



8329TCS-A Thermally Conductive Epoxy Adhesive

Mektronics

Version No: 10.21

Safety Data Sheet according to WHS and ADG requirements

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

Product Identifier

Product name	8329TCS-A
Synonyms	SDS Code: 8329TCS-A; 8329TCS-6ML, 8329TCS-50ML, 8329TCS-200ML
Other means of identification	Thermally Conductive Epoxy Adhesive

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

Relevant identified uses	Thermally conductive adhesive epoxy resin
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Details of the supplier of the safety data sheet

Registered company name	Mektronics	MG Chemicals (Head office)
Address	Unit 3 8 Bonz Place, Seven Hills NSW 2147 Australia	9347 - 193 Street Surrey V4N 4E7 British Columbia Canada
Telephone	1300 788 701	+(1) 800-201-8822
Fax	1300 722 004	+(1) 800-708-9888
Website	www.mektronics.com.au	www.mgchemicals.com
Email	sales@mektronics.com.au	Info@mgchemicals.com

Emergency telephone number

Association / Organisation	Verisk 3E (Access Code: 335388)
Emergency telephone numbers	+61 1 800 686 951
Other emergency telephone numbers	+61 280363166

SECTION 2 HAZARDS IDENTIFICATION

Classification of the substance or mixture

Poisons Schedule	Not Applicable
Classification [1]	Eye Irritation Category 2A, Skin Corrosion/Irritation Category 2, Skin Sensitizer Category 1, Chronic Aquatic Hazard Category 1
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)	
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SIGNAL WORD **WARNING**

Hazard statement(s)

H319	Causes serious eye irritation.
H315	Causes skin irritation.
H317	May cause an allergic skin reaction.
H410	Very toxic to aquatic life with long lasting effects.

Precautionary statement(s) Prevention

P280	Wear protective gloves/protective clothing/eye protection/face protection.
P261	Avoid breathing dust/fumes.
P273	Avoid release to the environment.
P272	Contaminated work clothing should not be allowed out of the workplace.

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Precautionary statement(s) Response

P321	Specific treatment (see advice on this label).
P362	Take off contaminated clothing and wash before reuse.
P302+P352	IF ON SKIN: Wash with plenty of water and soap.
P305+P351+P338	IF IN EYES: Rinse cautiously with water for several minutes. Remove contact lenses, if present and easy to do. Continue rinsing.
P333+P313	If skin irritation or rash occurs: Get medical advice/attention.
P337+P313	If eye irritation persists: Get medical advice/attention.
P391	Collect spillage.

Precautionary statement(s) Storage

Not Applicable

Precautionary statement(s) Disposal

P501	Dispose of contents/container to authorised hazardous or special waste collection point in accordance with any local regulation.
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SECTION 3 COMPOSITION / INFORMATION ON INGREDIENTS

Substances

See section below for composition of Mixtures

Mixtures

CAS No	%[weight]	Name
1344-28-1.	34	<u>aluminium oxide</u>
1314-13-2	34	<u>zinc oxide</u>
28064-14-4	26	<u>bisphenol F diglycidyl ether copolymer</u>
17557-23-2	3	<u>neopentyl glycol diglycidyl ether</u>
1333-86-4	0.8	<u>carbon black</u>

SECTION 4 FIRST AID MEASURES

Description of first aid measures

Eye Contact	<p>If this product comes in contact with eyes:</p> <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	<p>If skin or hair contact occurs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Immediately flush body and clothes with large amounts of water, using safety shower if available. ▶ Quickly remove all contaminated clothing, including footwear. ▶ Wash skin and hair with running water. Continue flushing with water until advised to stop by the Poisons Information Centre. ▶ Transport to hospital, or doctor.
Inhalation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ If fumes or combustion products are inhaled remove from contaminated area. ▶ Lay patient down. Keep warm and rested. ▶ Prostheses such as false teeth, which may block airway, should be removed, where possible, prior to initiating first aid procedures. ▶ Apply artificial respiration if not breathing, preferably with a demand valve resuscitator, bag-valve mask device, or pocket mask as trained. Perform CPR if necessary. ▶ Transport to hospital, or doctor, without delay.
Ingestion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Give a slurry of activated charcoal in water to drink. NEVER GIVE AN UNCONSCIOUS PATIENT WATER TO DRINK. ▶ At least 3 tablespoons in a glass of water should be given. ▶ Although induction of vomiting may be recommended (IN CONSCIOUS PERSONS ONLY), such a first aid measure is dissuaded due to the risk of aspiration of stomach contents. (i) It is better to take the patient to a doctor who can decide on the necessity and method of emptying the stomach. (ii) Special circumstances may however exist; these include non-availability of charcoal and the ready availability of the doctor. <p>NOTE: If vomiting is induced, lean patient forward or place on left side (head-down position, if possible) to maintain open airway and prevent aspiration.</p> <p>NOTE: Wear protective gloves when inducing vomiting.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ REFER FOR MEDICAL ATTENTION WITHOUT DELAY. ▶ In the mean time, qualified first-aid personnel should treat the patient following observation and employing supportive measures as indicated by the patient's condition. ▶ If the services of a medical officer or medical doctor are readily available, the patient should be placed in his/her care and a copy of the SDS should be provided. Further action will be the responsibility of the medical specialist. ▶ If medical attention is not available on the worksite or surroundings send the patient to a hospital together with a copy of the SDS. (ICSC20305/20307)

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.

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[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

Extinguishing media

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

Special hazards arising from the substrate or mixture

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

Fire Fighting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Alert Fire Brigade and tell them location and nature of hazard. ▶ Wear breathing apparatus plus protective gloves. ▶ Prevent, by any means available, spillage from entering drains or water courses. ▶ Use water delivered as a fine spray to control fire and cool adjacent area. ▶ DO NOT approach containers suspected to be hot. ▶ Cool fire exposed containers with water spray from a protected location. ▶ If safe to do so, remove containers from path of fire. ▶ Equipment should be thoroughly decontaminated after use.
Fire/Explosion Hazard	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Combustible solid which burns but propagates flame with difficulty; it is estimated that most organic dusts are combustible (circa 70%) - according to the circumstances under which the combustion process occurs, such materials may cause fires and / or dust explosions. ▶ Organic powders when finely divided over a range of concentrations regardless of particulate size or shape and suspended in air or some other oxidizing medium may form explosive dust-air mixtures and result in a fire or dust explosion (including secondary explosions). ▶ Avoid generating dust, particularly clouds of dust in a confined or unventilated space as dusts may form an explosive mixture with air, and any source of ignition, i.e. flame or spark, will cause fire or explosion. Dust clouds generated by the fine grinding of the solid are a particular hazard; accumulations of fine dust (420 micron or less) may burn rapidly and fiercely if ignited - particles exceeding this limit will generally not form flammable dust clouds; once initiated, however, larger particles up to 1400 microns diameter will contribute to the propagation of an explosion. ▶ In the same way as gases and vapours, dusts in the form of a cloud are only ignitable over a range of concentrations; in principle, the concepts of lower explosive limit (LEL) and upper explosive limit (UEL) are applicable to dust clouds but only the LEL is of practical use; - this is because of the inherent difficulty of achieving homogeneous dust clouds at high temperatures (for dusts the LEL is often called the 'Minimum Explosible Concentration', MEC). ▶ When processed with flammable liquids/vapors/mists, ignitable (hybrid) mixtures may be formed with combustible dusts. Ignitable mixtures will increase the rate of explosion pressure rise and the Minimum Ignition Energy (the minimum amount of energy required to ignite dust clouds - MIE) will be lower than the pure dust in air mixture. The Lower Explosive Limit (LEL) of the vapour/dust mixture will be lower than the individual LELs for the vapors/mists or dusts. ▶ A dust explosion may release of large quantities of gaseous products; this in turn creates a subsequent pressure rise of explosive force capable of damaging plant and buildings and injuring people. ▶ Usually the initial or primary explosion takes place in a confined space such as plant or machinery, and can be of sufficient force to damage or rupture the plant. If the shock wave from the primary explosion enters the surrounding area, it will disturb any settled dust layers, forming a second dust cloud, and often initiate a much larger secondary explosion. All large scale explosions have resulted from chain reactions of this type. ▶ Dry dust can be charged electrostatically by turbulence, pneumatic transport, pouring, in exhaust ducts and during transport. ▶ Build-up of electrostatic charge 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. ▶ All movable parts coming in contact with this material should have a speed of less than 1-meter/sec. ▶ A sudden release of statically charged materials from storage or process equipment, particularly at elevated temperatures and/ or pressure, may result in ignition especially in the absence of an apparent ignition source. ▶ One important effect of the particulate nature of powders is that the surface area and surface structure (and often moisture content) can vary widely from sample to sample, depending of how the powder was manufactured and handled; this means that it is virtually impossible to use flammability data published in the literature for dusts (in contrast to that published for gases and vapours). ▶ Autoignition temperatures are often quoted for dust clouds (minimum ignition temperature (MIT)) and dust layers (layer ignition temperature (LIT)); LIT generally falls as the thickness of the layer increases. <p>Combustion products include: carbon monoxide (CO) carbon dioxide (CO2) aldehydes metal oxides</p>

