

8327GF41-A Thermal Gap Filler, Silicone (Part A)

	<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> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Wear chemical protective gloves, e.g. PVC. ▶ Wear safety footwear or safety gumboots, e.g. Rubber
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.

8.2.3. Environmental exposure controls

See section 12

SECTION 9 PHYSICAL AND CHEMICAL PROPERTIES

9.1. Information on basic physical and chemical properties

Appearance	Pale grey, paste		
Physical state	Liquid	Relative density (Water = 1)	2.90
Odour	Not Available	Partition coefficient n-octanol / water	Not Available
Odour threshold	Not Available	Auto-ignition temperature (°C)	450
pH (as supplied)	Not Available	Decomposition temperature	Not Available
Melting point / freezing point (°C)	Not Available	Viscosity (cSt)	34482.759
Initial boiling point and boiling range (°C)	Not Available	Molecular weight (g/mol)	Not Available
Flash point (°C)	350	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 Available
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

9.2. Other information

Not Available

SECTION 10 STABILITY AND REACTIVITY

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

SECTION 11 TOXICOLOGICAL INFORMATION

Continued...

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11.1. Information on toxicological effects

Inhaled	<p>The material is not thought to produce either adverse health effects or irritation of the respiratory tract following inhalation (as classified by EC Directives using animal models). Nevertheless, adverse systemic effects have been produced following exposure of animals by at least one other route and good hygiene practice requires that exposure be kept to a minimum and that suitable control measures be used in an occupational setting.</p> <p>Inhalation of freshly formed metal oxide particles sized below 1.5 microns and generally between 0.02 to 0.05 microns may result in 'metal fume fever'. Symptoms may be delayed for up to 12 hours and begin with the sudden onset of thirst, and a sweet, metallic or foul taste in the mouth. Other symptoms include upper respiratory tract irritation accompanied by coughing and a dryness of the mucous membranes, lassitude and a generalised feeling of malaise. Mild to severe headache, nausea, occasional vomiting, fever or chills, exaggerated mental activity, profuse sweating, diarrhoea, excessive urination and prostration may also occur. Tolerance to the fumes develops rapidly, but is quickly lost. All symptoms usually subside within 24-36 hours following removal from exposure.</p>
Ingestion	<p>Accidental ingestion of the material may be damaging to the health of the individual. Acute toxic responses to aluminium are confined to the more soluble forms.</p>
Skin Contact	<p>The liquid may be miscible with fats or oils and may degrease the skin, producing a skin reaction described as non-allergic contact dermatitis. The material is unlikely to produce an irritant dermatitis as described in EC Directives .</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. Examine the skin prior to the use of the material and ensure that any external damage is suitably protected.</p>
Eye	<p>Although the liquid is not thought to be an irritant (as classified by EC Directives), direct contact with the eye may produce transient discomfort characterised by tearing or conjunctival redness (as with windburn).</p>
Chronic	<p>Long-term exposure to the product is not thought to produce chronic effects adverse to health (as classified by EC Directives using animal models); nevertheless exposure by all routes should be minimised as a matter of course.</p> <p>Chronic exposure to aluminas (aluminium oxides) of particle size 1.2 microns did not produce significant systemic or respiratory system effects in workers. Epidemiologic surveys have indicated an excess of nonmalignant respiratory disease in workers exposed to aluminum oxide during abrasives production. Very fine Al₂O₃ powder was not fibrogenic in rats, guinea pigs, or hamsters when inhaled for 6 to 12 months and sacrificed at periods up to 12 months following the last exposure.</p> <p>When hydrated aluminas were injected intratracheally, they produced dense and numerous nodules of advanced fibrosis in rats, a reticulin network with occasional collagen fibres in mice and guinea pigs, and only a slight reticulin network in rabbits. Shaver's disease, a rapidly progressive and often fatal interstitial fibrosis of the lungs, is associated with a process involving the fusion of bauxite (aluminium oxide) with iron, coke and silica at 2000 deg. C.</p> <p>The weight of evidence suggests that catalytically active alumina and the large surface area aluminas can induce lung fibrosis(aluminosis) in experimental animals, but only when given by the intra-tracheal route. The pertinence of such experiments in relation to workplace exposure is doubtful especially since it has been demonstrated that the most reactive of the aluminas (i.e. the chi and gamma forms), when given by inhalation, are non-fibrogenic in experimental animals. However rats exposed by inhalation to refractory aluminium fibre showed mild fibrosis and possibly carcinogenic effects indicating that fibrous aluminas might exhibit different toxicology to non-fibrous forms. Aluminium oxide fibres administered by the intrapleural route produce clear evidence of carcinogenicity.</p> <p>Saffil fibre an artificially produced form alumina fibre used as refractories, consists of over 95% alumina, 3-4 % silica. Animal tests for fibrogenic, carcinogenic potential and oral toxicity have included 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 neurotoxicity, testes, embryotoxicity, and the developing nervous system of 52, 75, 100, and 50 mg aluminium/kg bw/day, respectively. Similarly, the lowest no-observed-adverse-effect levels (NOAELs) for effects on these endpoints were reported at 30, 27, 100, and for effects on the developing nervous system, between 10 and 42 mg aluminium/kg bw per day, respectively.</p> <p>Controversy exists over whether aluminium is the cause of degenerative brain disease (Alzheimer's disease or AD). Several epidemiological studies show a possible correlation between the incidence of AD and high levels of aluminium in drinking water. A study in Toronto, for example, found a 2.6 times increased risk in people residing for at least 10 years in communities where drinking water contained more than 0.15 mg/l aluminium compared with communities where the aluminium level was lower than 0.1 mg/l. A neurochemical model has been suggested linking aluminium exposure to brain disease. Aluminium concentrates in brain regions, notably the hippocampus, cerebral cortex and amygdala where it preferentially binds to large pyramid-shaped</p>

