First aid is not generally required. If in doubt, contact a Poisons Information Centre or a doctor.

4.2 Most important symptoms and effects, both acute and delayed

See Section 11

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

Treat symptomatically.

- ▶ Absorption of zinc compounds occurs in the small intestine.
- ▶ The metal is heavily protein bound.
- ▶ Elimination results primarily from faecal excretion.
- ▶ The usual measures for decontamination (Ipecac Syrup, lavage, charcoal or cathartics) may be administered, although patients usually have sufficient vomiting not to require them.
- ▶ CaNa2EDTA has been used successfully to normalise zinc levels and is the agent of choice.

[Ellenhorn and Barceloux: Medical Toxicology]

- ▶ Manifestation of aluminium toxicity include hypercalcaemia, anaemia, Vitamin D refractory osteodystrophy and a progressive encephalopathy (mixed dysarthria-apraxia of speech, asterixis, tremulousness, myoclonus, dementia, focal seizures). Bone pain, pathological fractures and proximal myopathy can occur.
- ▶ Symptoms usually develop insidiously over months to years (in chronic renal failure patients) unless dietary aluminium loads are excessive.
- ▶ Serum aluminium levels above 60 ug/ml indicate increased absorption. Potential toxicity occurs above 100 ug/ml and clinical symptoms are present when levels exceed 200 ug/ml.
- ▶ Deferoxamine has been used to treat dialysis encephalopathy and osteomalacia. CaNa2EDTA is less effective in chelating aluminium.

[Ellenhorn and Barceloux: Medical Toxicology]

Copper, magnesium, aluminium, antimony, iron, manganese, nickel, zinc (and their compounds) in welding, brazing, galvanising or smelting operations all give rise to thermally produced particulates of smaller dimension than may be produced if the metals are divided mechanically. Where insufficient ventilation or respiratory protection is available these particulates may produce 'metal fume fever' in workers from an acute or long term exposure.

- ▶ Onset occurs in 4-6 hours generally on the evening following exposure. Tolerance develops in workers but may be lost over the weekend. (Monday Morning Fever)
- ▶ Pulmonary function tests may indicate reduced lung volumes, small airway obstruction and decreased carbon monoxide diffusing capacity but these abnormalities resolve after several months.
- ▶ Although mildly elevated urinary levels of heavy metal may occur they do not correlate with clinical effects.
- ▶ The general approach to treatment is recognition of the disease, supportive care and prevention of exposure.
- ▶ Seriously symptomatic patients should receive chest x-rays, have arterial blood gases determined and be observed for the development of tracheobronchitis and pulmonary edema.

[Ellenhorn and Barceloux: Medical Toxicology]

SECTION 5 FIREFIGHTING MEASURES

5.1. Extinguishing media

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

5.2. Special hazards arising from the substrate or mixture

Fire Incompatibility	None known.
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5.3. Advice for firefighters

Fire Fighting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Alert Fire Brigade and tell them location and nature of hazard. ▶ Wear breathing apparatus plus protective gloves. ▶ Prevent, by any means available, spillage from entering drains or water courses. ▶ Use water delivered as a fine spray to control fire and cool adjacent area. ▶ DO NOT approach containers suspected to be hot. ▶ Cool fire exposed containers with water spray from a protected location. ▶ If safe to do so, remove containers from path of fire. ▶ Equipment should be thoroughly decontaminated after use.
Fire/Explosion Hazard	<p>Combustible. Will burn if ignited.</p> <p>When aluminium oxide dust is dispersed in air, firefighters should wear protection against inhalation of dust particles, which can also contain hazardous substances from the fire absorbed on the alumina particles.</p>

SECTION 6 ACCIDENTAL RELEASE MEASURES

6.1. Personal precautions, protective equipment and emergency procedures

See section 8

6.2. Environmental precautions

See section 12

6.3. Methods and material for containment and cleaning up

Minor Spills	<p>Environmental hazard - contain spillage.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Clean up all spills immediately. ▶ Avoid contact with skin and eyes. ▶ Wear impervious gloves and safety glasses. ▶ Use dry clean up procedures and avoid generating dust. ▶ Vacuum up (consider explosion-proof machines designed to be grounded during storage and use). ▶ Do NOT use air hoses for cleaning ▶ Place spilled material in clean, dry, sealable, labelled container.
Major Spills	<p>Environmental hazard - contain spillage.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Clear area of personnel and move upwind. ▶ Alert Fire Brigade and tell them location and nature of hazard. ▶ Control personal contact with the substance, by using protective equipment and dust respirator. ▶ Prevent spillage from entering drains, sewers or water courses. ▶ Avoid generating dust. ▶ Sweep, shovel up. Recover product wherever possible. ▶ Put residues in labelled plastic bags or other containers for disposal. ▶ If contamination of drains or waterways occurs, advise emergency services.

6.4. Reference to other sections

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

SECTION 7 HANDLING AND STORAGE

7.1. Precautions for safe handling

Safe handling	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Limit all unnecessary personal contact. ▶ Wear protective clothing when risk of exposure occurs. ▶ Use in a well-ventilated area. ▶ 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.
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8616 Super Thermal Grease II

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ 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 are maintained.
Fire and explosion protection	See section 5
Other information	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Store in original containers. ▶ Keep containers securely sealed. ▶ Store in a cool, dry area protected from environmental extremes. ▶ 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. <p>For major quantities:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Consider storage in banded areas - ensure storage areas are isolated from sources of community water (including stormwater, ground water, lakes and streams). ▶ Ensure that accidental discharge to air or water is the subject of a contingency disaster management plan; this may require consultation with local authorities.

7.2. Conditions for safe storage, including any incompatibilities

Suitable container	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Lined metal can, lined metal pail/ can. ▶ Plastic pail. ▶ Polyliner drum. ▶ Packing as recommended by manufacturer. ▶ Check all containers are clearly labelled and free from leaks.
Storage incompatibility	<p>For aluminas (aluminium oxide): Incompatible with hot chlorinated rubber. In the presence of chlorine trifluoride may react violently and ignite. -May initiate explosive polymerisation of olefin oxides including ethylene oxide. -Produces exothermic reaction above 200 C with halocarbons and an exothermic reaction at ambient temperatures with halocarbons in the presence of other metals. -Produces exothermic reaction with oxygen difluoride. -May form explosive mixture with oxygen difluoride. -Forms explosive mixtures with sodium nitrate. -Reacts vigorously with vinyl acetate.</p> <p>Aluminium oxide is an amphoteric substance, meaning it can react with both acids and bases, such as hydrofluoric acid and sodium hydroxide, acting as an acid with a base and a base with an acid, neutralising the other and producing a salt.</p> <p>Zinc oxide:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ slowly absorbs carbon dioxide from the air. ▶ may react, explosively with magnesium and chlorinated rubber when heated ▶ is incompatible with linseed oil (may cause ignition) ▶ WARNING: Avoid or control reaction with peroxides. All <i>transition metal</i> peroxides should be considered as potentially explosive. For example transition metal complexes of alkyl hydroperoxides may decompose explosively. ▶ The pi-complexes formed between chromium(0), vanadium(0) and other transition metals (haloarene-metal complexes) and mono-or poly-fluorobenzene show extreme sensitivity to heat and are explosive. ▶ Avoid reaction with borohydrides or cyanoborohydrides ▶ Avoid strong acids, bases.