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	other pyrolysis products typical of burning organic material. 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.
HAZCHEM	2Z

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	<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. Moderate hazard.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ CAUTION: Advise personnel in area. ▶ Alert Emergency Services and tell them location and nature of hazard. ▶ Control personal contact by wearing protective clothing. ▶ Prevent, by any means available, spillage from entering drains or water courses. ▶ Recover product wherever possible. ▶ IF DRY: Use dry clean up procedures and avoid generating dust. Collect residues and place in sealed plastic bags or other containers for disposal. IF WET: Vacuum/shovel up and place in labelled containers for disposal. ▶ ALWAYS: Wash area down with large amounts of water and prevent runoff into drains. ▶ If contamination of drains or waterways occurs, advise Emergency Services.

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

SECTION 7 HANDLING AND STORAGE**Precautions for safe handling**

Safe handling	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Avoid all personal contact, including inhalation. ▶ Wear protective clothing when risk of exposure occurs. ▶ Use in a well-ventilated area. ▶ Prevent concentration in hollows and sumps. ▶ DO NOT enter confined spaces until atmosphere has been checked. ▶ DO NOT allow material to contact humans, exposed food or food utensils. ▶ Avoid contact with incompatible materials. ▶ When handling, DO NOT eat, drink or smoke. ▶ Keep containers securely sealed when not in use. ▶ Avoid physical damage to containers. ▶ Always wash hands with soap and water after handling. ▶ Work clothes should be laundered separately. Launder contaminated clothing before re-use. ▶ Use good occupational work practice. ▶ Observe manufacturer's storage and handling recommendations contained within this SDS. ▶ Atmosphere should be regularly checked against established exposure standards to ensure safe working conditions are maintained. ▶ Organic powders when finely divided over a range of concentrations regardless of particulate size or shape and suspended in air or some other oxidizing medium may form explosive dust-air mixtures and result in a fire or dust explosion (including secondary explosions) ▶ Minimise airborne dust and eliminate all ignition sources. Keep away from heat, hot surfaces, sparks, and flame. ▶ Establish good housekeeping practices. ▶ Remove dust accumulations on a regular basis by vacuuming or gentle sweeping to avoid creating dust clouds. ▶ Use continuous suction at points of dust generation to capture and minimise the accumulation of dusts. Particular attention should be given to overhead and hidden horizontal surfaces to minimise the probability of a 'secondary' explosion. According to NFPA Standard 654, dust layers 1/32 in. (0.8 mm) thick can be sufficient to warrant immediate cleaning of the area. ▶ Do not use air hoses for cleaning. ▶ Minimise dry sweeping to avoid generation of dust clouds. Vacuum dust-accumulating surfaces and remove to a chemical disposal area. Vacuums with explosion-proof motors should be used. ▶ Control sources of static electricity. Dusts or their packages may accumulate static charges, and static discharge can be a source of ignition. ▶ Solids handling systems must be designed in accordance with applicable standards (e.g. NFPA including 654 and 77) and other national guidance. ▶ Do not empty directly into flammable solvents or in the presence of flammable vapors. ▶ The operator, the packaging container and all equipment must be grounded with electrical bonding and grounding systems. Plastic bags and plastics cannot be grounded, and antistatic bags do not completely protect against development of static charges. <p>Empty containers may contain residual dust which has the potential to accumulate following settling. Such dusts may explode in the presence of an appropriate ignition source.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Do NOT cut, drill, grind or weld such containers. ▶ In addition ensure such activity is not performed near full, partially empty or empty containers without appropriate workplace safety
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	authorisation or permit.
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.

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 reaction with amines, mercaptans, strong acids and oxidising agents <p>Epoxides:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ are highly reactive with acids, bases, and oxidising and reducing agents. ▶ react, possibly violently, with anhydrous metal chlorides, ammonia, amines and group 1 metals. ▶ may polymerise in the presence of peroxides or heat - polymerisation may be violent ▶ may react, possibly violently, with water in the presence of acids and other catalysts. ▶ Phenols are incompatible with strong reducing substances such as hydrides, nitrides, alkali metals, and sulfides. ▶ Avoid use of aluminium, copper and brass alloys in storage and process equipment. ▶ Heat is generated by the acid-base reaction between phenols and bases. ▶ Phenols are sulfonated very readily (for example, by concentrated sulfuric acid at room temperature), these reactions generate heat. ▶ Phenols are nitrated very rapidly, even by dilute nitric acid. ▶ Nitrated phenols often explode when heated. Many of them form metal salts that tend toward detonation by rather mild shock. ▶ Avoid strong acids, bases. <p>Glycidyl ethers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ may form unstable peroxides on storage in air, light, sunlight, UV light or other ionising radiation, trace metals - inhibitor should be maintained at adequate levels ▶ may polymerise in contact with heat, organic and inorganic free radical producing initiators ▶ may polymerise with evolution of heat in contact with oxidisers, strong acids, bases and amines ▶ react violently with strong oxidisers, permanganates, peroxides, acyl halides, alkalis, ammonium persulfate, bromine dioxide ▶ attack some forms of plastics, coatings, and rubber

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	aluminium oxide	Aluminium oxide	10 mg/m ³	Not Available	Not Available	(a) This value is for inhalable dust containing no asbestos and < 1% crystalline silica.
Australia Exposure Standards	zinc oxide	Zinc oxide (dust)	10 mg/m ³	Not Available	Not Available	(a) This value is for inhalable dust containing no asbestos and < 1% crystalline silica.
Australia Exposure Standards	zinc oxide	Zinc oxide (fume)	5 mg/m ³	10 mg/m ³	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	carbon black	Carbon black	3 mg/m ³	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available

EMERGENCY LIMITS

Ingredient	Material name	TEEL-1	TEEL-2	TEEL-3
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aluminium oxide	Aluminum oxide; (Alumina)	15 mg/m3	170 mg/m3	990 mg/m3
zinc oxide	Zinc oxide	10 mg/m3	15 mg/m3	2,500 mg/m3
bisphenol F diglycidyl ether copolymer	Phenol, polymer with formaldehyde, oxiranylmethyl ether	30 mg/m3	330 mg/m3	2,000 mg/m3
carbon black	Carbon black	9 mg/m3	99 mg/m3	590 mg/m3

Ingredient	Original IDLH	Revised IDLH
aluminium oxide	Not Available	Not Available
zinc oxide	500 mg/m3	Not Available
bisphenol F diglycidyl ether copolymer	Not Available	Not Available
neopentyl glycol diglycidyl ether	Not Available	Not Available
carbon black	1,750 mg/m3	Not Available

OCCUPATIONAL EXPOSURE BANDING

Ingredient	Occupational Exposure Band Rating	Occupational Exposure Band Limit
bisphenol F diglycidyl ether copolymer	E	≤ 0.1 ppm
neopentyl glycol diglycidyl ether	E	≤ 0.1 ppm

Notes:

Occupational exposure banding is a process of assigning chemicals into specific categories or bands based on a chemical's potency and the adverse health outcomes associated with exposure. The output of this process is an occupational exposure band (OEB), which corresponds to a range of exposure concentrations that are expected to protect worker health.

