

Coharo Coatings - Concrete Finish - CF

Casafico

Chemwatch: **5313-33**Version No: **3.1.1.1**

Safety Data Sheet according to WHS and ADG requirements

Chemwatch Hazard Alert Code: 4

Issue Date: **01/11/2019**Print Date: **26/05/2020**L.GHS.AUS.EN

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

Product Identifier

Product name	Coharo Coatings – Concrete Finish - CF	
Synonyms	decorative coating	
Other means of identification	Not Available	

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

Relevant identified uses Decorative coating.

Details of the supplier of the safety data sheet

Registered company name	Casafico	
Address	8 Tarnard Drive Braeside VIC 3195 Australia	
Telephone	1 3 9580 5700	
Fax	+61 3 9580 5787	
Website	www.casafico.com.au	
Email	info@casafico.com.au	

Emergency telephone number

Association / Organisation	Not Available
Emergency telephor	Not Available
Other emergend telephone number	Not Available

SECTION 2 HAZARDS IDENTIFICATION

Classification of the substance or mixture

Poisons Schedule	Not Applicable	
Classification [1]	Skin Corrosion/Irritation Category 2, Serious Eye Damage Category 1, Skin Sensitizer Category 1, Germ cell mutagenicity Category 2, Specific target organ toxicity - single exposure Category 3 (respiratory tract irritation)	
Legend:	1. Classified by Chemwatch; 2. Classification drawn from HCIS; 3. Classification drawn from Regulation (EU) No 1272/2008 - Annex VI	

Label elements

Hazard pictogram(s)







SIGNAL WORD

DANGER

Hazard statement(s)

H315

Causes skin irritation.

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H318	Causes serious eye damage.	
H317	May cause an allergic skin reaction.	
H341	Suspected of causing genetic defects.	
H335	May cause respiratory irritation.	

Precautionary statement(s) Prevention

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P201	Obtain special instructions before use.	
P271	Use only outdoors or in a well-ventilated area.	
P280	Wear protective gloves/protective clothing/eye protection/face protection.	
P281	Use personal protective equipment as required.	
P261	Avoid breathing dust/fumes.	
P272	Contaminated work clothing should not be allowed out of the workplace.	

Precautionary statement(s) Response

P305+P351+P338	IF IN EYES: Rinse cautiously with water for several minutes. Remove contact lenses, if present and easy to do. Continue rinsing.	
P308+P313	exposed or concerned: Get medical advice/attention.	
P310	Immediately call a POISON CENTER or doctor/physician.	
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.	
P333+P313	If skin irritation or rash occurs: Get medical advice/attention.	
P304+P340	IF INHALED: Remove victim to fresh air and keep at rest in a position comfortable for breathing.	

Precautionary statement(s) Storage

P405	Store locked up.	
P403+P233	Store in a well-ventilated place. Keep container tightly closed.	

Precautionary statement(s) Disposal

P501 Dispose of contents/container to authorised hazardous or special waste collection point in accordance with any local regulation.

SECTION 3 COMPOSITION / INFORMATION ON INGREDIENTS

Substances

See section below for composition of Mixtures

Mixtures

CAS No	%[weight]	Name
65997-15-1	>30	portland cement
471-34-1	>30	calcium carbonate
10043-01-3	<3	aluminium sulfate
14808-60-7	<0.3	silica crystalline - quartz
Not Available	NotSpec	hexavalent chromium (contaminant)
Not Available	balance	Ingredients determined not to be hazardous

SECTION 4 FIRST AID MEASURES

Description of first aid measures

Eye Contact

If this product comes in contact with the eyes:

- ▶ Immediately hold eyelids apart and flush the eye continuously with running water.
- Ensure complete irrigation of the eye by keeping eyelids apart and away from eye and moving the eyelids by occasionally lifting the upper and lower lids.
- Continue flushing until advised to stop by the Poisons Information Centre or a doctor, or for at least 15 minutes.
- ► Transport to hospital or doctor without delay.
- Removal of contact lenses after an eye injury should only be undertaken by skilled personnel.

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Skin Contact	If skin contact occurs: Immediately remove all contaminated clothing, including footwear. Flush skin and hair with running water (and soap if available). Seek medical attention in event of irritation.
Inhalation	 If fumes or combustion products are inhaled remove from contaminated area. Lay patient down. Keep warm and rested. Prostheses such as false teeth, which may block airway, should be removed, where possible, prior to initiating first aid procedures. Apply artificial respiration if not breathing, preferably with a demand valve resuscitator, bag-valve mask device, or pocket mask as trained. Perform CPR if necessary. Transport to hospital, or doctor, without delay.
Ingestion	 If swallowed do NOT induce vomiting. If vomiting occurs, lean patient forward or place on left side (head-down position, if possible) to maintain open airway and prevent aspiration. Observe the patient carefully. Never give liquid to a person showing signs of being sleepy or with reduced awareness; i.e. becoming unconscious. Give water to rinse out mouth, then provide liquid slowly and as much as casualty can comfortably drink. Seek medical advice.

Indication of any immediate medical attention and special treatment needed

Treat symptomatically.

For acute or short term repeated exposures to iron and its derivatives:

- Always treat symptoms rather than history.
- In general, however, toxic doses exceed 20 mg/kg of ingested material (as elemental iron) with lethal doses exceeding 180 mg/kg.
- Control of iron stores depend on variation in absorption rather than excretion. Absorption occurs through aspiration, ingestion and burned skin.
- ▶ Hepatic damage may progress to failure with hypoprothrombinaemia and hypoglycaemia. Hepatorenal syndrome may occur.
- Firon intoxication may also result in decreased cardiac output and increased cardiac pooling which subsequently produces hypotension.
- Serum iron should be analysed in symptomatic patients. Serum iron levels (2-4 hrs post-ingestion) greater that 100 ug/dL indicate poisoning with levels, in excess of 350 ug/dL, being potentially serious. Emesis or lavage (for obtunded patients with no gag reflex) are the usual means of decontamination.
- · Activated charcoal does not effectively bind iron.
- ▶ Catharsis (using sodium sulfate or magnesium sulfate) may only be used if the patient already has diarrhoea.
- Deferoxamine is a specific chelator of ferric (3+) iron and is currently the antidote of choice. It should be administered parenterally. [Ellenhorn and Barceloux: Medical Toxicology]