7.3. Specific end use(s)

See section 1.2

SECTION 8 EXPOSURE CONTROLS / PERSONAL PROTECTION

8.1. Control parameters

DERIVED NO EFFECT LEVEL (DNEL)

Not Available

PREDICTED NO EFFECT LEVEL (PNEC)

Not Available

OCCUPATIONAL EXPOSURE LIMITS (OEL)

INGREDIENT DATA

Source	Ingredient	Material name	TWA	STEL	Peak	Notes
UK Workplace Exposure Limits (WELs)	aluminium oxide	Aluminium oxides respirable dust	4 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
UK Workplace Exposure Limits (WELs)	aluminium oxide	Aluminium oxides inhalable dust	10 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available

EMERGENCY LIMITS

Ingredient	Material name	TEEL-1	TEEL-2	TEEL-3
aluminium oxide	Aluminum oxide; (Alumina)	5.7 mg/m3	15 mg/m3	25 mg/m3
zinc oxide	Zinc oxide	10 mg/m3	15 mg/m3	2,500 mg/m3

Ingredient	Original IDLH	Revised IDLH
aluminium oxide	Not Available	Not Available
zinc oxide	500 mg/m3	Not Available

MATERIAL DATA

for zinc oxide:

Zinc oxide intoxication (intoxication zincale) is characterised by general depression, shivering, headache, thirst, colic and diarrhoea.

Exposure to the fume may produce metal fume fever characterised by chills, muscular pain, nausea and vomiting. Short-term studies with guinea pigs show pulmonary function changes and morphologic evidence of small airway inflammation. A no-observed-adverse-effect level (NOAEL) in guinea pigs was 2.7 mg/m3 zinc oxide. Based on present data, the current TLV-TWA may be inadequate to protect exposed workers although known physiological differences in the guinea pig make it more susceptible to functional impairment of the airways than humans.

For aluminium oxide and pyrophoric grades of aluminium:

Twenty seven year experience with aluminium oxide dust (particle size 96% 1.2 um) without adverse effects either systemically or on the lung, and at a calculated concentration equivalent to 2 mg/m3 over an 8-hour shift has lead to the current recommendation of the TLV-TWA.

The limit should also apply to aluminium pyro powders whose toxicity is reportedly greater than aluminium dusts and should be protective against lung changes.


For aluminium oxide:

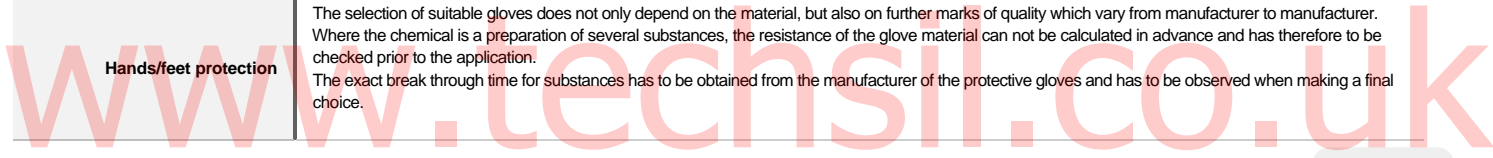
The experimental and clinical data indicate that aluminium oxide acts as an 'inert' material when inhaled and seems to have little effect on the lungs nor does it produce significant organic disease or toxic effects when exposures are kept under reasonable control.

[Documentation of the Threshold Limit Values], ACGIH, Sixth Edition

The concentration of dust, for application of respirable dust limits, is to be determined from the fraction that penetrates a separator whose size collection efficiency is described by a cumulative log-normal function with a median aerodynamic diameter of 4.0 um (+-) 0.3 um and with a geometric standard deviation of 1.5 um (+-) 0.1 um, i.e. generally less than 5 um.

8.2. Exposure controls

<p>8.2.1. Appropriate engineering controls</p>	<p>Engineering controls are used to remove a hazard or place a barrier between the worker and the hazard. Well-designed engineering controls can be highly effective in protecting workers and will typically be independent of worker interactions to provide this high level of protection. The basic types of engineering controls are:</p> <p>Process controls which involve changing the way a job activity or process is done to reduce the risk.</p> <p>Enclosure and/or isolation of emission source which keeps a selected hazard 'physically' away from the worker and ventilation that strategically 'adds' and 'removes' air in the work environment. Ventilation can remove or dilute an air contaminant if designed properly. The design of a ventilation system must match the particular process and chemical or contaminant in use.</p> <p>Employers may need to use multiple types of controls to prevent employee overexposure.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Local exhaust ventilation is required where solids are handled as powders or crystals; even when particulates are relatively large, a certain proportion will be powdered by mutual friction. ▶ Exhaust ventilation should be designed to prevent accumulation and recirculation of particulates in the workplace. ▶ If in spite of local exhaust an adverse concentration of the substance in air could occur, respiratory protection should be considered. Such protection might consist of: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a): particle dust respirators, if necessary, combined with an absorption cartridge; (b): filter respirators with absorption cartridge or canister of the right type; (c): fresh-air hoods or masks <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Build-up of electrostatic charge on the dust particle, may be prevented by bonding and grounding. ▶ Powder handling equipment such as dust collectors, dryers and mills may require additional protection measures such as explosion venting. <p>Air contaminants generated in the workplace possess varying 'escape' velocities which, in turn, determine the 'capture velocities' of fresh circulating air required to efficiently remove the contaminant.</p> <table border="1" data-bbox="391 1137 1487 1281"> <tr> <td>Type of Contaminant:</td> <td>Air Speed:</td> </tr> <tr> <td>direct spray, spray painting in shallow booths, drum filling, conveyer loading, crusher dusts, gas discharge (active generation into zone of rapid air motion)</td> <td>1-2.5 m/s (200-500 f/min.)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>grinding, abrasive blasting, tumbling, high speed wheel generated dusts (released at high initial velocity into zone of very high rapid air motion).</td> <td>2.5-10 m/s (500-2000 f/min.)</td> </tr> </table> <p>Within each range the appropriate value depends on:</p> <table border="1" data-bbox="391 1339 1487 1505"> <tr> <td>Lower end of the range</td> <td>Upper end of the range</td> </tr> <tr> <td>1: Room air currents minimal or favourable to capture</td> <td>1: Disturbing room air currents</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2: Contaminants of low toxicity or of nuisance value only</td> <td>2: Contaminants of high toxicity</td> </tr> <tr> <td>3: Intermittent, low production.</td> <td>3: High production, heavy use</td> </tr> <tr> <td>4: Large hood or large air mass in motion</td> <td>4: Small hood-local control only</td> </tr> </table> <p>Simple theory shows that air velocity falls rapidly with distance away from the opening of a simple extraction pipe. Velocity generally decreases with the square of distance from the extraction point (in simple cases). Therefore the air speed at the extraction point should be adjusted, accordingly, after reference to distance from the contaminating source. The air velocity at the extraction fan, for example, should be a minimum of 4-10 m/s (800-2000 f/min) for extraction of crusher dusts generated 2 metres distant from the extraction point. Other mechanical considerations, producing performance deficits within the extraction apparatus, make it essential that theoretical air velocities are multiplied by factors of 10 or more when extraction systems are installed or used.</p>	Type of Contaminant:	Air Speed:	direct spray, spray painting in shallow booths, drum filling, conveyer loading, crusher dusts, gas discharge (active generation into zone of rapid air motion)	1-2.5 m/s (200-500 f/min.)	grinding, abrasive blasting, tumbling, high speed wheel generated dusts (released at high initial velocity into zone of very high rapid air motion).	2.5-10 m/s (500-2000 f/min.)	Lower end of the range	Upper end of the range	1: Room air currents minimal or favourable to capture	1: Disturbing room air currents	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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<p>8.2.2. Personal protection</p>																	
<p>Eye and face protection</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Safety glasses with side shields ▶ Chemical goggles. ▶ Contact lenses may pose a special hazard; soft contact lenses may absorb and concentrate irritants. A written policy document, describing the wearing of lenses or restrictions on use, should be created for each workplace or task. This should include a review of lens absorption and adsorption for the class of chemicals in use and an account of injury experience. Medical and first-aid personnel should be trained in their removal and suitable equipment should be readily available. In the event of chemical exposure, begin eye irrigation immediately and remove contact lens as soon as practicable. Lens should be removed at the first signs of eye redness or irritation - lens should be removed in a clean environment only after workers have washed hands thoroughly. [CDC NIOSH Current Intelligence Bulletin 59], [AS/NZS 1336 or national equivalent] 																
<p>Skin protection</p>	<p>See Hand protection below</p>																
<p>Hands/feet protection</p>	<p>The selection of suitable gloves does not only depend on the material, but also on further marks of quality which vary from manufacturer to manufacturer. Where the chemical is a preparation of several substances, the resistance of the glove material can not be calculated in advance and has therefore to be checked prior to the application.</p> <p>The exact break through time for substances has to be obtained from the manufacturer of the protective gloves and has to be observed when making a final choice.</p>																