MATERIAL DATA

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.

For epichlorohydrin

Odour Threshold Value: 0.08 ppm

NOTE: Detector tubes for epichlorohydrin, measuring in excess of 5 ppm, are commercially available.

Exposure at or below the recommended TLV-TWA is thought to minimise the potential for adverse respiratory, liver, kidney effects. Epichlorohydrin has been implicated as a human skin sensitiser, hence individuals who are hypersusceptible or otherwise unusually responsive to certain chemicals may NOT be adequately protected from adverse health effects.

Odour Safety Factor (OSF)

OSF=0.54 (EPICHLOROHYDRIN)

Exposure controls

Appropriate engineering controls	<p>Engineering controls are used to remove a hazard or place a barrier between the worker and the hazard. Well-designed engineering controls can be highly effective in protecting workers and will typically be independent of worker interactions to provide this high level of protection.</p> <p>The basic types of engineering controls are:</p> <p>Process controls which involve changing the way a job activity or process is done to reduce the risk.</p> <p>Enclosure and/or isolation of emission source which keeps a selected hazard 'physically' away from the worker and ventilation that strategically 'adds' and 'removes' air in the work environment. Ventilation can remove or dilute an air contaminant if designed properly. The design of a ventilation system must match the particular process and chemical or contaminant in use.</p> <p>Employers may need to use multiple types of controls to prevent employee overexposure.</p> <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"> <thead> <tr> <th>Type of Contaminant:</th> <th>Air Speed:</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>direct spray, spray painting in shallow booths, drum filling, conveyer loading, crusher dusts, gas discharge (active generation into zone of rapid air motion)</td> <td>1-2.5 m/s (200-500 f/min.)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>grinding, abrasive blasting, tumbling, high speed wheel generated dusts (released at high initial velocity into zone of very high rapid air motion).</td> <td>2.5-10 m/s (500-2000 f/min.)</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	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.)
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	<p>Within each range the appropriate value depends on:</p> <table border="1" data-bbox="391 230 1086 398"> <thead> <tr> <th data-bbox="391 230 831 264">Lower end of the range</th> <th data-bbox="831 230 1086 264">Upper end of the range</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td data-bbox="391 264 831 297">1: Room air currents minimal or favourable to capture</td> <td data-bbox="831 264 1086 297">1: Disturbing room air currents</td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="391 297 831 331">2: Contaminants of low toxicity or of nuisance value only</td> <td data-bbox="831 297 1086 331">2: Contaminants of high toxicity</td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="391 331 831 365">3: Intermittent, low production.</td> <td data-bbox="831 331 1086 365">3: High production, heavy use</td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="391 365 831 398">4: Large hood or large air mass in motion</td> <td data-bbox="831 365 1086 398">4: Small hood-local control only</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p>Simple theory shows that air velocity falls rapidly with distance away from the opening of a simple extraction pipe. Velocity generally decreases with the square of distance from the extraction point (in simple cases). Therefore the air speed at the extraction point should be adjusted, accordingly, after reference to distance from the contaminating source. The air velocity at the extraction fan, for example, should be a minimum of 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>	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>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>NOTE:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ The material may produce skin sensitisation in predisposed individuals. Care must be taken, when removing gloves and other protective equipment, to avoid all possible skin contact. ▶ Contaminated leather items, such as shoes, belts and watch-bands should be removed and destroyed. <p>The selection of suitable gloves does not only depend on the material, but also on further marks of quality which vary from manufacturer to manufacturer. Where the chemical is a preparation of several substances, the resistance of the glove material can not be calculated in advance and has therefore to be checked prior to the application.</p> <p>The exact break through time for substances has to be obtained from the manufacturer of the protective gloves and has to be observed when making a final choice.</p> <p>Personal hygiene is a key element of effective hand care. Gloves must only be worn on clean hands. After using gloves, hands should be washed and dried thoroughly. Application of a non-perfumed moisturiser is recommended.</p> <p>Suitability and durability of glove type is dependent on usage. Important factors in the selection of gloves include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • frequency and duration of contact, • chemical resistance of glove material, • glove thickness and • dexterity <p>Select gloves tested to a relevant standard (e.g. Europe EN 374, US F739, AS/NZS 2161.1 or national equivalent).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When prolonged or frequently repeated contact may occur, a glove with a protection class of 5 or higher (breakthrough time greater than 240 minutes according to EN 374, AS/NZS 2161.10.1 or national equivalent) is recommended. • When only brief contact is expected, a glove with a protection class of 3 or higher (breakthrough time greater than 60 minutes according to EN 374, AS/NZS 2161.10.1 or national equivalent) is recommended. • Some glove polymer types are less affected by movement and this should be taken into account when considering gloves for long-term use. • Contaminated gloves should be replaced. <p>As defined in ASTM F-739-96 in any application, gloves are rated as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Excellent when breakthrough time > 480 min • Good when breakthrough time > 20 min • Fair when breakthrough time < 20 min • Poor when glove material degrades <p>For general applications, gloves with a thickness typically greater than 0.35 mm, are recommended.</p> <p>It should be emphasised that glove thickness is not necessarily a good predictor of glove resistance to a specific chemical, as the permeation efficiency of the glove will be dependent on the exact composition of the glove material. Therefore, glove selection should also be based on consideration of the task requirements and knowledge of breakthrough times.</p> <p>Glove thickness may also vary depending on the glove manufacturer, the glove type and the glove model. Therefore, the manufacturers' technical data should always be taken into account to ensure selection of the most appropriate glove for the task.</p> <p>Note: Depending on the activity being conducted, gloves of varying thickness may be required for specific tasks. For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Thinner gloves (down to 0.1 mm or less) may be required where a high degree of manual dexterity is needed. However, these gloves are only likely to give short duration protection and would normally be just for single use applications, then disposed of. • Thicker gloves (up to 3 mm or more) may be required where there is a mechanical (as well as a chemical) risk i.e. where there is abrasion or puncture potential <p>Gloves must only be worn on clean hands. After using gloves, hands should be washed and dried thoroughly. Application of a non-perfumed moisturiser is recommended.</p> <p>When handling liquid-grade epoxy resins wear chemically protective gloves, boots and aprons.</p> <p>The performance, based on breakthrough times, of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ethyl Vinyl Alcohol (EVAL laminate) is generally excellent • Butyl Rubber ranges from excellent to good • Nitrile Butyl Rubber (NBR) from excellent to fair. • Neoprene from excellent to fair • Polyvinyl (PVC) from excellent to poor <p>As defined in ASTM F-739-96</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Excellent breakthrough time > 480 min • Good breakthrough time > 20 min • Fair breakthrough time < 20 min 										

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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Poor glove material degradation <p>Gloves should be tested against each resin system prior to making a selection of the most suitable type. Systems include both the resin and any hardener, individually and collectively)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • DO NOT use cotton or leather (which absorb and concentrate the resin), natural rubber (latex), medical or polyethylene gloves (which absorb the resin). • DO NOT use barrier creams containing emulsified fats and oils as these may absorb the resin; silicone-based barrier creams should be reviewed prior to use. <p>Replacement time should be considered when selecting the most appropriate glove. It may be more effective to select a glove with lower chemical resistance but which is replaced frequently than to select a more resistant glove which is reused many times</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. ▶ fluorocarbon. ▶ polyvinyl chloride. <p>Gloves should be examined for wear and/ or degradation constantly.</p>
Body protection	See Other protection below
Other protection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Overalls. ▶ P.V.C. apron. ▶ Barrier cream. ▶ Skin cleansing cream. ▶ Eye wash unit.