For acute or short term repeated exposures to dichromates and chromates:

- Absorption occurs from the alimentary tract and lungs.
- ▶ The kidney excretes about 60% of absorbed chromate within 8 hours of ingestion. Urinary excretion may take up to 14 days.
- ▶ Establish airway, breathing and circulation. Assist ventilation.
- Induce emesis with Ipecac Syrup if patient is not convulsing, in coma or obtunded and if the gag reflex is present.
- Otherwise use gastric lavage with endotracheal intubation.
- Fluid balance is critical. Peritoneal dialysis, haemodialysis or exchange transfusion may be effective although available data is limited.
- ▶ British Anti-Lewisite, ascorbic acid, folic acid and EDTA are probably not effective.
- There are no antidotes.
- Primary irritation, including chrome ulceration, may be treated with ointments comprising calcium-sodium-EDTA. This, together with the use of frequently renewed dressings, will ensure rapid healing of any ulcer which may develop.

The mechanism of action involves the reduction of Cr (VI) to Cr(III) and subsequent chelation; the irritant effect of Cr(III)/ protein complexes is thus avoided. [ILO Encyclopedia]

[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]

For acute or short-term repeated exposures to highly alkaline materials:

- ▶ Respiratory stress is uncommon but present occasionally because of soft tissue edema.
- ▶ Unless endotracheal intubation can be accomplished under direct vision, cricothyroidotomy or tracheotomy may be necessary.
- Oxygen is given as indicated.
- ► The presence of shock suggests perforation and mandates an intravenous line and fluid administration.
- Damage due to alkaline corrosives occurs by liquefaction necrosis whereby the saponification of fats and solubilisation of proteins allow deep penetration into the tissue.

Alkalis continue to cause damage after exposure.

INGESTION:

▶ Milk and water are the preferred diluents

No more than 2 glasses of water should be given to an adult.

▶ Neutralising agents should never be given since exothermic heat reaction may compound injury.

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- * Catharsis and emesis are absolutely contra-indicated.
- * Activated charcoal does not absorb alkali.
- * Gastric lavage should not be used.

Supportive care involves the following:

- Withhold oral feedings initially.
- ▶ If endoscopy confirms transmucosal injury start steroids only within the first 48 hours.
- ▶ Carefully evaluate the amount of tissue necrosis before assessing the need for surgical intervention.
- Patients should be instructed to seek medical attention whenever they develop difficulty in swallowing (dysphagia).

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► Injury should be irrigated for 20-30 minutes.

Eye injuries require saline. [Ellenhorn & Barceloux: Medical Toxicology]

SECTION 5 FIREFIGHTING MEASURES

Extinguishing media

- ▶ There is no restriction on the type of extinguisher which may be used.
- Use extinguishing media suitable for surrounding area.

Special hazards arising from the substrate or mixture

Fire Incompatibility	None known.		
Advice for firefighters			
Fire Fighting	 Alert Fire Brigade and tell them location and nature of hazard. Wear breathing apparatus plus protective gloves in the event of a fire. Prevent, by any means available, spillage from entering drains or water courses. Use fire fighting procedures suitable for surrounding 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	Under certain conditions the material may become combustible because of the ease of ignition which occurs after the material reaches a high specific area ratio (thin sections, fine particles, or molten states). However, the same material in massive solid form is comparatively difficult to ignite. Nearly all metals will burn in air under certain conditions. Some are oxidised rapidly in the presence of air or moisture, generating sufficient heat to reach their ignition temperatures. Others oxidise so slowly that heat generated during oxidation is dissipated before the metal becomes hot enough to ignite. Particle size, shape, quantity, and alloy are important factors to be considered when evaluating metal combustibility. Combustibility of metallic alloys may differ and vary widely from the combustibility characteristics of the alloys' constituent elements. Decomposition may produce toxic fumes of: silicon dioxide (SiO2) metal oxides May emit poisonous fumes.		

SECTION 6 ACCIDENTAL RELEASE MEASURES

HAZCHEM

Personal precautions, protective equipment and emergency procedures

May emit corrosive fumes.

Not Applicable

See section 8

Environmental precautions

See section 12

Methods and material for containment and cleaning up

Minor Spills	 Remove all ignition sources. Clean up all spills immediately. Avoid contact with skin and eyes. Control personal contact with the substance, by using protective equipment. Use dry clean up procedures and avoid generating dust. Place in a suitable, labelled container for waste disposal.
Major Spills	Moderate hazard. • 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.

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- 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

- 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.
- Safe handling
 When handling, DO NOT eat, drink or smoke.
 - ▶ Keep containers securely sealed when not in use.
 - Avoid physical damage to containers.
 - ▶ Always wash hands with soap and water after handling.
 - ▶ Work clothes should be laundered separately. Launder contaminated clothing before re-use.
 - ▶ Use good occupational work practice.
 - Observe manufacturer's storage and handling recommendations contained within this SDS.
 - Atmosphere should be regularly checked against established exposure standards to ensure safe working conditions are maintained.

Other information

Consider storage under inert gas.

- 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.

For major quantities:

- Consider storage in bunded 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

- ► Polyethylene or polypropylene container.
- Check all containers are clearly labelled and free from leaks.

Storage incompatibility

- ► Segregate from alcohol, water.
- Avoid strong acids, acid chlorides, acid anhydrides and chloroformates.
- Avoid contact with copper, aluminium and their alloys.
- ▶ NOTE: May develop pressure in containers; open carefully. Vent periodically.