	<p>Personal hygiene is a key element of effective hand care. Gloves must only be worn on clean hands. After using gloves, hands should be washed and dried thoroughly. Application of a non-perfumed moisturizer is recommended.</p> <p>Suitability and durability of glove type is dependent on usage. Important factors in the selection of gloves include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> frequency and duration of contact, chemical resistance of glove material, glove thickness and dexterity <p>Select gloves tested to a relevant standard (e.g. Europe EN 374, US F739, AS/NZS 2161.1 or national equivalent).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> When prolonged or frequently repeated contact may occur, a glove with a protection class of 5 or higher (breakthrough time greater than 240 minutes according to EN 374, AS/NZS 2161.10.1 or national equivalent) is recommended. When only brief contact is expected, a glove with a protection class of 3 or higher (breakthrough time greater than 60 minutes according to EN 374, AS/NZS 2161.10.1 or national equivalent) is recommended. Some glove polymer types are less affected by movement and this should be taken into account when considering gloves for long-term use. Contaminated gloves should be replaced. <p>For general applications, gloves with a thickness typically greater than 0.35 mm, are recommended.</p> <p>It should be emphasised that glove thickness is not necessarily a good predictor of glove resistance to a specific chemical, as the permeation efficiency of the glove will be dependent on the exact composition of the glove material. Therefore, glove selection should also be based on consideration of the task requirements and knowledge of breakthrough times.</p> <p>Glove thickness may also vary depending on the glove manufacturer, the glove type and the glove model. Therefore, the manufacturers' technical data should always be taken into account to ensure selection of the most appropriate glove for the task.</p> <p>Note: Depending on the activity being conducted, gloves of varying thickness may be required for specific tasks. For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Thinner gloves (down to 0.1 mm or less) may be required where a high degree of manual dexterity is needed. However, these gloves are only likely to give short duration protection and would normally be just for single use applications, then disposed of. Thicker gloves (up to 3 mm or more) may be required where there is a mechanical (as well as a chemical) risk i.e. where there is abrasion or puncture potential <p>Gloves must only be worn on clean hands. After using gloves, hands should be washed and dried thoroughly. Application of a non-perfumed moisturiser is recommended.</p> <p>Experience indicates that the following polymers are suitable as glove materials for protection against undissolved, dry solids, where abrasive particles are not present.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> polychloroprene. nitrile rubber. butyl rubber. fluorocautchouc. polyvinyl chloride. <p>Gloves should be examined for wear and/ or degradation constantly.</p>
Body protection	See Other protection below
Other protection	<p>No special equipment needed when handling small quantities.</p> <p>OTHERWISE:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Overalls. Barrier cream. Eyewash unit.
Thermal hazards	Not Available

Respiratory protection

Particulate. (AS/NZS 1716 & 1715, EN 143:2000 & 149:001, ANSI Z88 or national equivalent)

Required Minimum Protection Factor	Half-Face Respirator	Full-Face Respirator	Powered Air Respirator
up to 10 x ES	P1 Air-line*	- -	PAPR-P1 -
up to 50 x ES	Air-line**	P2	PAPR-P2
up to 100 x ES	-	P3	-
		Air-line*	-
100+ x ES	-	Air-line**	PAPR-P3

* - Negative pressure demand ** - Continuous flow

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)

- Respirators may be necessary when engineering and administrative controls do not adequately prevent exposures.
- The decision to use respiratory protection should be based on professional judgment that takes into account toxicity information, exposure measurement data, and frequency and likelihood of the worker's exposure - ensure users are not subject to high thermal loads which may result in heat stress or distress due to personal protective equipment (powered, positive flow, full face apparatus may be an option).
- Published occupational exposure limits, where they exist, will assist in determining the adequacy of the selected respiratory protection. These may be government mandated or vendor recommended.
- Certified respirators will be useful for protecting workers from inhalation of particulates when properly selected and fit tested as part of a complete respiratory protection program.
- Use approved positive flow mask if significant quantities of dust becomes airborne.
- Try to avoid creating dust conditions.

8.2.3. Environmental exposure controls

See section 12

SECTION 9 PHYSICAL AND CHEMICAL PROPERTIES

9.1. Information on basic physical and chemical properties

Appearance	white grease
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Physical state	Solid	Relative density (Water = 1)	2.69
Odour	Not Available	Partition coefficient n-octanol / water	Not Available
Odour threshold	Not Available	Auto-ignition temperature (°C)	Not Available
pH (as supplied)	Not Available	Decomposition temperature	Not Available
Melting point / freezing point (°C)	Not Available	Viscosity (cSt)	>20.5
Initial boiling point and boiling range (°C)	Not Available	Molecular weight (g/mol)	Not Available
Flash point (°C)	290	Taste	Not Available
Evaporation rate	Not Available	Explosive properties	Not Available
Flammability	Not Applicable	Oxidising properties	Not Available
Upper Explosive Limit (%)	Not Available	Surface Tension (dyn/cm or mN/m)	Not Applicable
Lower Explosive Limit (%)	Not Available	Volatile Component (%vol)	Not Available
Vapour pressure (kPa)	Not Available	Gas group	Not Available
Solubility in water (g/L)	Immiscible	pH as a solution (1%)	Not Available
Vapour density (Air = 1)	Not Available	VOC g/L	Not Available