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.

SECTION 9 PHYSICAL AND CHEMICAL PROPERTIES**Information on basic physical and chemical properties**

Appearance	Dark Grey		
Physical state	Solid	Relative density (Water = 1)	2.4
Odour	Slight	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)	>207	Molecular weight (g/mol)	Not Available
Flash point (°C)	149	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	Immiscible	pH as a solution (1%)	Not Available
Vapour density (Air = 1)	Not Available	VOC g/L	Not Available

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SECTION 10 STABILITY AND REACTIVITY

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

SECTION 11 TOXICOLOGICAL INFORMATION

Information on toxicological effects

Inhaled	<p>Strong evidence exists that exposure to the material may produce very serious irreversible damage (other than carcinogenesis, mutagenesis and teratogenesis) following a single exposure by inhalation.</p> <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> <p>Effects on lungs are significantly enhanced in the presence of respirable particles. Overexposure to respirable dust may produce wheezing, coughing and breathing difficulties leading to or symptomatic of impaired respiratory function.</p>
Ingestion	<p>Strong evidence exists that exposure to the material may produce very serious irreversible damage (other than carcinogenesis, mutagenesis and teratogenesis) following a single exposure by swallowing.</p> <p>Reactive diluents exhibit a range of ingestion hazards. Small amounts swallowed incidental to normal handling operations are not likely to cause injury. However, swallowing larger amounts may cause injury.</p> <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.</p> <p>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 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 prurinant 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 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 in vivo 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</p>

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	<p>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> <p>Accidental ingestion of the material may be damaging to the health of the individual.</p>
<p>Skin Contact</p>	<p>Strong evidence exists that exposure to the material may produce very serious irreversible damage (other than carcinogenesis, mutagenesis and teratogenesis) following a single exposure by skin contact.</p> <p>The material may accentuate any pre-existing dermatitis condition</p> <p>Skin contact is not thought to have harmful health effects (as classified under EC Directives); the material may still produce health damage following entry through wounds, lesions or abrasions.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>Examine the skin prior to the use of the material and ensure that any external damage is suitably protected.</p> <p>The material may produce mild skin irritation; limited evidence or practical experience suggests, that the material either:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ produces mild inflammation of the skin in a substantial number of individuals following direct contact, and/or ▶ produces significant, but mild, 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. <p>Skin irritation may also be present after prolonged or repeated exposure; this may result in a form of contact dermatitis (non allergic). The dermatitis is often characterised by skin redness (erythema) and swelling (oedema) which may progress to blistering (vesiculation), scaling and thickening of the epidermis. At the microscopic level there may be intercellular oedema of the spongy layer of the skin (spongiosis) and intracellular oedema of the epidermis.</p> <p>Repeated or excessive handling, coupled with poor personal hygiene, may result in acne-like eruptions known as 'zinc oxide pox'.</p>
<p>Eye</p>	<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>
<p>Chronic</p>	<p>Practical experience shows that skin contact with the material is capable either of inducing a sensitisation reaction in a substantial number of individuals, and/or of producing a positive response in experimental animals.</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.</p> <p>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 in-vitro, 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 osseus 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 in vitro and in vivo via indirect mechanisms. The database on carcinogenicity of aluminium compounds is limited. No indication of any carcinogenic potential was obtained in mice given aluminium potassium sulphate at high levels in the diet.</p> <p>Aluminium has shown neurotoxicity in patients undergoing dialysis and thereby chronically exposed parenterally to high concentrations of aluminium. It has been suggested that aluminium is implicated in the aetiology of Alzheimer's disease and associated with other neurodegenerative diseases in humans. However, these hypotheses remain controversial. Several compounds containing aluminium have the potential to produce neurotoxicity (mice, rats) and to affect the male reproductive system (dogs). In addition, after maternal exposure they have shown embryotoxicity (mice) and have affected the developing nervous system in the offspring (mice, rats). The available studies have a number of limitations and do not allow any dose-response relationships to be established. The combined evidence from several studies in mice, rats and dogs that used dietary administration of aluminium compounds produce lowest-observed-adverse-effect levels (LOAELs) for effects on</p>

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neurotoxicity, testes, embryotoxicity, and the developing nervous system of 52, 75, 100, and 50 mg aluminium/kg bw/day, respectively. Similarly, the lowest no-observed-adverse-effect levels (NOAELs) for effects on these endpoints were reported at 30, 27, 100, and for effects on the developing nervous system, between 10 and 42 mg aluminium/kg bw per day, respectively.

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

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

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

For some reactive diluents, prolonged or repeated skin contact may result in absorption of potentially harmful amounts or allergic skin reactions. Exposure to some reactive diluents (notably neopentylglycol diglycidyl ether, CAS RN:17557-23-2) has caused cancer in some animal testing. All glycidyl ethers show genotoxic potential due their alkylating properties. Those glycidyl ethers that have been investigated in long term studies exhibit more or less marked carcinogenic potential. Alkylating agents may damage the stem cell which acts as the precursor to components of the blood. Loss of the stem cell may result in pancytopenia (a reduction in the number of red and white blood cells and platelets) with a latency period corresponding to the lifetime of the individual blood cells. Granulocytopenia (a reduction in granular leukocytes) develops within days and thrombocytopenia (a disorder involving platelets), within 1-2 weeks, whilst loss of erythrocytes (red blood cells) need months to become clinically manifest. Aplastic anaemia develops due to complete destruction of the stem cells.

Reported adverse effects in laboratory animals include sensitization, and skin and eye irritation, as well as mutagenic and tumorigenic activity..

Testicular abnormalities (including testicular atrophy with decreased spermatogenic activity) following exposure to glycidyl ethers have been reported. Haemopoietic abnormalities following exposure to glycidyl ethers, including alteration of the leukocyte count, atrophy of lymphoid tissue, and bone marrow cytotoxicity have also been reported. These abnormalities were usually observed along with pneumonia and/or toxemia, and therefore may be secondary effects. However, especially in light of the generalized reduction in leukocytes and the atrophy of lymphoid tissues, the observed haemopoietic abnormalities may have been predisposing factors to pneumonia. While none of the individual research reports are conclusive with respect to the ability of glycidyl ethers to produce permanent changes to the testes or haemopoietic system in laboratory animals, the pattern of displayed effects is reason for concern

Glycidyl ethers have been shown to cause allergic contact dermatitis in humans. Glycidyl ethers generally cause skin sensitization in experimental animals. Necrosis of the mucous membranes of the nasal cavities was induced in mice exposed to allyl glycidyl ether.

A study of workers with mixed exposures was inconclusive with regard to the effects of specific glycidyl ethers. Phenyl glycidyl ether, but not n-butyl glycidyl ether, induced morphological transformation in mammalian cells in vitro. n-Butyl glycidyl ether induced micronuclei in mice in vivo following intraperitoneal but not oral administration. Phenyl glycidyl ether did not induce micronuclei or chromosomal aberrations in vivo or chromosomal aberrations in animal cells in vitro. Alkyl C12 or C14 glycidyl ether did not induce DNA damage in cultured human cells or mutation in cultured animal cells. Allyl glycidyl ether induced mutation in *Drosophila*. The glycidyl ethers were generally mutagenic to bacteria.