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	portland cement	Portland cement	10 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	(a) This value is for inhalable dust containing no asbestos and < 1% crystalline silica.
Australia Exposure Standards	calcium carbonate	Calcium carbonate	10 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	(a) This value is for inhalable dust containing no asbestos and < 1% crystalline silica.
Australia Exposure Standards	aluminium sulfate	Aluminium, soluble salts (as Al)	2 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	silica crystalline - quartz	Silica - Crystalline: Quartz (respirable dust)	0.05 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available

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Ingredient	Material name	TEEL-1	TEEL-2	TEEL-3
calcium carbonate	Carbonic acid, calcium salt	45 mg/m3	210 mg/m3	1,300 mg/m3
aluminium sulfate	Aluminum sulfate	38 mg/m3	64 mg/m3	380 mg/m3
silica crystalline - quartz	Silica, crystalline-quartz; (Silicon dioxide)	0.075 mg/m3	33 mg/m3	200 mg/m3

Ingredient	Original IDLH	Revised IDLH
portland cement	5,000 mg/m3	Not Available
calcium carbonate	Not Available	Not Available
aluminium sulfate	Not Available	Not Available
silica crystalline - quartz	25 mg/m3 / 50 mg/m3	Not Available

MATERIAL DATA

for calcium silicate:

containing no asbestos and <1% crystalline silica

ES TWA: 10 mg/m3 inspirable dust

TLV TWA: 10 mg/m3 total dust (synthetic nonfibrous) A4

Although in vitro studies indicate that calcium silicate is more toxic than substances described as "nuisance dusts" is thought that adverse health effects which might occur following exposure to 10-20 mg/m3 are likely to be minimal. The TLV-TWA is thought to be protective against the physical risk of eye and upper respiratory tract irritation in workers and to prevent interference with vision and deposition of particulate in the eyes, ears, nose and mouth.

WARNING: For inhalation exposure ONLY: This substance has been classified by the IARC as Group 1: CARCINOGENIC TO HUMANS

NOTE: This substance has been classified by the ACGIH as A4 NOT classifiable as causing Cancer in humans

The International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) has classified occupational exposures to **respirable** (<5 um) crystalline silica as being carcinogenic to humans. This classification is based on what IARC considered sufficient evidence from epidemiological studies of humans for the carcinogenicity of inhaled silica in the forms of quartz and cristobalite. Crystalline silica is also known to cause silicosis, a non-cancerous lung disease.

Intermittent exposure produces; focal fibrosis, (pneumoconiosis), cough, dyspnoea, liver tumours.

* Millions of particles per cubic foot (based on impinger samples counted by light field techniques).

NOTE: the physical nature of quartz in the product determines whether it is likely to present a chronic health problem. To be a hazard the material must enter the breathing zone as respirable particles.

For calcium carbonate:

The TLV-TWA is thought to be protective against the significant risk of physical irritation associated with exposure.

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

NOTE: Detector tubes for sulfuric acid, measuring in excess of 1 mg/m3, are commercially available.

Based on controlled inhalation studies the TLV-TWA is thought to be protective against the significant risk of pulmonary irritation and incorporates a margin of safety so as to prevent injury to the skin and teeth seen in battery workers acclimatised to workplace concentrations of 16 mg/m3. Experimental evidence in normal unacclimated humans indicates the recognition, by all subjects, of odour, taste or irritation at 3 mg/m3 or 5 mg/m3. All subjects reported these levels to be objectionable but to varying degrees.

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.

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

Because the margin of safety of the quartz TLV is not known with certainty and given the associated link between silicosis and lung cancer it is recommended that quartz concentrations be maintained as far below the TLV as prudent practices will allow.

Exposure to respirable crystalline silicas (RCS) represents a significant hazard to workers, particularly those employed in the construction industry where respirable dusts of of cement and concrete are common. Cutting, grinding and other high speed processes, involving their finished products, may further result in dusty atmospheres. Bricks are also a potential source of RCSs under such circumstances.

It is estimated that half of the occupations, involved in construction work, are exposed to levels of RCSs, higher than the current allowable limits. Beaudry et al: Journal of Occupational and Environmental Hygiene 10: 71-77; 2013

Exposure controls

Appropriate engineering controls

Engineering controls are used to remove a hazard or place a barrier between the worker and the hazard. Well-designed engineering controls can be highly effective in protecting workers and will typically be independent of worker interactions to provide this high level of protection.

The basic types of engineering controls are:

Process controls which involve changing the way a job activity or process is done to reduce the risk.

Enclosure and/or isolation of emission source which keeps a selected hazard "physically" away from the worker and ventilation that strategically "adds" and "removes" air in the work environment. Ventilation can remove or dilute an air contaminant if

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designed properly. The design of a ventilation system must match the particular process and chemical or contaminant in use. Employers may need to use multiple types of controls to prevent employee overexposure.

Local exhaust ventilation usually required. If risk of overexposure exists, wear approved respirator. Correct fit is essential to obtain adequate protection. Supplied-air type respirator may be required in special circumstances. Correct fit is essential to

An approved self contained breathing apparatus (SCBA) may be required in some situations.

Provide adequate ventilation in warehouse or closed storage area. Air contaminants generated in the workplace possess varying "escape" velocities which, in turn, determine the "capture velocities" of fresh circulating air required to effectively remove the contaminant.

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

Within each range the appropriate value depends on:

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

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

Personal protection











Eye and face protection

► 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]

Skin protection

See Hand protection below

NOTE:

- ▶ 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.

The selection of suitable gloves does not only depend on the material, but also on further marks of quality which vary from manufacturer to manufacturer. Where the chemical is a preparation of several substances, the resistance of the glove material can not be calculated in advance and has therefore to be checked prior to the application.

The exact break through time for substances has to be obtained from the manufacturer of the protective gloves and has to be

observed when making a final choice. Hands/feet protection Personal hygiene is a key element of effective hand care. Gloves must only be worn on clean hands. After using gloves, hands

> should be washed and dried thoroughly. Application of a non-perfumed moisturiser is recommended. Suitability and durability of glove type is dependent on usage. Important factors in the selection of gloves include:

- frequency and duration of contact,
- chemical resistance of glove material,
- glove thickness and
- dexterity

Select gloves tested to a relevant standard (e.g. Europe EN 374, US F739, AS/NZS 2161.1 or national equivalent).

When prolonged or frequently repeated contact may occur, a glove with a protection class of 5 or higher

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(breakthrough time greater than 240 minutes according to EN 374, AS/NZS 2161.10.1 or national equivalent) is recommended.