9.2. Other information

Not Available

SECTION 10 STABILITY AND REACTIVITY

10.1. Reactivity	See section 7.2
10.2. Chemical stability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Unstable in the presence of incompatible materials. ▶ Product is considered stable. ▶ Hazardous polymerisation will not occur.
10.3. Possibility of hazardous reactions	See section 7.2
10.4. Conditions to avoid	See section 7.2
10.5. Incompatible materials	See section 7.2
10.6. Hazardous decomposition products	See section 5.3

SECTION 11 TOXICOLOGICAL INFORMATION

11.1. Information on toxicological effects

Inhaled	<p>The material is not thought to produce adverse health effects or irritation of the respiratory tract (as classified by EC Directives using animal models). Nevertheless, good hygiene practice requires that exposure be kept to a minimum and that suitable control measures be used in an occupational setting.</p> <p>Inhalation of freshly formed metal oxide particles sized below 1.5 microns and generally between 0.02 to 0.05 microns may result in 'metal fume fever'. Symptoms may be delayed for up to 12 hours and begin with the sudden onset of thirst, and a sweet, metallic or foul taste in the mouth. Other symptoms include upper respiratory tract irritation accompanied by coughing and a dryness of the mucous membranes, lassitude and a generalised feeling of malaise. Mild to severe headache, nausea, occasional vomiting, fever or chills, exaggerated mental activity, profuse sweating, diarrhoea, excessive urination and prostration may also occur. Tolerance to the fumes develops rapidly, but is quickly lost. All symptoms usually subside within 24-36 hours following removal from exposure.</p>
Ingestion	<p>Acute toxic responses to aluminium are confined to the more soluble forms.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>Soluble zinc salts produces irritation and corrosion of the alimentary tract (in a manner similar to copper salts) with pain, vomiting, etc. Delayed deaths have been ascribed to inanition (weakness and extreme weight loss resulting from prolonged and severe food insufficiency) following severe strictures of the oesophagus, and pylorus. Vomiting, abdominal cramps, and diarrhea, in several cases with blood, have been observed after ingestion of zinc sulfate. Several cases of gastrointestinal disturbances have been reported after ingestion of zinc sulfate. A significant reduction in erythrocyte superoxide dismutase activity (47% decrease), hematocrit, and serum ferritin, compared to pretreatment levels, occurred in female subjects who received supplements (as capsules) of 50 mg zinc/day as zinc gluconate for 10 weeks. A 15% decrease in erythrocyte superoxide dismutase activity was reported in male volunteers receiving 50 mg zinc/day as zinc gluconate for 6 weeks. Another study reported increases in bone specific alkaline phosphatase levels (~25%) and extracellular superoxide dismutase (~15%), while significant decreases were seen in mononuclear white cell 5'-nucleotidase (~30%) and plasma 5'-nucleotidase activity (~36%) following exposure of postmenopausal women to a combined (dietary+supplemental) 53 mg zinc/day as zinc glycine chelate. Healthy men given 200 mg zinc/day as elemental zinc for 6 weeks showed a reduction in lymphocyte stimulation response to phytohemagglutinin as well as chemotaxis and phagocytosis of bacteria by polymorphonuclear leukocytes.; however, no changes in lymphocyte cell number or in the proportion of lymphocyte populations were noted. Exposure of male volunteers to 0.48 mg zinc/kg/day, as zinc glycine chelate, had no effect on markers of coagulation relative to unexposed subjects. While the changes in</p> <p>hematological end points following long-term zinc exposure in humans are noteworthy, they were subclinical in nature, and therefore, are generally considered to be non-adverse. In animals, following oral administration of zinc compounds, decreased hemoglobin, hematocrit, erythrocyte, and/or leukocyte levels were observed in rats, mice, rabbits, dogs, ferrets, and preruminant calves. A number of intermediate-duration studies have demonstrated renal effects in animals exposed to zinc oxide, zinc sulfate, and zinc acetate. Zinc sulfate caused an increase in the absolute and relative kidney weights and regressive kidney lesions (not specified) in female mice that consumed 1,110 mg zinc/kg/day in the diet for 13 weeks, but no effects occurred in rats that consumed 565 mg zinc/kg/day or in mice that consumed 104 mg zinc/kg/day under similar conditions. Severe diffuse nephrosis was observed in ferrets exposed to 195 mg zinc/kg/day as zinc oxide in the diet. In rats exposed to 191 mg zinc/kg/day as zinc acetate for 3 months, epithelial cell damage in the glomerulus and proximal convoluted tubules and increased plasma creatinine and urea levels were observed. Zinc plays a role in the</p>