Following an oral intake of extremely high doses of zinc (where 300 mg Zn/d – 20 times the US Recommended Dietary Allowance (RDA) – is a 'low intake' overdose), nausea, vomiting, pain, cramps and diarrhea may occur. There is evidence of induced copper deficiency, alterations of blood lipoprotein levels, increased levels of LDL, and decreased levels of HDL at long-term intakes of 100 mg Zn/d. The USDA RDA is 15 mg Zn/d.

There is also a condition called the 'zinc shakes' or 'zinc chills' or metal fume fever that can be induced by the inhalation of freshly formed zinc oxide formed during the welding of galvanized materials.

Supplemental zinc can prevent iron absorption, leading to iron deficiency and possible peripheral neuropathy, with loss of sensation in extremities.

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.

On the basis, primarily, of animal experiments, concern has been expressed by at least one classification body that the material may produce carcinogenic or mutagenic effects; in respect of the available information, however, there presently exists inadequate data for making a satisfactory assessment.

Bisphenol F, bisphenol A, fluorine-containing bisphenol A (bisphenol AF), and other diphenylalkanes were found to be oestrogenic in a bioassay with MCF7 human breast cancer cells in culture Bisphenol F (4,4'-dihydroxydiphenylmethane) has been reported to exhibit oestrogen agonistic properties in the uterotrophic assay. Bisphenol F (BPF) is present in the environment and as a contaminant of food. Humans may, therefore, be exposed to BPF. BPF has been shown to have genotoxic and endocrine-disruptor properties in a human hepatoma cell line (HepG2), which is a model system for studies of xenobiotic toxicity. BPF was largely metabolised into the corresponding sulfate by the HepG2 cell line. BPF was metabolised into both sulfate and glucuronide by human hepatocytes, but with differences between individuals. The metabolism of BPF in both HepG2 cells and human hepatocytes suggests the existence of a detoxification pathway

Bisphenol F was orally administered at doses 0, 20, 100 and 500 mg/kg per day for at least 28 days, but no clear endocrine-mediated changes were detected, and it was concluded to have no endocrine-mediated effects in young adult rats. On the other hand, the main effect of bisphenol F was concluded to be liver toxicity based on clinical biochemical parameters and liver weight, but without histopathological changes. The

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no-observed-effect level for bisphenol F is concluded to be under 20 mg/kg per day since decreased body weight accompanied by decreased serum total cholesterol, glucose, and albumin values were observed in the female rats given 20 mg/kg per day or higher doses of bisphenol F. Bisphenol A exhibits hormone-like properties that raise concern about its suitability in consumer products and food containers. Bisphenol A is thought to be an endocrine disruptor which can mimic oestrogen and may lead to negative health effects. More specifically, bisphenol A closely mimics the structure and function of the hormone oestradiol with the ability to bind to and activate the same oestrogen receptor as the natural hormone. Early developmental stages appear to be the period of greatest sensitivity to its effects and some studies have linked prenatal exposure to later physical and neurological difficulties. Regulatory bodies have determined safety levels for humans, but those safety levels are being questioned or are under review.

A 2009 study on Chinese workers in bisphenol A factories found that workers were four times more likely to report erectile dysfunction, reduced sexual desire and overall dissatisfaction with their sex life than workers with no heightened bisphenol A exposure. Bisphenol A workers were also seven times more likely to have ejaculation difficulties. They were also more likely to report reduced sexual function within one year of beginning employment at the factory, and the higher the exposure, the more likely they were to have sexual difficulties.

Bisphenol A in weak concentrations is sufficient to produce a negative reaction on the human testicle. The researchers found that a concentration equal to 2 ug/ litre of bisphenol A in the culture medium, a concentration equal to the average concentration generally found in the blood, urine and amniotic fluid of the population, was sufficient to produce the effects. The researchers believe that exposure of pregnant women to bisphenol A may be one of the causes of congenital masculinisation defects of the hypospadias and cryptorchidism types the frequency of which has doubled overall since the 70's. They also suggested that 'it is also possible that bisphenol A contributes to a reduction in the production of sperm and the increase in the incidence of testicular cancer in adults that have been observed in recent decades'

One review has concluded that obesity may be increased as a function of bisphenol A exposure, which '...merits concern among scientists and public health officials'

One study demonstrated that adverse neurological effects occur in non-human primates regularly exposed to bisphenol A at levels equal to the United States Environmental Protection Agency's (EPA) maximum safe dose of 50 ug/kg/day This research found a connection between bisphenol A and interference with brain cell connections vital to memory, learning, and mood.

A further review concluded that bisphenol-A has been shown to bind to thyroid hormone receptor and perhaps have selective effects on its functions. Carcinogenicity studies have shown increases in leukaemia and testicular interstitial cell tumours in male rats. However, 'these studies have not been considered as convincing evidence of a potential cancer risk because of the doubtful statistical significance of the small differences in incidences from controls'. Another in vitro study has concluded that bisphenol A is able to induce neoplastic transformation in human breast epithelial cells.[whilst a further study concluded that maternal oral exposure to low concentrations of bisphenol A, during lactation, increases mammary carcinogenesis in a rodent model. In vitro studies have suggested that bisphenol A can promote the growth of neuroblastoma cells and potentially promotes invasion and metastasis of neuroblastoma cells. Newborn rats exposed to a low-dose of bisphenol A (10 ug/kg) showed increased prostate cancer susceptibility when adults. At least one study has suggested that bisphenol A suppresses DNA methylation which is involved in epigenetic changes.

Bisphenol A is the isopropyl adduct of 4,4'-dihydroxydiphenyl oxide (DHDPO). A series of DHDPO analogues have been investigated as potential oestrogen receptor/anti-tumour drug carriers in the development of a class of therapeutic drugs called 'cytostatic hormones'. Oestrogenic activity is induced with 1 to 100 mg/kg body weight in animal models. Bisphenol A sealants are frequently used in dentistry for treatment of dental pits and fissures. Samples of saliva collected from dental patients during a 1-hour period following application contain the monomer. A bisphenol-A sealant has been shown to be oestrogenic in vitro; such sealants may represent an additional source of xenoestrogens in humans and may be the cause of additional concerns in children.

Concerns have been raised about the possible developmental effects on the foetus/embryo or neonate resulting from the leaching of bisphenol A from epoxy linings in metal cans which come in contact with food-stuffs.

Many drugs, including naproxen, salicylic acid, carbamazepine and mefenamic acid can, in vitro, significantly inhibit bisphenol A glucuronidation (detoxification).

8329TCS-A Thermally Conductive Epoxy Adhesive	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	Not Available	Not Available
aluminium oxide	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]
zinc oxide	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg ^[1]	Eye (rabbit) : 500 mg/24 h - mild
	Inhalation (rat) LC50: >1.79 mg/l4 h ^[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]
	Oral (rat) LD50: >5000 mg/kg ^[2]	Skin (rabbit) : 500 mg/24 h- mild
	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]	
bisphenol F diglycidyl ether copolymer	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	dermal (rat) LD50: 4000 mg/kg ^[2]	Eyes * (-) (-) Slight irritant
	Oral (rat) LD50: 4000 mg/kg ^[2]	Skin * (-) (-) Slight irritant
neopentyl glycol diglycidyl ether	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg ^[1]	Eye: adverse effect observed (irritating) ^[1]
	Oral (rat) LD50: 4500 mg/kg ^[2]	Skin (human): Sensitiser [Shell]
		Skin: adverse effect observed (irritating) ^[1]
carbon black	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg ^[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]
	Oral (rat) LD50: >15400 mg/kg ^[2]	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]

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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

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Conductive Epoxy Adhesive**

For aluminium compounds:

Aluminium present in food and drinking water is poorly absorbed through the gastrointestinal tract. The bioavailability of aluminium is dependent on the form in which it is ingested and the presence of dietary constituents with which the metal cation can complex. Ligands in food can have a marked effect on absorption of aluminium, as they can either enhance uptake by forming absorbable (usually water soluble) complexes (e.g., with carboxylic acids such as citric and lactic), or reduce it by forming insoluble compounds (e.g., with phosphate or dissolved silicate). Considering the available human and animal data it is likely that the oral absorption of aluminium can vary 10-fold based on chemical form alone. Although bioavailability appears to generally parallel water solubility, insufficient data are available to directly extrapolate from solubility in water to bioavailability.