- When only brief contact is expected, a glove with a protection class of 3 or higher (breakthrough time greater than 60 minutes according to EN 374, AS/NZS 2161.10.1 or national equivalent) is recommended.
- Some glove polymer types are less affected by movement and this should be taken into account when considering gloves for long-term use.
- Contaminated gloves should be replaced.

As defined in ASTM F-739-96 in any application, gloves are rated as:

- Excellent when breakthrough time > 480 min
- Good when breakthrough time > 20 min
- Fair when breakthrough time < 20 min
- Poor when glove material degrades

For general applications, gloves with a thickness typically greater than 0.35 mm, are recommended.

It should be emphasised that glove thickness is not necessarily a good predictor of glove resistance to a specific chemical, as the permeation efficiency of the glove will be dependent on the exact composition of the glove material. Therefore, glove selection should also be based on consideration of the task requirements and knowledge of breakthrough times.

Glove thickness may also vary depending on the glove manufacturer, the glove type and the glove model. Therefore, the manufacturers' technical data should always be taken into account to ensure selection of the most appropriate glove for the task. Note: Depending on the activity being conducted, gloves of varying thickness may be required for specific tasks. For example:

- Thinner gloves (down to 0.1 mm or less) may be required where a high degree of manual dexterity is needed. However, these gloves are only likely to give short duration protection and would normally be just for single use applications, then disposed of.
- Thicker gloves (up to 3 mm or more) may be required where there is a mechanical (as well as a chemical) risk i.e. where there is abrasion or puncture potential

Gloves must only be worn on clean hands. After using gloves, hands should be washed and dried thoroughly. Application of a non-perfumed moisturiser is recommended.

▶ Neoprene rubber gloves

Experience indicates that the following polymers are suitable as glove materials for protection against undissolved, dry solids, where abrasive particles are not present.

- ▶ polychloroprene.
- nitrile rubber.
- ▶ butyl rubber.
- ▶ fluorocaoutchouc.
- polyvinyl chloride.

Gloves should be examined for wear and/ or degradation constantly.

Body protection

See Other protection below

Other protection

- 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)

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

SECTION 10 STABILITY AND REACTIVITY

Reactivity	See section 7
Chemical stability	 Unstable in the presence of incompatible materials. Product is considered stable. Hazardous polymerisation will not occur.
Possibility of hazardous reactions	See section 7
Conditions to avoid	See section 7
Incompatible materials	See section 7
Hazardous decomposition products	See section 5

SECTION 11 TOXICOLOGICAL INFORMATION

Information on toxicological effects

Inhaled

Evidence shows, or practical experience predicts, that the material produces irritation of the respiratory system, in a substantial number of individuals, following inhalation. In contrast to most organs, the lung is able to respond to a chemical insult by first removing or neutralising the irritant and then repairing the damage. The repair process, which initially evolved to protect mammalian lungs from foreign matter and antigens, may however, produce further lung damage resulting in the impairment of gas exchange, the primary function of the lungs. Respiratory tract irritation often results in an inflammatory response involving the recruitment and activation of many cell types, mainly derived from the vascular system.

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Inhalation of vapours may cause drowsiness and dizziness. This may be accompanied by narcosis, reduced alertness, loss of reflexes, lack of coordination and vertigo.

Inhalation of dusts, generated by the material during the course of normal handling, may be damaging to the health of the individual

Inhalation may result in chrome ulcers or sores of nasal mucosa and lung damage.

Persons with impaired respiratory function, airway diseases and conditions such as emphysema or chronic bronchitis, may incur further disability if excessive concentrations of particulate are inhaled.

If prior damage to the circulatory or nervous systems has occurred or if kidney damage has been sustained, proper screenings should be conducted on individuals who may be exposed to further risk if handling and use of the material result in excessive exposures.

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.

Ingestion

Accidental ingestion of the material may be damaging to the health of the individual.

The material produces moderate skin irritation; evidence exists, or practical experience predicts, that the material either

- produces moderate inflammation of the skin in a substantial number of individuals following direct contact, and/or
- produces significant, but moderate, inflammation when applied to the healthy intact skin of animals (for up to four hours), such inflammation being present twenty-four hours or more after the end of the exposure period.

Skin irritation may also be present after prolonged or repeated exposure; this may result in a form of contact dermatitis (nonallergic). The dermatitis is often characterised by skin redness (erythema) and swelling (oedema) which may progress to blistering (vesiculation), scaling and thickening of the epidermis. At the microscopic level there may be intercellular oedema of the spongy layer of the skin (spongiosis) and intracellular oedema of the epidermis.

Contact with aluminas (aluminium oxides) may produce a form of irritant dermatitis accompanied by pruritus.

Though considered non-harmful, slight irritation may result from contact because of the abrasive nature of the aluminium oxide

Skin Contact

Four students received severe hand burns whilst making moulds of their hands with dental plaster substituted for Plaster of Paris. The dental plaster known as "Stone" was a special form of calcium sulfate hemihydrate containing alpha-hemihydrate crystals that provide high compression strength to the moulds. Beta-hemihydrate (normal Plaster of Paris) does not cause skin burns in similar circumstances.

Handling wet cement can cause dermatitis. Cement when wet is quite alkaline and this alkali action on the skin contributes strongly to cement contact dermatitis since it may cause drying and defatting of the skin which is followed by hardening, cracking. lesions developing, possible infections of lesions and penetration by soluble salts.

Skin contact may result in severe irritation particularly to broken skin. Ulceration known as "chrome ulcers" may develop. Chrome ulcers and skin cancer are significantly related.

Open cuts, abraded or irritated skin should not be exposed to this material

Entry into the blood-stream through, for example, cuts, abrasions, puncture wounds or lesions, may produce systemic injury with harmful effects. Examine the skin prior to the use of the material and ensure that any external damage is suitably protected.

Eye

When applied to the eye(s) of animals, the material produces severe ocular lesions which are present twenty-four hours or more after instillation.

Long-term exposure to respiratory irritants may result in disease of the airways involving difficult breathing and related systemic problems.

Strong evidence exists that the substance may cause irreversible but non-lethal mutagenic effects following a single exposure. 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.