	<p>normal development and maintenance of the immune system, such as in the lymphocyte response to mitogens and as a cofactor for the thymic hormone thymulin. Oral exposure to zinc at levels much higher than the recommended daily dose has impaired immune and inflammatory responses. This was observed in <i>in vivo</i> investigations of the immune competence of blood components taken from 11 healthy adult men after ingestion of 4.3 mg zinc/kg/day as zinc sulfate for 6 weeks. The mitogenic response elicited from peripheral blood lymphocytes and the chemotactic and phagocytic responses of polymorphonuclear leukocytes were impaired after zinc ingestion. No effects were seen on total numbers of lymphocytes or relative numbers of T cells, T cell subsets, or B cells. The relationship between these observations and decreased levels of immune competence that might lead to increased susceptibility to disease is unknown. A later study reported no effects of supplementation of male volunteers with 30 mg zinc/day (0.43 mg zinc/kg/day assuming a reference male body weight of 70 kg) as zinc glycine chelate for 14 weeks on levels of peripheral blood leucocytes or on the frequency of lymphocyte subsets.</p> <p>Zinc appears to be necessary for normal brain function, but excess zinc is toxic. A 16-year-old boy who ingested .86 mg zinc/kg/day of metallic zinc over a 2-day period in an attempt to promote wound healing, developed signs and symptoms of lethargy, light-headedness, staggering, and difficulty in writing clearly. Lethargy was also observed in a 2-year-old child who ingested a zinc chloride solution (.1,000 mg zinc/kg). It is not known whether these observations represent direct effects on the nervous system. Very limited data were located regarding neurological effects in animals. Minor neuron degeneration and proliferation of oligodendroglia occurred in rats dosed with 487 mg zinc/kg/day as zinc oxide for 10 days. Rats receiving 472 mg zinc/kg/day for 10 days had increased levels of secretory material in the neurosecretory nuclei of the hypothalamus. Mice exposed postnatally to 0.5 mg zinc/kg/day as zinc acetate for 28 days showed no changes in memory formation, but showed a gradual decrease in learning extinction throughout the study.</p>
Skin Contact	<p>The material is not thought to produce adverse health effects or skin irritation following contact (as classified by EC Directives using animal models). Nevertheless, good hygiene practice requires that exposure be kept to a minimum and that suitable gloves be used in an occupational setting. Contact with aluminas (aluminium oxides) may produce a form of irritant dermatitis accompanied by pruritus.</p> <p>Though considered non-harmful, slight irritation may result from contact because of the abrasive nature of the aluminium oxide particles. Open cuts, abraded or irritated skin should not be exposed to this material</p> <p>Entry into the blood-stream through, for example, cuts, abrasions, puncture wounds or lesions, may produce systemic injury with harmful effects. Examine the skin prior to the use of the material and ensure that any external damage is suitably protected.</p>
Eye	<p>Although the material is not thought to be an irritant (as classified by EC Directives), direct contact with the eye may cause transient discomfort characterised by tearing or conjunctival redness (as with windburn). Slight abrasive damage may also result. The material may produce foreign body irritation in certain individuals.</p>
Chronic	<p>Long-term exposure to the product is not thought to produce chronic effects adverse to health (as classified by EC Directives using animal models); nevertheless exposure by all routes should be minimised as a matter of course.</p> <p>Chronic exposure to aluminas (aluminium oxides) of particle size 1.2 microns did not produce significant systemic or respiratory system effects in workers. Epidemiologic surveys have indicated an excess of nonmalignant respiratory disease in workers exposed to aluminum oxide during abrasives production. Very fine Al₂O₃ powder was not fibrogenic in rats, guinea pigs, or hamsters when inhaled for 6 to 12 months and sacrificed at periods up to 12 months following the last exposure.</p> <p>When hydrated aluminas were injected intratracheally, they produced dense and numerous nodules of advanced fibrosis in rats, a reticulin network with occasional collagen fibres in mice and guinea pigs, and only a slight reticulin network in rabbits. Shaver's disease, a rapidly progressive and often fatal interstitial fibrosis of the lungs, is associated with a process involving the fusion of bauxite (aluminium oxide) with iron, coke and silica at 2000 deg. C.</p> <p>The weight of evidence suggests that catalytically active alumina and the large surface area aluminas can induce lung fibrosis(aluminosis) in experimental animals, but only when given by the intra-tracheal route. The pertinence of such experiments in relation to workplace exposure is doubtful especially since it has been demonstrated that the most reactive of the aluminas (i.e. the chi and gamma forms), when given by inhalation, are non-fibrogenic in experimental animals. However rats exposed by inhalation to refractory aluminium fibre showed mild fibrosis and possibly carcinogenic effects indicating that fibrous aluminas might exhibit different toxicology to non-fibrous forms. Aluminium oxide fibres administered by the intrapleural route produce clear evidence of carcinogenicity.</p> <p>Saffil fibre an artificially produced form alumina fibre used as refractories, consists of over 95% alumina, 3-4 % silica. Animal tests for fibrogenic, carcinogenic potential and oral toxicity have included <i>in-vitro</i>, intraperitoneal injection, intrapleural injection, inhalation, and feeding. The fibre has generally been inactive in animal studies. Also studies of Saffil dust clouds show very low respirable fraction.</p> <p>There is general agreement that particle size determines that the degree of pathogenicity (the ability of a micro-organism to produce infectious disease) of elementary aluminium, or its oxides or hydroxides when they occur as dusts, fumes or vapours. Only those particles small enough to enter the alveoli (sub 5 um) are able to produce pathogenic effects in the lungs.</p> <p>Occupational exposure to aluminium compounds may produce asthma, chronic obstructive lung disease and pulmonary fibrosis. Long-term overexposure may produce dyspnoea, cough, pneumothorax, variable sputum production and nodular interstitial fibrosis; death has been reported. Chronic interstitial pneumonia with severe cavitations in the right upper lung and small cavities in the remaining lung tissue, have been observed in gross pathology. Shaver's Disease may result from occupational exposure to fumes or dusts; this may produce respiratory distress and fibrosis with large blebs. Animal studies produce no indication that aluminium or its compounds are carcinogenic.</p> <p>Because aluminium competes with calcium for absorption, increased amounts of dietary aluminium may contribute to the reduced skeletal mineralisation (osteopenia) observed in preterm infants and infants with growth retardation. In very high doses, aluminium can cause neurotoxicity, and is associated with altered function of the blood-brain barrier. A small percentage of people are allergic to aluminium and experience contact dermatitis, digestive disorders, vomiting or other symptoms upon contact or ingestion of products containing aluminium, such as deodorants or antacids. In those without allergies, aluminium is not as toxic as heavy metals, but there is evidence of some toxicity if it is consumed in excessive amounts. Although the use of aluminium cookware has not been shown to lead to aluminium toxicity in general, excessive consumption of antacids containing aluminium compounds and excessive use of aluminium-containing antiperspirants provide more significant exposure levels. Studies have shown that consumption of acidic foods or liquids with aluminium significantly increases aluminium absorption, and maltol has been shown to increase the accumulation of aluminium in nervous and osseous tissue. Furthermore, aluminium increases oestrogen-related gene expression in human breast cancer cells cultured in the laboratory These salts' estrogen-like effects have led to their classification as a metalloestrogen. Some researchers have expressed concerns that the aluminium in antiperspirants may increase the risk of breast cancer.</p> <p>After absorption, aluminium distributes to all tissues in animals and humans and accumulates in some, in particular bone. The main carrier of the aluminium ion in plasma is the iron binding protein, transferrin. Aluminium can enter the brain and reach the placenta and foetus. Aluminium may persist for a very long time in various organs and tissues before it is excreted in the urine. Although retention times for aluminium appear to be longer in humans than in rodents, there is little information allowing extrapolation from rodents to the humans.</p> <p>At high levels of exposure, some aluminium compounds may produce DNA damage <i>in vitro</i> and <i>in vivo</i> via indirect mechanisms. The database on carcinogenicity of aluminium compounds is limited. No indication of any carcinogenic potential was obtained in mice given aluminium potassium sulphate at high levels in the diet.</p> <p>Aluminium has shown neurotoxicity in patients undergoing dialysis and thereby chronically exposed parenterally to high concentrations of aluminium. It has been suggested that aluminium is implicated in the aetiology of Alzheimer's disease and associated with other neurodegenerative diseases in humans. However, these hypotheses remain controversial. Several compounds containing aluminium have the potential to produce neurotoxicity (mice, rats) and to affect the male reproductive system (dogs). In addition, after maternal exposure they have shown embryotoxicity (mice) and have affected the developing nervous system in the offspring (mice, rats). The available studies have a number of limitations and do not allow any dose-response relationships to be established. The combined evidence from several studies in mice, rats and dogs that used dietary administration of aluminium compounds produce lowest-observed-adverse-effect levels (LOAELs) for effects on neurotoxicity, testes, embryotoxicity, and the developing nervous system of 52, 75, 100, and 50 mg aluminium/kg bw/day, respectively. Similarly, the lowest no-observed-adverse-effect levels (NOAELs) for effects on these endpoints were reported at 30, 27, 100, and for effects on the developing nervous system, between 10 and 42 mg aluminium/kg bw per day, respectively.</p> <p>Controversy exists over whether aluminium is the cause of degenerative brain disease (Alzheimer's disease or AD). Several epidemiological studies show a possible correlation between the incidence of AD and high levels of aluminium in drinking water. A study in Toronto, for example, found a 2.6 times increased risk in people residing for at least 10 years in communities where drinking water contained more than 0.15 mg/l aluminium compared with communities where the aluminium level was lower than 0.1 mg/l. A neurochemical model has been suggested linking aluminium exposure to brain disease. Aluminium concentrates in brain regions, notably the hippocampus, cerebral cortex and amygdala where it preferentially binds to large pyramid-shaped cells - it does not bind to a substantial degree to the smaller interneurons. Aluminium displaces magnesium in key metabolic reactions in brain cells and also interferes with calcium metabolism and inhibits phosphoinositide metabolism. Phosphoinositide normally controls calcium ion levels at critical</p>

concentrations.