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

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

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

Systemic toxicity after repeated exposure

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

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

The main toxic effects of aluminium that have been observed in experimental animals are neurotoxicity and nephrotoxicity. Neurotoxicity has also been described in patients dialysed with water containing high concentrations of aluminium, but epidemiological data on possible adverse effects in humans at lower exposures are inconsistent

Reproductive and developmental toxicity:

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

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

Genotoxicity

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

Carcinogenicity.

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

Neurodegenerative diseases.

Following the observation that high levels of aluminium in dialysis fluid could cause a form of dementia in dialysis patients, a number of studies were carried out to determine if aluminium could cause dementia or cognitive impairment as a consequence of environmental exposure over long periods. Aluminium was identified, along with other elements, in the amyloid plaques that are one of the diagnostic lesions in the brain for Alzheimer disease, a common form of senile and pre-senile dementia. Some of the epidemiology studies suggest the possibility of an association of Alzheimer disease with aluminium in water, but other studies do not confirm this association. All studies lack information on ingestion of aluminium from food and how concentrations of aluminium in food affect the association between aluminium in water and Alzheimer disease."

There are suggestions that persons with some genetic variants may absorb more aluminium than others, but there is a need for more analytical research to determine whether aluminium from various sources has a significant causal association with Alzheimer disease and other neurodegenerative diseases. Aluminium is a neurotoxicant in experimental animals. However, most of the animal studies performed have several limitations and therefore cannot be used for quantitative risk assessment.

Contact sensitivity:

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

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	<p>adults presenting with ascending myalgia and severe fatigue following exposure to aluminium hydroxide-containing vaccines. The corresponding histological findings include aluminium-containing macrophages infiltrating muscle tissue at the injection site. The hypothesis is that the long-lasting granuloma triggers the development of the systemic syndrome.</p> <p>Aluminium acts not only as an adjuvant, stimulating the immune system either to fend off infections or to tolerate antigens, it also acts as a sensitiser causing contact allergy and allergic contact dermatitis. In general, metal allergies are very common and aluminium is considered to be a weak allergen. A metal must be ionised to be able to act as a contact allergen, then it has to undergo haptenisation to be immunogenic and to initiate an immune response. Once inside the skin, the metal ions must bind to proteins to become immunologically reactive. The most important routes of exposure and sensitisation to aluminium are through aluminium-containing vaccines. One Swedish study showed a statistically significant association between contact allergy to aluminium and persistent itching nodules in children treated with allergen-specific immunotherapy (ASIT). Nodules were overrepresented in patients with contact allergy to aluminium.</p> <p>Other routes of sensitisation reported in the literature are the prolonged use of aluminium-containing antiperspirants, topical medication, and tattooing of the skin with aluminium-containing pigments. Most of the patients experienced eczematous reactions whereas tattooing caused granulomas. Even though aluminium is used extensively in industry, only a low number of cases of occupational skin sensitisation to aluminium have been reported. Systemic allergic contact dermatitis in the form of flare-up reactions after re-exposure to aluminium has been documented: pruritic nodules at present and previous injection sites, eczema at the site of vaccination as well as at typically atopic localisations after vaccination with aluminium-containing vaccines and/or patch testing with aluminium, and also after use of aluminium-containing toothpaste.</p>
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.
NEOPENTYL GLYCOL DIGLYCIDYL ETHER	* Anchor SDS]
CARBON BLACK	Inhalation (rat) TCLo: 50 mg/m ³ /6h/90D-I Nil reported WARNING: This substance has been classified by the IARC as Group 2B: Possibly Carcinogenic to Humans.
8329TCS-A Thermally Conductive Epoxy Adhesive & BISPHENOL F DIGLYCIDYL ETHER COPOLYMER & NEOPENTYL GLYCOL DIGLYCIDYL ETHER	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. Oxiranes (including glycidyl ethers and alkyl oxides, and epoxides) exhibit many common characteristics with respect to animal toxicology. One such oxirane is ethyloxirane; data presented here may be taken as representative.
8329TCS-A Thermally Conductive Epoxy Adhesive & BISPHENOL F DIGLYCIDYL ETHER COPOLYMER	The chemical structure of hydroxylated diphenylalkanes or bisphenols consists of two phenolic rings joined together through a bridging carbon. This class of endocrine disruptors that mimic oestrogens is widely used in industry, particularly in plastics. Bisphenol A (BPA) and some related compounds exhibit oestrogenic activity in human breast cancer cell line MCF-7, but there were remarkable differences in activity. Several derivatives of BPA exhibited significant thyroid hormonal activity towards rat pituitary cell line GH3, which releases growth hormone in a thyroid hormone-dependent manner. However, BPA and several other derivatives did not show such activity. Results suggest that the 4-hydroxyl group of the A-phenyl ring and the B-phenyl ring of BPA derivatives are required for these hormonal activities, and substituents at the 3,5-positions of the phenyl rings and the bridging alkyl moiety markedly influence the activities. Bisphenols promoted cell proliferation and increased the synthesis and secretion of cell type-specific proteins. When ranked by proliferative potency, the longer the alkyl substituent at the bridging carbon, the lower the concentration needed for maximal cell yield; the most active compound contained two propyl chains at the bridging carbon. Bisphenols with two hydroxyl groups in the para position and an angular configuration are suitable for appropriate hydrogen bonding to the acceptor site of the oestrogen receptor.
8329TCS-A Thermally Conductive Epoxy Adhesive & NEOPENTYL GLYCOL DIGLYCIDYL ETHER	for 1,2-butylene oxide (ethyloxirane): Ethyloxirane increased the incidence of tumours of the respiratory system in male and female rats exposed via inhalation. Significant increases in nasal papillary adenomas and combined alveolar/bronchiolar adenomas and carcinomas were observed in male rats exposed to 1200 mg/m ³ ethyloxirane via inhalation for 103 weeks. There was also a significant positive trend in the incidence of combined alveolar/bronchiolar adenomas and carcinomas. Nasal papillary adenomas were also observed in 2/50 high-dose female rats with none occurring in control or low-dose animals. In mice exposed chronically via inhalation, one male mouse developed a squamous cell papilloma in the nasal cavity (300 mg/m ³) but other tumours were not observed. Tumours were not observed in mice exposed chronically via dermal exposure. When trichloroethylene containing 0.8% ethyloxirane was administered orally to mice for up to 35 weeks, followed by 0.4% from weeks 40 to 69, squamous-cell carcinomas of the forestomach occurred in 3/49 males (p=0.029, age-adjusted) and 1/48 females at week 106. Trichloroethylene administered alone did not induce these tumours and they were not observed in control animals. Two structurally related substances, oxirane (ethylene oxide) and methyloxirane (propylene oxide), which are also direct-acting alkylating agents, have been classified as carcinogenic.
ALUMINIUM OXIDE & CARBON BLACK	No significant acute toxicological data 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

8329TCS-A Thermally Conductive Epoxy Adhesive	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	0.001-0.134mg/L	2
	EC50	48	Crustacea	0.7364mg/L	2

Continued...