Exposure to the material may result in a possible risk of irreversible effects. The material may produce mutagenic effects in man. This concern is raised, generally, on the basis of

appropriate studies using mammalian somatic cells in vivo. Such findings are often supported by positive results from in vitro mutagenicity studies.

Limited evidence suggests that repeated or long-term occupational exposure may produce cumulative health effects involving organs or biochemical systems.

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.

Chronic

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.

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.

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

There is general agreement that particle size determines that the degree of pathogenicity (the ability of a micro-organism to

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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 alveolii (sub 5 um) are able to produce pathogenic effects in the lungs. Red blood cells and rabbit alveolar macrophages exposed to calcium silicate insulation materials in vitro showed haemolysis in one study but not in another. Both studies showed the substance to be more cytotoxic than titanium dioxide but less toxic than asbestos

In a small cohort mortality study of workers in a wollastonite quarry, the observed number of deaths from all cancers combined and lung cancer were lower than expected. Wollastonite is a calcium inosilicate mineral (CaSiO3). In some cases, small amounts of iron (Fe), and manganese (Mn), and lesser amounts of magnesium (Mg) substitute for calcium (Ca) in the mineral formulae (e.g., rhodonite)

In an inhalation study in rats no increase in tumour incidence was observed but the number of fibres with lengths exceeding 5 um and a diameter of less than 3 um was relatively low. Four grades of wollastonite of different fibre size were tested for carcinogenicity in one experiment in rats by intrapleural implantation. There was no information on the purity of the four samples used. A slight increase in the incidence of pleural sarcomas was observed with three grades, all of which contained fibres greater than 4 um in length and less than 0.5 um in diameter.

In two studies by intraperitoneal injection in rats using wollastonite with median fibre lengths of 8.1 um and 5.6 um respectively, no intra-abdominal tumours were found.

Evidence from wollastonite miners suggests that occupational exposure can cause impaired respiratory function and pneumoconiosis. However animal studies have demonstrated that wollastonite fibres have low biopersistence and induce a transient inflammatory response compared to various forms of asbestos. A two-year inhalation study in rats at one dose showed no significant inflammation or fibrosis

Cement contact dermatitis (CCD) may occur when contact shows an allergic response, which may progress to sensitisation. Sensitisation is due to soluble chromates (chromate compounds) present in trace amounts in some cements and cement products. Soluble chromates readily penetrate intact skin. Cement dermatitis can be characterised by fissures, eczematous rash, dystrophic nails, and dry skin; acute contact with highly alkaline mixtures may cause localised necrosis.

Cement eczema may be due to chromium in feed stocks or contamination from materials of construction used in processing the cement. Sensitisation to chromium may be the leading cause of nickel and cobalt sensitivity and the high alkalinity of cement is an important factor in cement dermatoses [ILO].

Repeated, prolonged severe inhalation exposure may cause pulmonary oedema and rarely, pulmonary fibrosis. Workers may also suffer from dust-induced bronchitis with chronic bronchitis reported in 17% of a group occupationally exposed to high dust

Respiratory symptoms and ventilatory function were studied in a group of 591 male Portland cement workers employed in four Taiwanese cement plants, with at least 5 years of exposure (1). This group had a significantly lowered mean forced vital capacity (FCV), forced expiratory volume at 1 s (FEV1) and forced expiratory flows after exhalation of 50% and 75% of the vital capacity (FEF50, FEF75). The data suggests that occupational exposure to Portland cement dust may lead to a higher incidence of chronic respiratory symptoms and a reduction of ventilatory capacity.

Chun-Yuh et al; Journal of Toxicology and Environmental Health 49: 581-588, 1996

Pure calcium carbonate does not produce pneumoconiosis probably being eliminated from the lungs slowly by solution. As mined, unsterilised particulates can carry bacteria into the air passages and lungs, producing infection and bronchitis. Overexposure to respirable dust may cause coughing, wheezing, difficulty in breathing and impaired lung function. Chronic symptoms may include decreased vital lung capacity, chest infections

Repeated exposures, in an occupational setting, to high levels of fine- divided dusts may produce a condition known as pneumoconiosis which is the lodgement of any inhaled dusts in the lung irrespective of the effect. This is particularly true when a significant number of particles less than 0.5 microns (1/50,000 inch), are present. Lung shadows are seen in the X-ray. Symptoms of pneumoconiosis may include a progressive dry cough, shortness of breath on exertion (exertional dyspnea), increased chest expansion, weakness and weight loss. As the disease progresses the cough produces a stringy mucous, vital capacity decreases further and shortness of breath becomes more severe. Other signs or symptoms include altered breath sounds, diminished lung capacity, diminished oxygen uptake during exercise, emphysema and pneumothorax (air in lung cavity) as a rare complication.

Removing workers from possibility of further exposure to dust generally leads to halting the progress of the lung abnormalities. Where worker-exposure potential is high, periodic examinations with emphasis on lung dysfunctions should be undertaken Dust inhalation over an extended number of years may produce pneumoconiosis.. Pneumoconiosis is the accumulation of dusts in the lungs and the tissue reaction in its presence. It is further classified as being of noncollagenous or collagenous types. Noncollagenous pneumoconiosis, the benign form, is identified by minimal stromal reaction, consists mainly of reticulin fibres, an intact alveolar architecture and is potentially reversible.

Chronic excessive iron exposure has been associated with haemosiderosis and consequent possible damage to the liver and pancreas. Haemosiderin is a golden-brown insoluble protein produced by phagocytic digestion of haematin (an iron-based pigment). Haemosiderin is found in most tissues, especially in the liver, in the form of granules. Other sites of haemosiderin deposition include the pancreas and skin. A related condition, haemochromatosis, which involves a disorder of metabolism of these deposits, may produce cirrhosis of the liver, diabetes, and bronze pigmentation of the skin - heart failure may eventually occur.

Such exposure may also produce conjunctivitis, choroiditis, retinitis (both inflammatory conditions involving the eye) and siderosis of tissues if iron remains in these tissues. Siderosis is a form of pneumoconiosis produced by iron dusts. Siderosis also includes discoloration of organs, excess circulating iron and degeneration of the retina, lens and uvea as a result of the deposition of intraocular iron. Siderosis might also involve the lungs - involvement rarely develops before ten years of regular exposure. Often there is an accompanying inflammatory reaction of the bronchi. Permanent scarring of the lungs does not normally occur.