Under the microscope the brain of AD sufferers show thickened fibrils (neurofibrillary tangles - NFT) and plaques consisting of amyloid protein deposited in the matrix between brain cells. Tangles result from alteration of 'tau' a brain cytoskeletal protein. AD tau is distinguished from normal tau because it is hyperphosphorylated. Aluminium hyperphosphorylates tau in vitro. When AD tau is injected into rat brain NFT-like aggregates form but soon degrade. Aluminium stabilises these aggregates rendering them resistant to protease degradation. Plaque formation is also enhanced by aluminium which induces the accumulation of amyloid precursor protein in the thread-like extensions of nerve cells (axons and dendrites). In addition aluminium has been shown to depress the activity of most neuro-transmitters similarly depressed in AD (acetylcholine, norepinephrine, glutamate and GABA).

Aluminium enters the brain in measurable quantities, even when trace levels are contained in a glass of tap water. Other sources of bioavailable aluminium include baking powder, antacids and aluminium products used for general food preparation and storage (over 12 months, aluminium levels in soft drink packed in aluminium cans rose from 0.05 to 0.9 mg/l). [Walton, J and Bryson-Taylor, D. - Chemistry in Australia, August 1995]

Zinc is necessary for normal fetal growth and development. Fetal damage may result from zinc deficiency. Only one report in the literature suggested adverse developmental effects in humans due to exposure to excessive levels of zinc. Four women were given zinc supplements of 0.6 mg zinc/kg/day as zinc sulfate during the third trimester of pregnancy. Three of the women had premature deliveries, and one delivered a stillborn infant. However, the significance of these results cannot be determined because very few details were given regarding the study protocol, reproductive histories, and the nutritional status of the women. Other human studies have found no developmental effects in the newborns of mothers consuming 0.3 mg zinc/kg/day as zinc sulfate or zinc citrate or 0.06 mg zinc/kg/day as zinc aspartate during the last two trimesters. There has been a suggestion that increased serum zinc levels in pregnant women may be associated with an increase in neural tube defects, but others have failed to confirm this association. The developmental toxicity of zinc in experimental animals has been evaluated in a number of investigations. Exposure to high levels of zinc in the diet prior to and/or during gestation has been associated with increased fetal resorptions, reduced fetal weights, altered tissue concentrations of fetal iron and copper, and reduced growth in the offspring.

Animal studies suggest that exposure to very high levels of dietary zinc is associated with reduced fetal weight, alopecia, decreased hematocrit, and copper deficiency in offspring. For example, second generation mice exposed to zinc carbonate during gestation and lactation (260 mg/kg/day in the maternal diet), and then continued on that diet for 8 weeks, had reduced body weight, alopecia, and signs of copper deficiency (e.g., lowered hematocrit and occasional achromotrichia [loss of hair colour]. Similarly, mink kits from dams that ingested a time-weighted-average dose of 20.8 mg zinc/kg/day as zinc sulfate also had alopecia and achromotrichia. It is likely that the alopecia resulted from zinc-induced copper deficiency, which is known to cause alopecia in monkeys. However, no adverse effects were observed in parental mice or mink. No effects on reproduction were reported in rats exposed to 50 mg zinc/kg/day as zinc carbonate; however, increased stillbirths were observed in rats exposed to 250 mg zinc/kg/day.

Welding or flame cutting of metals with zinc or zinc dust coatings may result in inhalation of zinc oxide fume; high concentrations of zinc oxide fume may result in 'metal fume fever'; also known as 'brass chills', an industrial disease of short duration. [I.L.O.] Symptoms include malaise, fever, weakness, nausea and may appear quickly if operations occur in enclosed or poorly ventilated areas.

Genotoxicity studies conducted in a variety of test systems have failed to provide evidence for mutagenicity of zinc. However, there are indications of weak clastogenic effects following zinc exposure.

8616 Super Thermal Grease II	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	Not Available	Not Available
aluminium oxide	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	Oral (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg ^[1]	Not Available
zinc oxide	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	Oral (rat) LD50: >5000 mg/kg ^[1]	Eye (rabbit) : 500 mg/24 h - mild Skin (rabbit) : 500 mg/24 h - mild
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	

ZINC OXIDE	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.
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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 available but does not fill the criteria for classification
✔ - Data available to make classification
☉ - Data Not Available to make classification

SECTION 12 ECOLOGICAL INFORMATION

12.1. Toxicity

8616 Super Thermal Grease II	ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
aluminium oxide	ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
	LC50	96	Fish	0.0029mg/L	2
	EC50	48	Crustacea	0.7364mg/L	2

8616 Super Thermal Grease II

EC50	96	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.0054mg/L	2
NOEC	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	>=0.004mg/L	2

ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
LC50	96	Fish	0.439mg/L	2
EC50	48	Crustacea	0.105mg/L	2
EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.042mg/L	4
BCF	336	Fish	4376.673mg/L	4
NOEC	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.0049mg/L	2

Legend:

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

May cause long-term adverse effects in the aquatic environment.

Do NOT allow product to come in contact with surface waters or to intertidal areas below the mean high water mark. Do not contaminate water when cleaning equipment or disposing of equipment wash-waters.

Wastes resulting from use of the product must be disposed of on site or at approved waste sites.

For zinc and its compounds:

Environmental fate:

Zinc is capable of forming complexes with a variety of organic and inorganic groups (ligands). Biological activity can affect the mobility of zinc in the aquatic environment, although the biota contains relatively little zinc compared to the sediments. Zinc bioconcentrates moderately in aquatic organisms; bioconcentration is higher in crustaceans and bivalve species than in fish. Zinc does not concentrate appreciably in plants, and it does not biomagnify significantly through terrestrial food chains.

However biomagnification may be of concern if concentration of zinc exceeds 1632 ppm in the top 12 inches of soil.

Zinc can persist in water indefinitely and can be toxic to aquatic life. The threshold concentration for fish is 0.1 ppm. Zinc may be concentrated in the aquatic food chain; it is concentrated over 200,000 times in oysters. Copper is synergistic but calcium is antagonistic to zinc toxicity in fish. Zinc can accumulate in freshwater animals at 5 - 1,130 times the concentration present in the water. Furthermore, although zinc actively bioaccumulates in aquatic systems, biota appears to represent a relatively minor sink compared to sediments. Steady-state zinc bioconcentration factors (BCFs) for 12 aquatic species range from 4 to 24,000. Crustaceans and fish can accumulate zinc from both water and food. A BCF of 1,000 was reported for both aquatic plants and fish, and a value of 10,000 was reported for aquatic invertebrates. The order of enrichment of zinc in different aquatic organisms was as follows (zinc concentrations in µg/g dry weight appear in parentheses): fish (25), shrimp (50), mussel (60), periphyton (260), zooplankton (330), and oyster (3,300). The high enrichment in oysters may be due to their ingestion of particulate matter containing higher concentrations of zinc than ambient water. Other investigators have also indicated that organisms associated with sediments have higher zinc concentrations than organisms living in the aqueous layer. With respect to bioconcentration from soil by terrestrial plants, invertebrates, and mammals, BCFs of 0.4, 8, and 0.6, respectively, have been reported. The concentration of zinc in plants depends on the plant species, soil pH, and the composition of the soil.

Plant species do not concentrate zinc above the levels present in soil.