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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]

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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]

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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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

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diet. Aluminium compounds do not cause gene mutations in either bacteria or mammalian cells. Exposure to aluminium compounds does result in both structural and numerical chromosome aberrations both in in-vitro and in-vivo mutagenicity tests. DNA damage is probably the result of indirect mechanisms. The DNA damage was observed only at high exposure levels.

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

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

Contact sensitivity:
It has been suggested that the body burden of aluminium may be linked to different diseases. Macrophagic myofasciitis and chronic fatigue syndrome can be caused by aluminium-containing adjuvants in vaccines. Macrophagic myofasciitis (MMF) has been described as a disease in adults presenting with ascending myalgia and severe fatigue following exposure to aluminium hydroxide-containing vaccines. The corresponding histological findings include aluminium-containing macrophages infiltrating muscle tissue at the injection site. The hypothesis is that the long-lasting granuloma triggers the development of the systemic syndrome.

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

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

ALUMINIUM OXIDE 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

12.1. Toxicity

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	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
	EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.001-0.799mg/L	2
	NOEC	240	Crustacea	0.001-0.1002mg/L	2

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

Metal-containing inorganic substances generally have negligible vapour pressure and are not expected to partition to air. Once released to surface waters and moist soils their fate depends on solubility and dissociation in water. Environmental processes (such as oxidation and the presence of acids or bases) may transform insoluble metals to more soluble ionic forms. Microbiological processes may also transform insoluble metals to more soluble forms. Such ionic species may bind to dissolved ligands or sorb to solid particles in aquatic or aqueous media. A significant proportion of dissolved/sorbed metals will end up in sediments through the settling of suspended particles. The remaining metal ions can then be taken up by aquatic organisms.

When released to dry soil most metals will exhibit limited mobility and remain in the upper layer; some will leach locally into ground water and/or surface water ecosystems when soaked by rain or melt ice. Environmental processes may also be important in changing solubilities.

Even though many metals show few toxic effects at physiological pHs, transformation may introduce new or magnified effects.

A metal ion is considered infinitely persistent because it cannot degrade further.

The current state of science does not allow for an unambiguous interpretation of various measures of bioaccumulation.

The counter-ion may also create health and environmental concerns once isolated from the metal. Under normal physiological conditions the counter-ion may be essentially insoluble and may not be bioavailable.

Environmental processes may enhance bioavailability.

Continued...

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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, $[Al(H_2O)_6]^{3+}$, undergoes hydrolysis, in which a stepwise deprotonation of the coordinated water ligands forms bound hydroxide ligands (e.g., $[Al(H_2O)_5(OH)]^{2+}$, $[Al(H_2O)_4(OH)_2]^+$). 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.

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

Monomeric 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.

The adsorption of aluminium onto clay surfaces can be a significant factor in controlling aluminium 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 aluminium depending on the degree of aluminium saturation on the clay surface.

Within the pH range of 5-6, aluminium complexes with phosphate and is removed from solution. Because phosphate is a necessary nutrient in ecological systems, this immobilization of both aluminium 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 aluminium to above-ground parts. Tea leaves may contain very high concentrations of aluminium, >5,000 mg/kg in old leaves. Other plants that may contain high levels of aluminium include Lycopodium (Lycopodiaceae), a few ferns, Symlocos (Symlocaceae), and Orites (Proteaceae). Aluminium 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 aluminium and immobilizes it, preventing large accumulation in above-ground tissue. It is unclear to what extent aluminium is taken up into root food crops and leafy vegetables. An uptake factor (concentration of aluminium in the plant/concentration of aluminium 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 aluminium is not taken up in plants from soil, but is instead biodiluted.