High levels of iron may raise the risk of cancer. This concern stems from the theory that iron causes oxidative damage to tissues and organs by generating highly reactive chemicals, called free radicals, which subsequently react with DNA. Cells may be disrupted and may be become cancerous. People whose genetic disposition prevents them from keeping tight control over iron (e.g. those with the inherited disorder, haemochromatosis) may be at increased risk.

Iron overload in men may lead to diabetes, arthritis, liver cancer, heart irregularities and problems with other organs as iron builds up.

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[K. Schmidt, New Scientist, No. 1919 pp.11-12, 2nd April, 1994]

Prolonged or repeated skin contact may cause drying with cracking, irritation and possible dermatitis following.

Coharo Coatings –	TOXICITY	IRRITATION	
Concrete Finish - CF	Not Available	Not Available	
	TOXICITY	IRRITATION	
portland cement	Not Available	Not Available	
	TOXICITY	IRRITATION	
	dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg ^[1]	Eye (rabbit): 0.75 mg/24h - SEVERE	
calcium carbonate	Oral (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg ^[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]	
		Skin (rabbit): 500 mg/24h-moderate	
		Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]	
	TOXICITY	IRRITATION	
aluminium sulfate	Oral (rat) LD50: 1930 mg/kg ^[2]	Eye (rabbit): 10 mg/24h SEVERE	
	TOXICITY	IRRITATION	
silica crystalline - quartz	Oral (rat) LD50: =500 mg/kg ^[2]	Not Available	
Legend:	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		

PORTLAND CEMENT

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. No significant acute toxicological data identified in literature search.

CALCIUM CARBONATE

The material may produce severe irritation to the eye causing pronounced inflammation. Repeated or prolonged exposure to irritants may produce conjunctivitis.

No evidence of carcinogenic properties. No evidence of mutagenic or teratogenic effects.

The material may cause skin irritation after prolonged or repeated exposure and may produce a contact dermatitis (nonallergic). This form of dermatitis is often characterised by skin redness (erythema) and swelling the epidermis. Histologically there may be intercellular oedema of the spongy layer (spongiosis) and intracellular oedema of the epidermis.

Oral (rat) TDLo: 10138 mg/kg/8D-C

Exposure to the material may result in a possible risk of irreversible effects. The material may produce mutagenic effects in man. This concern is raised, generally, on the basis of

appropriate studies using mammalian somatic cells in vivo. Such findings are often supported by positive results from in vitro mutagenicity studies.

For 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).

ALUMINIUM SULFATE

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

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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.

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 iseases. 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

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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 sensitisers 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

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

WARNING: For inhalation exposure <u>ONLY</u>: This substance has been classified by the IARC as Group 1: **CARCINOGENIC TO HUMANS**

SILICA CRYSTALLINE -QUARTZ

Version No: 3.1.1.1

The International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) has classified occupational exposures to **respirable** (<5 um) crystalline silica as being carcinogenic to humans. This classification is based on what IARC considered sufficient evidence from epidemiological studies of humans for the carcinogenicity of inhaled silica in the forms of quartz and cristobalite. Crystalline silica is also known to cause silicosis, a non-cancerous lung disease.

Intermittent exposure produces; focal fibrosis, (pneumoconiosis), cough, dyspnoea, liver tumours.

* Millions of particles per cubic foot (based on impinger samples counted by light field techniques).

NOTE: the physical nature of quartz in the product determines whether it is likely to present a chronic health problem. To be a hazard the material must enter the breathing zone as respirable particles.

PORTLAND CEMENT & CALCIUM CARBONATE & ALUMINIUM SULFATE

Asthma-like symptoms may continue for months or even years after exposure to the material ceases. This may be due to a non-allergenic condition known as reactive airways dysfunction syndrome (RADS) which can occur following exposure to high levels of highly irritating compound. Key criteria for the diagnosis of RADS include the absence of preceding respiratory disease, in a non-atopic individual, with abrupt onset of persistent asthma-like symptoms within minutes to hours of a documented exposure to the irritant. A reversible airflow pattern, on spirometry, with the presence of moderate to severe bronchial hyperreactivity on methacholine challenge testing and the lack of minimal lymphocytic inflammation, without eosinophilia, have also been included in the criteria for diagnosis of RADS. RADS (or asthma) following an irritating inhalation is an infrequent disorder with rates related to the concentration of and duration of exposure to the irritating substance. Industrial bronchitis, on the other hand, is a disorder that occurs as result of exposure due to high concentrations of irritating substance (often particulate in nature) and is completely reversible after exposure ceases. The disorder is characterised by dyspnea, cough and mucus production.

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

Coharo Coatings – Concrete Finish - CF	ENDPOINT TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE SOURCE
	Not Available Available	Not Available	Not Not Available Available
portland cement	ENDPOINT TEST DURATION (HR)	SPECIES	VALUE SOURCE
	Not Available Available	Not Available	Not Not Available Available

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Legend:	3. EPIWIN Su	n 1. IUCLID Toxicity Data 2. Europe ite V3.12 (QSAR) - Aquatic Toxicity atic Hazard Assessment Data 6. NI	Data (Esti	imated) 4. US EPA, Ecotox datab	ase - Aq	uatic Toxicity Da	ata 5.
silica crystalline - quartz	Not Available	Not Available		! Not Available		Not Available	
	ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)		SPECIES		VALUE	SOURCE
	NOEC	720	Cru	ustacea	0.264mg/L 0.001-0.092mg/L	2	
	BCF	1080	Fis	Fish 0.2		64mg/L	4
aluminium sulfate	EC50	72	Alg	Algae or other aquatic plants >10		00mg/L	2
	EC50	48	Cru	Crustacea 0		22mg/L	4
	LC50	96	Fis	Fish >0		.42mg/L	2
	ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)	SP	ECIES	VAI	LUE	SOURCE
	NOEC	72	-	Algae or other aquatic plants	!	14mg/L	2
calcium carbonate	EC10	72		Algae or other aquatic plants	- 1	>14mg/L	2
	EC50	72		Algae or other aquatic plants		>14mg/L	2
	LC50	96		Fish		>56000mg/L	4
	ENDPOINT	TEST DURATION (HR)		SPECIES	į	VALUE	SOURCE

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.