In some fish, it has been observed that the level of zinc found in their bodies did not directly relate to the exposure concentrations. Bioaccumulation of zinc in fish is inversely related to the aqueous exposure. This evidence suggests that fish placed in environments with lower zinc concentrations can sequester zinc in their bodies.

The concentration of zinc in drinking water may increase as a result of the distribution system and household plumbing. Common piping materials used in distribution systems often contain zinc, as well as other metals and alloys. Trace metals may enter the water through corrosion products or simply by the dissolution of small amounts of metals with which the water comes in contact. Reactions with materials of the distribution system, particularly in soft low-pH waters, very often have produced concentrations of zinc in tap water much greater than those in the raw or treated waters at the plant of origin. Zinc gives water a metallic taste at low levels. Overexposures to zinc also have been associated with toxic effects. Ingestion of zinc or zinc-containing compounds has resulted in a variety of systemic effects in the gastrointestinal and hematological systems and alterations in the blood lipid profile in humans and animals. In addition, lesions have been observed in the liver, pancreas, and kidneys of animals.

Environmental toxicity of zinc in water is dependent upon the concentration of other minerals and the pH of the solution, which affect the ligands that associate with zinc.

Zinc occurs in the environment mainly in the +2 oxidation state. Sorption is the dominant reaction, resulting in the enrichment of zinc in suspended and bed sediments. Zinc in aerobic waters is partitioned into sediments through sorption onto hydrous iron and manganese oxides, clay minerals, and organic material. The efficiency of these materials in removing zinc from solution varies according to their concentrations, pH, redox potential (Eh), salinity, nature and concentrations of complexing ligands, cation exchange capacity, and the concentration of zinc. Precipitation of soluble zinc compounds appears to be significant only under reducing conditions in highly polluted water. Generally, at lower pH values, zinc remains as the free ion. The free ion (Zn²⁺) tends to be adsorbed and transported by suspended solids in unpolluted waters.

Zinc is an essential nutrient that is present in all organisms. Although biota appears to be a minor reservoir of zinc relative to soils and sediments, microbial decomposition of biota in water can produce ligands, such as humic acids, that can affect the mobility of zinc in the aquatic environment through zinc precipitation and adsorption.

The relative mobility of zinc in soil is determined by the same factors that affect its transport in aquatic systems (i.e., solubility of the compound, pH, and salinity)

The redox status of the soil may shift zinc partitioning. Reductive dissolution of iron and manganese (hydr)oxides under suboxic conditions release zinc into the aqueous phase; the persistence of suboxic conditions may then lead to a repartitioning of zinc into sulfide and carbonate solids. The mobility of zinc in soil depends on the solubility of the species of the element and on soil properties such as cation exchange capacity, pH, redox potential, and chemical species present in soil; under anaerobic conditions, zinc sulfide is the controlling species.

Since zinc sulfide is insoluble, the mobility of zinc in anaerobic soil is low. In a study of the effect of pH on zinc solubility: When the pH is <7, an inverse relationship exists between the pH and the amount of zinc in solution. As negative charges on soil surfaces increase with increasing pH, additional sites for zinc adsorption are activated and the amount of zinc in solution decreases. The active zinc species in the adsorbed state is the singly charged zinc hydroxide species (i.e., Zn(OH)⁺). Other investigators have also shown that the mobility of zinc in soil increases at lower soil pH under oxidizing conditions and at a lower cation exchange capacity of soil. On the other hand, the amount of zinc in solution generally increases when the pH is >7 in soils high in organic matter. This is a result of the release of organically complexed zinc, reduced zinc adsorption at higher pH, or an increase in the concentration of chelating agents in soil. For calcareous soils, the relationship between zinc solubility and pH is nonlinear. At a high pH, zinc in solution is precipitated as Zn(OH)₂, zinc carbonate (ZnCO₃), or calcium zincate. Clay and metal oxides are capable of sorbing zinc and tend to retard its mobility in soil. Zinc was more mobile at pH 4 than at pH 6.5 as a consequence of sorption

Zinc concentrations in the air are relatively low, except near industrial sources such as smelters. No estimate for the atmospheric lifetime of zinc is available at this time, but the fact that zinc is transported long distances in air indicates that its lifetime in air is at least on the order of days. There are few data regarding the speciation of zinc released to the atmosphere. Zinc is removed from the air by dry and wet deposition, but zinc particles with small diameters and low densities suspended in the atmosphere travel long distances from emission sources.

For aluminium and its compounds and salts:

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

Environmental fate:

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

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

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

The trivalent aluminium ion is surrounded by six water molecules in solution. The hydrated aluminium ion, [Al(H₂O)₆]³⁺, undergoes hydrolysis, in which a stepwise deprotonation of the coordinated water ligands forms bound hydroxide ligands (e.g., [Al(H₂O)₅(OH)]²⁺, [Al(H₂O)₄(OH)₂]⁺). The speciation of aluminium in water is pH dependent. The hydrated trivalent aluminium ion is the predominant form at pH levels below 4. Between pH 5 and 6, the predominant hydrolysis products are Al(OH)₂⁺ and Al(OH)₂⁺, while the solid Al(OH)₃ is most prevalent between pH 5.2 and 8.8. The soluble species Al(OH)₄⁻ is the predominant species above pH 9, and is the only species present above pH 10. Polymeric aluminium hydroxides appear between pH 4.7 and 10.5, and increase in size until they are transformed into colloidal particles of amorphous Al(OH)₃, which crystallise to gibbsite in acid waters. Polymerisation is affected by the presence of dissolved silica; when enough silica is present, aluminium is precipitated as poorly crystallised clay mineral species.

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

Monomeric aluminum compounds, typified by aluminum fluoride, chloride, and sulfate, are considered reactive or labile compounds, whereas polymeric aluminum species react much more slowly

in the environment. Aluminum has a stronger attraction for fluoride in an acidic environment compared to other inorganic ligand.

The adsorption of aluminum onto clay surfaces can be a significant factor in controlling aluminum mobility in the environment, and these adsorption reactions, measured in one study at pH 3.0-4.1, have been observed to be very rapid. However, clays may act either as a sink or a source for soluble aluminum depending on the degree of aluminum saturation on the clay surface.

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

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

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

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

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

Ecotoxicity:

Freshwater species pH >6.5

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Alga: 1 sp NOEC growth 2.0 mg/L

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

The bioavailability and toxicity of aluminium is generally greatest in acid solutions. Aluminium in acid habitats has been observed to be toxic to fish and phytoplankton. Aluminium is generally more toxic over the pH range 4.4-5.4, with a maximum toxicity occurring around pH 5.0-5.2. The inorganic single unit aluminium species (Al(OH)₂⁺) is thought to be the most toxic. Under very acid conditions, the toxic effects of the high H⁺ concentration appear to be more important than the effects of low concentrations of aluminium; at approximately neutral pH values, the toxicity of aluminium is greatly reduced. The solubility of aluminium is also enhanced under alkaline conditions, due to its amphoteric character, and some researchers found that the acute toxicity of aluminium increased from pH 7 to pH 9. However, the opposite relationship was found in other studies. The uptake and toxicity of aluminium in freshwater organisms generally decreases with increasing water hardness under acidic, neutral and alkaline conditions. Complexing agents such as fluoride, citrate and humic substances reduce the availability of aluminium to organisms, resulting in lower toxicity. Silicon can also reduce aluminium toxicity to fish.