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

The greatest fraction of the gill-associated aluminium was not sorbed to the gill tissue, but to the gill mucus. It is thought that mucus appears to retard aluminium transport from solution to the membrane surface, thus delaying the acute biological response of the fish. It has been reported that concentrations of aluminium in whole-body tissue of the Atlantic salmon exposed to high concentrations of aluminium 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 aluminium exposure concentration. In acidic waters (pH 4.6-5.3) with low concentrations of calcium (0.5-1.5 mg Ca/L), labile aluminium between 25 and 75 ug/L is toxic. Because aluminium 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 aluminium exposure in humans.

Bioconcentration of aluminium 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 aluminium 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.

DO NOT discharge into sewer or waterways.

12.2. Persistence and degradability

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

12.3. Bioaccumulative potential

Ingredient	Bioaccumulation
	No Data available for all ingredients

12.4. Mobility in soil

8327GF41-A Thermal Gap Filler, Silicone (Part A)

Ingredient	Mobility
	No Data available for all ingredients

12.5. Results of PBT and vPvB assessment

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

12.6. Other adverse effects

No data available

SECTION 13 DISPOSAL CONSIDERATIONS

13.1. Waste treatment methods

Product / Packaging disposal	<p>Legislation addressing waste disposal requirements may differ by country, state and/ or territory. Each user must refer to laws operating in their area. In some areas, certain wastes must be tracked.</p> <p>A Hierarchy of Controls seems to be common - the user should investigate:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Reduction ▶ Reuse ▶ Recycling ▶ Disposal (if all else fails) <p>This material may be recycled if unused, or if it has not been contaminated so as to make it unsuitable for its intended use. If it has been contaminated, it may be possible to reclaim the product by filtration, distillation or some other means. Shelf life considerations should also be applied in making decisions of this type. Note that properties of a material may change in use, and recycling or reuse may not always be appropriate.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ DO NOT allow wash water from cleaning or process equipment to enter drains. ▶ It may be necessary to collect all wash water for treatment before disposal. ▶ In all cases disposal to sewer may be subject to local laws and regulations and these should be considered first. ▶ Where in doubt contact the responsible authority. ▶ Recycle wherever possible or consult manufacturer for recycling options. ▶ Consult State Land Waste Management Authority for disposal. ▶ Bury residue in an authorised landfill. ▶ Recycle containers if possible, or dispose of in an authorised landfill.
Waste treatment options	Not Available
Sewage disposal options	Not Available

SECTION 14 TRANSPORT INFORMATION

Land transport (ADR): NOT REGULATED FOR TRANSPORT OF DANGEROUS GOODS

14.1. UN number	Not Applicable												
14.2. UN proper shipping name	Not Applicable												
14.3. Transport hazard class(es)	<table border="0"> <tr> <td>Class</td> <td>Not Applicable</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Subrisk</td> <td>Not Applicable</td> </tr> </table>	Class	Not Applicable	Subrisk	Not Applicable								
Class	Not Applicable												
Subrisk	Not Applicable												
14.4. Packing group	Not Applicable												
14.5. Environmental hazard	Not Applicable												
14.6. Special precautions for user	<table border="0"> <tr> <td>Hazard identification (Kemler)</td> <td>Not Applicable</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Classification code</td> <td>Not Applicable</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Hazard Label</td> <td>Not Applicable</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Special provisions</td> <td>Not Applicable</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Limited quantity</td> <td>Not Applicable</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Tunnel Restriction Code</td> <td>Not Applicable</td> </tr> </table>	Hazard identification (Kemler)	Not Applicable	Classification code	Not Applicable	Hazard Label	Not Applicable	Special provisions	Not Applicable	Limited quantity	Not Applicable	Tunnel Restriction Code	Not Applicable
Hazard identification (Kemler)	Not Applicable												
Classification code	Not Applicable												
Hazard Label	Not Applicable												
Special provisions	Not Applicable												
Limited quantity	Not Applicable												
Tunnel Restriction Code	Not Applicable												

Air transport (ICAO-IATA / DGR): NOT REGULATED FOR TRANSPORT OF DANGEROUS GOODS

14.1. UN number	Not Applicable						
14.2. UN proper shipping name	Not Applicable						
14.3. Transport hazard class(es)	<table border="0"> <tr> <td>ICAO/IATA Class</td> <td>Not Applicable</td> </tr> <tr> <td>ICAO / IATA Subrisk</td> <td>Not Applicable</td> </tr> <tr> <td>ERG Code</td> <td>Not Applicable</td> </tr> </table>	ICAO/IATA Class	Not Applicable	ICAO / IATA Subrisk	Not Applicable	ERG Code	Not Applicable
ICAO/IATA Class	Not Applicable						
ICAO / IATA Subrisk	Not Applicable						
ERG Code	Not Applicable						
14.4. Packing group	Not Applicable						
14.5. Environmental hazard	Not Applicable						
14.6. Special precautions for user	<table border="0"> <tr> <td>Special provisions</td> <td>Not Applicable</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Cargo Only Packing Instructions</td> <td>Not Applicable</td> </tr> </table>	Special provisions	Not Applicable	Cargo Only Packing Instructions	Not Applicable		
Special provisions	Not Applicable						
Cargo Only Packing Instructions	Not Applicable						

Continued...