Chromium in the oxidation state +3 (the trivalent form) is poorly absorbed by cells found in microorganisms, plants and animals. Chromate anions (CrO4-, oxidation state +6, the hexavalent form) are readily transported into cells and toxicity is closely linked to the higher oxidation state.

Chromium Ecotoxicology:

Toxicity in Aquatic Organisms:

Chromium is harmful to aquatic organisms in very low concentrations. Fish food organisms are very sensitive to low levels of chromium. Chromium is toxic to fish although less so in warm water. Marked decreases in toxicity are found with increasing pH or water hardness; changes in salinity have little if any effect. Chromium appears to make fish more susceptible to infection. High concentrations can damage and/or accumulate in various fish tissues and in invertebrates such as snails and worms.

Reproduction of Daphnia is affected by exposure to 0.01 mg/kg hexavalent chromium/litre

Toxicity of chromium in fresh-water organisms (50% mortality)*

Compound	Category	Exposure	Toxicity Range (mg/litre)	Most sensitive species
hexavalent chrome	invertebrate	acute	0.067-59.9	scud
		long-term	-	-
	vertebrate	acute	17.6-249	fathead minnow
		long-term	0.265-2.0	rainbow trout
trivalent chrome	invertebrate	acute	2.0-64.0	cladoceran
		long-term	0.066	cladoceran
	vertebrate	acute	33.0-71.9	guppy
	invertebrate	long-term	1.0	fathead minnow

^{*} from Environmental Health Criteria 61: WHO Publication.

Toxicity in Microorganisms:

In general, toxicity for most microorganisms occurs in the range of 0.05-5 mg chromium/kg of medium. Trivalent chromium is less toxic than the hexavalent form. The main signs of toxicity are inhibition of growth and the inhibition of various metabolic processes such as photosynthesis or protein synthesis. Gram-negative

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soil bacteria are generally more sensitive to hexavalent chromium (1-12 mg/kg) than the gram-positive types. Toxicity to trivalent chromium is not observed at similar levels. The toxicity of low levels of hexavalent chromium (1 mg/kg) indicates that soil microbial transformation, such as nitrification, may be affected. Chromium should not be introduced to municipal sewage treatment facilities.

Toxicity in Plants: Chromium in high concentrations can be toxic for plants. The main feature of chromium intoxication is chlorosis, which is similar to iron deficiency. Chromium affects carbohydrate metabolism and leaf chlorophyll concentration decreases with hexavalent chromium concentration (0.01-1 mg/l). The hexavalent form appears to more toxic than the trivalent species.

Biological half-life: The elimination curve for chromium, as measured by whole-body counting, has an exponential form. In rats, three different components of the curve have been identified, with half-lives of 0.5, 5.9 and 83.4 days, respectively.

Water Standards: Chromium is identified as a hazardous substance in the Federal (U.S.) Water Pollution Control Act and further regulated by Clean Air Water Act Amendments (US). These regulations apply to discharge. The US Primary drinking water Maximum Contaminant Level (MCL), for chromium, is 0.05 mg/l (total chromium).

Since chromium compounds cannot volatilize from water, transport of chromium from water to the atmosphere is not likely, except by transport in windblown sea sprays. Most of the chromium released into water will ultimately be deposited in the sediment. A very small percentage of chromium can be present in water in both soluble and insoluble forms. Soluble chromium generally accounts for a very small percentage of the total chromium. Most of the soluble chromium is present as chromium(VI) and soluble chromium(III) complexes. In the aquatic phase, chromium(III) occurs mostly as suspended solids adsorbed onto clayish materials, organics, or iron oxide (Fe2O3) present in water. Soluble forms and suspended chromium can undergo intramedia transport. Chromium(VI) in water will eventually be reduced to chromium(III) by organic matter in the water.

The reduction of chromium(VI) and the oxidation of chromium(III) in water has been investigated. The reduction of chromium(VI) by S-2 or Fe+2 ions under anaerobic conditions was fast, and the reduction half-life ranged from instantaneous to a few days. However, the reduction of chromium(VI) by organic sediments and soils was much slower and depended on the type and amount of organic material and on the redox condition of the water. The reaction was generally faster under anaerobic than aerobic conditions. The reduction half-life of chromium(VI) in water with soil and sediment ranged from 4 to 140 day. Dissolved oxygen by itself in natural waters did not cause any measurable oxidation of chromium(III) to chromium(VI) in 128 days. When chromium(III) was added to lake water, a slow oxidation of chromium(III) to chromium(VI) occurred, corresponding to an oxidation half-life of nine years. The oxidation of chromium(III) to chromium(VI) during chlorination of water was highest in the pH range of 5.5?6.0. However, the process would rarely occur during chlorination of drinking water because of the low concentrations of chromium(III) in these waters, and the presence of naturally occurring organics that may protect chromium(III) from oxidation, either by forming strong complexes with chromium(IIII) or by acting as a reducing agent to free available chlorine.

The bioconcentration factor (BCF) for chromium(VI) in rainbow trout (Salmo gairdneri) is 1. In bottom feeder bivalves, such as the oyster (Crassostrea virginica), blue mussel (Mytilus edulis), and soft shell clam (Mya arenaria), the BCF values for chromium(III) and chromium(VI) may range from 86 to 192. The bioavailability of chromium(III) to freshwater invertebrates (Daphnia pulex) decreased with the addition of humic acid. This decrease in bioavailability was attributed to lower availability of the free form of the metal due to its complexation with humic acid. Based on this information, chromium is not expected to biomagnify in the aquatic food chain. Although higher concentrations of chromium have been reported in plants growing in high chromium-containing soils (e.g., soil near ore deposits or chromium-emitting industries and soil fertilized by sewage sludge) compared with plants growing in normal soils, most of the increased uptake in plants is retained in roots, and only a small fraction is translocated in the aboveground part of edible plants. Therefore, bioaccumulation of chromium from soil