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	EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.001-0.799mg/L	2
	NOEC	240	Crustacea	0.001-0.1002mg/L	2
zinc oxide	ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
	LC50	96	Fish	0.001-0.58mg/L	2
	EC50	48	Crustacea	0.001-0.014mg/L	2
	EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.037mg/L	2
	BCF	336	Fish	4376.673mg/L	4
	NOEC	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.00008138mg/L	2
bisphenol F diglycidyl ether copolymer	ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
neopentyl glycol diglycidyl ether	ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
	LC50	96	Fish	12.318mg/L	3
	EC50	96	Algae or other aquatic plants	ca.1-73.67mg/L	2
carbon black	ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE	SOURCE
	LC50	96	Fish	>100mg/L	2
	EC50	48	Crustacea	>100mg/L	2
	EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	>10-mg/L	2
	EC10	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	>10-mg/L	2
	NOEC	96	Fish	>=1-mg/L	2
Legend:	<i>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</i>				

Very toxic to aquatic organisms, may cause long-term adverse effects in the aquatic environment.

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

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

For bisphenol A and related bisphenols:

Environmental fate:

Biodegradability (28 d) 89% - Easily biodegradable

Bioconcentration factor (BCF) 7.8 mg/l

Bisphenol A, its derivatives and analogues, can be released from polymers, resins and certain substances by metabolic products

Substance does not meet the criteria for PBT or vPvB according to Regulation (EC) No 1907/2006, Annex XIII

As an environmental contaminant, bisphenol A interferes with nitrogen fixation at the roots of leguminous plants associated with the bacterial symbiont *Sinorhizobium meliloti*. Despite a half-life in the soil of only 1-10 days, its ubiquity makes it an important pollutant. According to Environment Canada, 'initial assessment shows that at low levels, bisphenol A can harm fish and organisms over time. Studies also indicate that it can currently be found in municipal wastewater.' However, a study conducted in the United States found that 91-98% of bisphenol A may be removed from water during treatment at municipal water treatment plants.

Ecotoxicity:

Fish LC50 (96 h): 4.6 mg/l (freshwater fish); 11 mg/l (saltwater fish); NOEC 0.016 mg/l (freshwater fish- 144 d); 0.064 mg/l (saltwater fish 164 d)

Fresh water invertebrates EC50 (48 h): 10.2 mg/l; NOEC 0.025 mg/l - 328 d)

Marine water invertebrate EC50 (96 h): 1.1 mg/l; NOEC 0.17 mg/l (28 d)

Freshwater algae (96 h): 2.73 mg/l

Marine water algae (96 h): 1.1 mg/l

Fresh water plant EC50 (7 d): 20 mg/l; NOEC 7.8 mg/l

In general, studies have shown that bisphenol A can affect growth, reproduction and development in aquatic organisms.

Among freshwater organisms, fish appear to be the most sensitive species. Evidence of endocrine-related effects in fish, aquatic invertebrates, amphibians and reptiles has been reported at environmentally relevant exposure levels lower than those required for acute toxicity. There is a widespread variation in reported values for endocrine-related effects, but many fall in the range of 1 ug/L to 1 mg/L

A 2009 review of the biological impacts of plasticisers on wildlife published by the Royal Society with a focus on annelids (both aquatic and terrestrial), molluscs, crustaceans, insects, fish and amphibians concluded that bisphenol A has been shown to affect reproduction in all studied animal groups, to impair development in crustaceans and amphibians and to induce genetic aberrations.

A large 2010 study of two rivers in Canada found that areas contaminated with hormone-like chemicals including bisphenol A showed females made up 85 per cent of the population of a certain fish, while females made up only 55 per cent in uncontaminated areas.

Although abundant data are available on the toxicity of bisphenol-A (2,2-bis (4-hydroxydiphenyl)propane;(BPA) A variety of BPs were examined for their acute toxicity against *Daphnia magna*, mutagenicity, and oestrogenic activity using the Daphtoxkit (Creasel Ltd.), the umu test system, and the yeast two-hybrid system, respectively, in comparison with BPA. BPA was moderately toxic to *D. magna* (48-h EC50 was 10 mg/l) according to the current U.S. EPA acute toxicity evaluation standard, and it was weakly oestrogenic with 5 orders of magnitude lower activity than that of the natural estrogen 17 beta-oestradiol in the yeast screen, while no mutagenicity was observed. All seven BPs tested here showed moderate to slight acute toxicity, no mutagenicity, and weak oestrogenic activity as well as BPA. Some of the BPs showed considerably higher oestrogenic activity than BPA, and others exhibited much lower activity. Bisphenol S (bis(4-hydroxydiphenyl)sulfone) and bis(4-hydroxyphenyl)sulfide showed oestrogenic activity.

Biodegradation is a major mechanism for eliminating various environmental pollutants. Studies on the biodegradation of bisphenols have mainly focused on bisphenol A. A number of BPA-degrading bacteria have been isolated from enrichments of sludge from wastewater treatment plants. The first step in the biodegradation of BPA is the hydroxylation of the carbon atom of a methyl group or the quaternary carbon in the BPA molecule. Judging from these features of the biodegradation mechanisms, it is possible that the same mechanism used for BPA is used to biodegrade all bisphenols that have at least one methyl or methylene group bonded at the carbon atom between the two phenol groups. However, bisphenol F ((bis(4-hydroxyphenyl)methane; BPF), which has no substituent at the bridging carbon, is unlikely to be metabolised by such a mechanism. Nevertheless BPF is readily degraded by river water microorganisms under aerobic conditions. From this evidence, it was clear that a specific mechanism for biodegradation of BPF does exist in the natural ecosystem, Algae can enhance the photodegradation of bisphenols. The photodegradation rate of BPF increased with increasing algae concentration. Humic acid and Fe³⁺ ions also enhanced the photodegradation of BPF. The effect of pH value on the BPF photodegradation was also important.

Significant environmental findings are limited. Oxiranes (including glycidyl ethers and alkyl oxides, and epoxides) exhibit common characteristics with respect to environmental fate and ecotoxicology. One such oxirane is ethyloxirane and data presented here may be taken as representative.

Continued...

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for 1,2-butylene oxide (ethyloxirane):

Environmental fate: Ethyloxirane is highly soluble in water and has a very low soil-adsorption coefficient, which suggests that if released to water, adsorption of ethyloxirane to sediment and suspended solids is not expected. Volatilisation of ethyloxirane from water surfaces would be expected based on the moderate estimated Henry's Law constant. If ethyloxirane is released to soil, it is expected to have low adsorption and thus very high mobility. Volatilisation from moist soil and dry soil surfaces is expected, based on its vapour pressure. It is expected that ethyloxirane exists solely as a vapour in ambient atmosphere, based on its very high vapour pressure. Ethyloxirane may also be removed from the atmosphere by wet deposition processes, considering its relatively high water solubility.

Persistence: The half-life in air is about 5.6 days from the reaction of ethyloxirane with photochemically produced hydroxyl radicals which indicates that this chemical meets the persistence criterion in air (half-life of = 2 days)*.

Ethyloxirane is hydrolysable, with a half-life of 6.5 days, and biodegradable up to 100% degradation and is not expected to persist in water. A further model-predicted biodegradation half-life of 15 days in water was obtained and used to predict the half-life of this chemical in soil and sediment by applying Boethling's extrapolation factors (t1/2water : t1/2 soil : t1/2sediment = 1 : 1 : 4) (Boethling 1995). According to these values, it can be concluded that ethyloxirane does not meet the persistence criteria in water and soil (half-lives = 182 days) and sediments (half-life = 365 days).