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	Cargo Only Maximum Qty / Pack	Not Applicable
	Passenger and Cargo Packing Instructions	Not Applicable
	Passenger and Cargo Maximum Qty / Pack	Not Applicable
	Passenger and Cargo Limited Quantity Packing Instructions	Not Applicable
	Passenger and Cargo Limited Maximum Qty / Pack	Not Applicable

Sea transport (IMDG-Code / GGVSee): NOT REGULATED FOR TRANSPORT OF DANGEROUS GOODS

14.1. UN number	Not Applicable	
14.2. UN proper shipping name	Not Applicable	
14.3. Transport hazard class(es)	IMDG Class	Not Applicable
	IMDG Subrisk	Not Applicable
14.4. Packing group	Not Applicable	
14.5. Environmental hazard	Not Applicable	
14.6. Special precautions for user	EMS Number	Not Applicable
	Special provisions	Not Applicable
	Limited Quantities	Not Applicable

Inland waterways transport (ADN): NOT REGULATED FOR TRANSPORT OF DANGEROUS GOODS

14.1. UN number	Not Applicable	
14.2. UN proper shipping name	Not Applicable	
14.3. Transport hazard class(es)	Not Applicable	Not Applicable
14.4. Packing group	Not Applicable	
14.5. Environmental hazard	Not Applicable	
14.6. Special precautions for user	Classification code	Not Applicable
	Special provisions	Not Applicable
	Limited quantity	Not Applicable
	Equipment required	Not Applicable
	Fire cones number	Not Applicable

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

Not Applicable

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

Europe EC Inventory

Europe ECHA Registered Substances - Classification and Labelling - DSD-DPD

Europe European Customs Inventory of Chemical Substances

European Chemical Agency (ECHA) Classification & Labelling Inventory - Chemwatch

Harmonised classification

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

UK Workplace Exposure Limits (WELs)

This safety data sheet is in compliance with the following EU legislation and its adaptations - as far as applicable - : Directives 98/24/EC, - 92/85/EEC, - 94/33/EC, - 2008/98/EC, - 2010/75/EU; Commission Regulation (EU) 2015/830; Regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 as updated through ATPs.

15.2. Chemical safety assessment

No Chemical Safety Assessment has been carried out for this substance/mixture by the supplier.

National Inventory Status

National Inventory	Status
Australia - AICS	No - Not in compliance
Canada - DSL	Yes - restricted quantity
Canada - NDSL	No - Not in compliance
China - IECSC	Yes - restricted quantity
Europe - EINEC / ELINCS / NLP	Yes
Japan - ENCS	Yes
Korea - KECI	Yes
New Zealand - NZIoC	No - Not in compliance
Philippines - PICCS	No - Not in compliance
USA - TSCA	Yes

Continued...

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Taiwan - TCSI	Yes
Legend:	<p>Yes = All CAS declared ingredients are on the inventory</p> <p>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)</p>

SECTION 16 OTHER INFORMATION

Revision Date	30/07/2019
Initial Date	31/07/2019

Full text Risk and Hazard codes**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.

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

EN 166 Personal eye-protection

EN 340 Protective clothing

EN 374 Protective gloves against chemicals and micro-organisms

EN 13832 Footwear protecting against chemicals

EN 133 Respiratory protective devices

Definitions and abbreviations

PC – TWA: Permissible Concentration-Time Weighted Average

PC – STEL: Permissible Concentration-Short Term Exposure Limit

IARC: International Agency for Research on Cancer

ACGIH: American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists

STEL: Short Term Exposure Limit

TEEL: Temporary Emergency Exposure Limit.

IDLH: Immediately Dangerous to Life or Health Concentrations

OSF: Odour Safety Factor

NOAEL :No Observed Adverse Effect Level

LOAEL: Lowest Observed Adverse Effect Level

TLV: Threshold Limit Value

LOD: Limit Of Detection

OTV: Odour Threshold Value

BCF: BioConcentration Factors

BEI: Biological Exposure Index

Reason For Change

A-1.00 - First release