Drinking Water Standards:

aluminium: 200 ug/l (UK max.)

200 ug/l (WHO guideline)

chloride: 400 mg/l (UK max.)

250 mg/l (WHO guideline)

fluoride: 1.5 mg/l (UK max.)

1.5 mg/l (WHO guideline)

nitrate: 50 mg/l (UK max.)

50 mg/l (WHO guideline)

sulfate: 250 mg/l (UK max.)

Soil Guideline: none available.

Air Quality Standards: none available.

12.2. Persistence and degradability

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

12.3. Bioaccumulative potential

Ingredient	Bioaccumulation
zinc oxide	LOW (BCF = 217)

12.4. Mobility in soil

Ingredient	Mobility
	No Data available for all ingredients

12.5. Results of PBT and vPvB assessment

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

12.6. Other adverse effects

No data available

13.1. Waste treatment methods

Product / Packaging disposal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ DO NOT allow wash water from cleaning or process equipment to enter drains. ▶ It may be necessary to collect all wash water for treatment before disposal. ▶ In all cases disposal to sewer may be subject to local laws and regulations and these should be considered first. ▶ Where in doubt contact the responsible authority. ▶ Recycle wherever possible. ▶ Consult manufacturer for recycling options or consult local or regional waste management authority for disposal if no suitable treatment or disposal facility can be identified. ▶ Dispose of by: burial in a land-fill specifically licensed to accept chemical and / or pharmaceutical wastes or Incineration in a licensed apparatus (after admixture with suitable combustible material) ▶ Decontaminate empty containers. Observe all label safeguards until containers are cleaned and destroyed.
Waste treatment options	Not Available
Sewage disposal options	Not Available

SECTION 14 TRANSPORT INFORMATION**Land transport (ADR)**

14.1. UN number	UN3077 Not Regulated, as per ADR Special Provision 375
14.2. UN proper shipping name	Not Regulated
14.3. Transport hazard class(es)	Not Regulated
14.4. Packing group	Not Regulated
14.5. Environmental hazard	Not Regulated
14.6. Special precautions for user	Not Regulated

Air transport (ICAO-IATA / DGR)

14.1. UN number	UN3077 Not Restricted, as per Special Provision A197
14.2. UN proper shipping name	Not Regulated
14.3. Transport hazard class(es)	Not Regulated
14.4. Packing group	Not Regulated
14.5. Environmental hazard	Not Regulated
14.6. Special precautions for user	Not Regulated

Sea transport (IMDG-Code / GGVSee)

14.1. UN number	UN3077 Not Restricted, as per 2.10.2.7
14.2. UN proper shipping name	Not Regulated
14.3. Transport hazard class(es)	Not Regulated
14.4. Packing group	Not Regulated
14.5. Environmental hazard	Not Regulated
14.6. Special precautions for user	Not Regulated

Inland waterways transport (ADN)

14.1. UN number	UN3077 Not Regulated, as per ADN Special Provision 274
14.2. UN proper shipping name	Not Regulated
14.3. Transport hazard class(es)	Not Regulated
14.4. Packing group	Not Regulated
14.5. Environmental hazard	Not Regulated
14.6. Special precautions for user	Not Regulated

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

Not Applicable

SECTION 15 REGULATORY INFORMATION**15.1. Safety, health and environmental regulations / legislation specific for the substance or mixture****ALUMINIUM OXIDE(1344-28-1) IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS**

European Customs Inventory of Chemical Substances ECICS (English)

UK Workplace Exposure Limits (WELs)

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

ZINC OXIDE(1314-13-2) IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

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

European Customs Inventory of Chemical Substances ECICS (English)

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

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

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

This safety data sheet is in compliance with the following EU legislation and its adaptations - as far as applicable - : 98/24/EC, 92/85/EC, 94/33/EC, 91/689/EEC, 1999/13/EC, Commission Regulation (EU) 2015/830, Regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 and their amendments

15.2. Chemical safety assessment

For further information please look at the Chemical Safety Assessment and Exposure Scenarios prepared by your Supply Chain if available.

National Inventory	Status
Australia - AICS	Y
Canada - DSL	Y
Canada - NDSL	N (aluminium oxide)
China - IECSC	Y
Europe - EINEC / ELINCS / NLP	Y
Japan - ENCS	Y
Korea - KECI	Y
New Zealand - NZIoC	Y
Philippines - PICCS	Y
USA - TSCA	Y
Legend:	Y = All ingredients are on the inventory N = Not determined or one or more ingredients are not on the inventory and are not exempt from listing(see specific ingredients in brackets)

SECTION 16 OTHER INFORMATION

Full text Risk and Hazard codes

Other information

Ingredients with multiple cas numbers

Name	CAS No
aluminium oxide	1344-28-1., 1011245-20-7, 1022097-81-9, 107462-07-7, 107874-14-6, 1097999-44-4, 1197416-35-5, 122784-35-4, 1234495-70-5, 1239586-42-5, 12522-88-2, 127361-04-0, 12737-16-5, 131689-14-0, 1346644-15-2, 135152-65-7, 1355357-83-3, 135667-70-8, 138361-58-7, 148619-39-0, 152743-26-5, 153858-98-1, 157516-29-5, 163581-50-8, 165390-91-0, 170448-81-4, 190401-78-6, 200295-99-4, 205316-36-5, 209552-43-2, 230616-05-4, 252756-35-7, 253606-46-1, 253606-47-2, 253606-45-0, 268724-08-9, 39354-49-9, 457654-46-5, 488831-46-5, 521982-71-8, 53809-96-4, 54352-04-4, 546141-61-1, 663170-52-3, 67853-35-4, 67894-14-8, 67894-42-2, 68189-68-4, 68389-42-4, 68389-43-5, 74871-10-6, 76363-81-0, 84149-21-3, 90669-62-8, 916225-60-0, 960377-08-6, 11092-32-3
zinc oxide	1314-13-2, 175449-32-8

Classification of the preparation and its individual components has drawn on official and authoritative sources as well as independent review by the Chemwatch Classification committee using available literature references.

The SDS is a Hazard Communication tool and should be used to assist in the Risk Assessment. Many factors determine whether the reported Hazards are Risks in the workplace or other settings. Risks may be determined by reference to Exposures Scenarios. Scale of use, frequency of use and current or available engineering controls must be considered.

For detailed advice on Personal Protective Equipment, refer to the following EU CEN Standards:

EN 166 Personal eye-protection

EN 340 Protective clothing

EN 374 Protective gloves against chemicals and micro-organisms

EN 13832 Footwear protecting against chemicals

EN 133 Respiratory protective devices

Definitions and abbreviations

PC – TWA: Permissible Concentration-Time Weighted Average

PC – STEL: Permissible Concentration-Short Term Exposure Limit

IARC: International Agency for Research on Cancer

ACGIH: American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists

STEL: Short Term Exposure Limit

TEEL: Temporary Emergency Exposure Limit.

IDLH: Immediately Dangerous to Life or Health Concentrations

OSF: Odour Safety Factor

NOAEL :No Observed Adverse Effect Level

LOAEL: Lowest Observed Adverse Effect Level

TLV: Threshold Limit Value

LOD: Limit Of Detection

OTV: Odour Threshold Value

BCF: BioConcentration Factors

BEI: Biological Exposure Index