Experimental and modelled log Kow values of 0.68 and 0.86, respectively, indicate that the potential for bioaccumulation of ethyloxirane in organisms is likely to be low. Modelled bioaccumulation -factor (BAF) and bioconcentration -factor (BCF) values of 1 to 17 L/kg indicate that ethyloxirane does not meet the bioaccumulation criteria (BCF/BAF = 5000)*

Ecotoxicity:

Experimental ecotoxicological data for ethyloxirane (OECD 2001) indicate low to moderate toxicity to aquatic organisms. For fish and water flea, acute LC50/EC50 values vary within a narrow range of 70-215 mg/L; for algae, toxicity values exceed 500 mg/L, while for bacteria they are close to 5000 mg/L

* Persistence and Bioaccumulation Regulations (Canada 2000).

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 speciated forms 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, aluminum hydroxides can act as buffers and resist pH changes within the narrow pH range of 4-5.

Monomeric aluminium compounds, typified by aluminium fluoride, chloride, and sulfate, are considered reactive or labile compounds, whereas polymeric aluminium species react much more slowly in the environment. Aluminium has a stronger attraction for fluoride in an acidic environment compared to other inorganic ligand.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Bioconcentration of aluminum has also been reported for aquatic insects.

Ecotoxicity:**Freshwater species pH >6.5**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Alga: 1 sp NOEC growth 2.0 mg/L

Among freshwater aquatic plants, single-celled plants are generally the most sensitive to aluminium. Fish are generally more sensitive to aluminium than aquatic invertebrates.

Aluminium is a gill toxicant to fish, causing both ionoregulatory and respiratory effects.

The bioavailability and toxicity of aluminium is generally greatest in acid solutions. Aluminium in acid habitats has been observed to be toxic to fish and phytoplankton. Aluminium is generally more toxic over the pH range 4.4-5.4, with a maximum toxicity occurring around pH 5.0-5.2. The inorganic single unit aluminium species (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.

Persistence and degradability

Ingredient	Persistence: Water/Soil	Persistence: Air
neopentyl glycol diglycidyl ether	HIGH	HIGH

Bioaccumulative potential

Ingredient	Bioaccumulation
zinc oxide	LOW (BCF = 217)
neopentyl glycol diglycidyl ether	LOW (LogKOW = 0.2342)

Mobility in soil

Ingredient	Mobility
neopentyl glycol diglycidyl ether	LOW (KOC = 10)

SECTION 13 DISPOSAL CONSIDERATIONS**Waste treatment methods**

Product / Packaging disposal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Containers may still present a chemical hazard/ danger when empty. ▶ Return to supplier for reuse/ recycling if possible. <p>Otherwise:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ If container can not be cleaned sufficiently well to ensure that residuals do not remain or if the container cannot be used to store the same product, then puncture containers, to prevent re-use, and bury at an authorised landfill. ▶ Where possible retain label warnings and SDS and observe all notices pertaining to the product.
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- ▶ **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.

SECTION 14 TRANSPORT INFORMATION

Labels Required

For 8329TCS-6ML, 8329TCS-50ML, 8329TCS-200ML
 NOT REGULATED by Ground ADR Special Provision (SP AU01) - ADG Code 7th Ed.
 NOT REGULATED by Air IATA Special Provision A197
 NOT REGULATED by Sea IMDG per 2.10.2.7

Land transport (ADG)

UN number	3077
UN proper shipping name	ENVIRONMENTALLY HAZARDOUS SUBSTANCE, SOLID, N.O.S. (contains zinc oxide)
Transport hazard class(es)	Class : 9
	Subrisk : Not Applicable
Packing group	III
Environmental hazard	Environmentally hazardous
Special precautions for user	Special provisions : 274 331 335 375 AU01
	Limited quantity : 5 kg

Environmentally Hazardous Substances meeting the descriptions of UN 3077 or UN 3082 are not subject to this Code when transported by road or rail in;

(a) packagings;

(b) IBCs; or

(c) any other receptacle not exceeding 500 kg(L).

- Australian Special Provisions (SP AU01) - ADG Code 7th Ed.

Air transport (ICAO-IATA / DGR)

UN number	3077
UN proper shipping name	Environmentally hazardous substance, solid, n.o.s. * (contains zinc oxide)
Transport hazard class(es)	ICAO/IATA Class : 9
	ICAO / IATA Subrisk : Not Applicable
	ERG Code : 9L
Packing group	III
Environmental hazard	Environmentally hazardous
Special precautions for user	Special provisions : A97 A158 A179 A197
	Cargo Only Packing Instructions : 956
	Cargo Only Maximum Qty / Pack : 400 kg
	Passenger and Cargo Packing Instructions : 956
	Passenger and Cargo Maximum Qty / Pack : 400 kg
	Passenger and Cargo Limited Quantity Packing Instructions : Y956
	Passenger and Cargo Limited Maximum Qty / Pack : 30 kg G

Sea transport (IMDG-Code / GGVSee)

UN number	3077
UN proper shipping name	ENVIRONMENTALLY HAZARDOUS SUBSTANCE, SOLID, N.O.S. (contains zinc oxide)
Transport hazard class(es)	IMDG Class : 9
	IMDG Subrisk : Not Applicable
Packing group	III
Environmental hazard	Marine Pollutant
Special precautions for user	EMS Number : F-A , S-F
	Special provisions : 274 335 966 967 969
	Limited Quantities : 5 kg

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

Not Applicable

Continued...

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SECTION 15 REGULATORY INFORMATION

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

ALUMINIUM OXIDE IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Exposure Standards

Australia Inventory of Chemical Substances (AICS)

Chemical Footprint Project - Chemicals of High Concern List

ZINC OXIDE IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Exposure Standards

Australia Hazardous Chemical Information System (HCIS) - Hazardous Chemicals

Australia Inventory of Chemical Substances (AICS)

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

BISPHENOL F DIGLYCIDYL ETHER COPOLYMER IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Inventory of Chemical Substances (AICS)

Chemical Footprint Project - Chemicals of High Concern List

NEOPENTYL GLYCOL DIGLYCIDYL ETHER IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Hazardous Chemical Information System (HCIS) - Hazardous Chemicals

Australia Inventory of Chemical Substances (AICS)

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

Chemical Footprint Project - Chemicals of High Concern List

CARBON BLACK IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Exposure Standards

Australia Hazardous Chemical Information System (HCIS) - Hazardous Chemicals

Australia Inventory of Chemical Substances (AICS)

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)

National Inventory Status

National Inventory	Status
Australia - AICS	Yes
Canada - DSL	Yes
Canada - NDSL	No (neopentyl glycol diglycidyl ether; aluminium oxide; bisphenol F diglycidyl ether copolymer; carbon black)
China - IECSC	Yes
Europe - EINEC / ELINCS / NLP	No (bisphenol F diglycidyl ether copolymer)
Japan - ENCS	Yes
Korea - KECI	Yes
New Zealand - NZIoC	Yes
Philippines - PICCS	Yes
USA - TSCA	Yes
Taiwan - TCSI	Yes
Mexico - INSQ	No (neopentyl glycol diglycidyl ether; bisphenol F diglycidyl ether copolymer)
Vietnam - NCI	Yes
Russia - ARIPS	No (neopentyl glycol diglycidyl ether)
Legend:	Yes = All CAS declared ingredients are on the inventory No = One or more of the CAS listed ingredients are not on the inventory and are not exempt from listing (see specific ingredients in brackets)

SECTION 16 OTHER INFORMATION

Revision Date	12/05/2020
Initial Date	02/10/2016

SDS Version Summary

Version	Issue Date	Sections Updated
9.20.1.1.1	04/03/2020	Classification, Physical Properties, Synonyms

Other information

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

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

Definitions and abbreviations

PC—TWA: Permissible Concentration-Time Weighted Average

PC—STEL: Permissible Concentration-Short Term Exposure Limit

IARC: International Agency for Research on Cancer

ACGIH: American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists

STEL: Short Term Exposure Limit

TEEL: Temporary Emergency Exposure Limit.

IDLH: Immediately Dangerous to Life or Health Concentrations

Continued...

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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