to above-ground parts of plants is unlikely. There is no indication of biomagnification of chromium along the terrestrial food chain (soil-plant-animal). The fate of chromium in soil is greatly dependent upon the speciation of chromium, which is a function of redox potential and the pH of the soil. In most soils, chromium will be present predominantly in the chromium(III) state. This form has very low solubility and low reactivity resulting in low mobility in the environment and low toxicity in living organisms. Under oxidizing conditions chromium(VI) may be present in soil as CrO4?2 and HCrO4-. In this form, chromium is relatively soluble, mobile, and toxic to living organisms. In deeper soil where anaerobic conditions exist, chromium(VI) will be reduced to chromium(III) by S-2 and Fe+2 present in soil. The reduction of chromium(VI) to chromium(III) is possible in aerobic soils that contain appropriate organic energy sources to carry out the redox reaction. The reduction of chromium(VI) to chromium(III) is facilitated by low pH. From thermodynamic considerations, chromium(VI) may exist in the aerobic zone of some natural soil. The oxidation of chromium(III) to chromium(VI) in soil is facilitated by the presence of low oxidisable organic substances, oxygen, manganese dioxide, and moisture. Organic forms of chromium(III) (e.g., humic acid complexes) are more easily oxidised than insoluble oxides. Because most chromium(III) in soil is immobilized due to adsorption and complexation with soil materials, the barrier to this oxidation process is the lack of availability of mobile chromium(III) to immobile manganese dioxide in soil surfaces. Due to this lack of availability of mobile chromium(III) to manganese dioxide surfaces, a large portion of chromium in soil will not be oxidized to chromium(VI), even in the presence of manganese dioxide and favorable pH conditions.

The microbial reduction of chromium(VI) to chromium(III) has been discussed as a possible remediation technique in heavily contaminated environmental media or wastes. Factors affecting the microbial reduction of chromium(VI) to chromium(III) include biomass concentration, initial chromium(VI) concentration, temperature, pH, carbon source, oxidation-reduction potential and the presence of both oxyanions and metal cations. Although high levels of chromium(VI) are toxic to most microbes, several resistant bacterial species have been identified which could ultimately be employed in remediation strategies

Chromium in soil is present mainly as insoluble oxide Cr2O3. nH2O, and is not very mobile in soil. A leachability study was conducted to study the mobility of chromium in soil. Due to differentpH values, a complicated adsorption process was observed and chromium moved only slightly in soil.

Chromium was not found in the leachate from soil, possibly because it formed complexes with organic matter. These results support previous data finding that chromium is not very mobile in soil. These results are supported by leachability investigation in which chromium mobility was studied for a period of 4 years in a sandy loam. The vertical migration pattern of chromium in this soil indicated that after an initial period of mobility, chromium forms insoluble complexes and little leaching is observed. Flooding of soils and the subsequent anaerobic decomposition of plant detritus matters may increase the mobilization of chromium(III) in soils due to formation of soluble complexes. This complexation may be facilitated by a lower soil pH. A smaller percentage of total chromium in soil exists as soluble chromium(VI) and chromium(III), which are more mobile in soil. The mobility of soluble chromium in soil will depend on the sorption characteristics of the soil. The relative retention of metals by soil is in the order of lead > antimony > copper > chromium > zinc > nickel > cobalt > cadmium. The sorption of chromium to soil depends primarily on the clay content of the soil and, to a lesser extent, on Fe2O3 and the organic content of soil. Chromium that is irreversibly sorbed onto soil, for example, in the interstitial lattice of geothite, FeOOH, will not be bioavailable to plants and animals under any condition. Organic matter in soil is expected to convert soluble chromate, chromium(VI), to insoluble chromium(III) oxide, Cr2O3. Chromium in soil may be transported to the atmosphere as an aerosol. Surface runoff from soil can transport both soluble and bulk precipitate of chromium(VI) in the soil increases as the pH of the soil increases. On the other hand, lower pH present in acid rain may facilitate leaching of acid-soluble chromium(III) and chromium(VI) compounds in soil.

Chromium has a low mobility for translocation from roots to aboveground parts of plants. However, depending on the geographical areas where the plants are grown, the concentration of chromium in aerial parts of certain plants may differ by a factor of 2?3.

In the atmosphere, chromium(VI) may be reduced to chromium(III) at a significant rate by vanadium (V2+, V3+, and VO2+), Fe2+, HSO3-, and As3+. Conversely, chromium(III), if present as a salt other than Cr2O3, may be oxidized to chromium(VI) in the atmosphere in the presence of at least 1% manganese oxide.. However, this reaction is unlikely under most environmental conditions. The estimated atmospheric half-life for chromium(VI) reduction to chromium(III) was

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reported in the range of 16 hours to about 5 days **DO NOT** discharge into sewer or waterways.

Persistence and degradability

Ingredient	Persistence: Water/Soil	Persistence: Air
aluminium sulfate	HIGH	HIGH

Bioaccumulative potential

Ingredient	Bioaccumulation	
aluminium sulfate	LOW (LogKOW = -2.2002)	

Mobility in soil

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Ingredient	Mobility	
aluminium sulfate	LOW (KOC = 6.124)	

SECTION 13 DISPOSAL CONSIDERATIONS

Waste treatment methods

Product / Packaging

disposal

- ▶ Containers may still present a chemical hazard/ danger when empty.
- ► Return to supplier for reuse/ recycling if possible.

Otherwise:

- 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.

Legislation addressing waste disposal requirements may differ by country, state and/ or territory. Each user must refer to laws operating in their area. In some areas, certain wastes must be tracked.

A Hierarchy of Controls seems to be common - the user should investigate:

- ► Reduction
- ► Reuse
- ► Recycling
- ► Disposal (if all else fails)

This material may be recycled if unused, or if it has not been contaminated so as to make it unsuitable for its intended use. 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. In most instances the supplier of the material should be consulted.

- ▶ 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.

SECTION 14 TRANSPORT INFORMATION

Labels Required

Marine Pollutant	NO
HAZCHEM	Not Applicable

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

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

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

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

Not Applicable

SECTION 15 REGULATORY INFORMATION

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

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PORTLAND CEMENT IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Inventory of Chemical Substances (AICS)

CALCIUM CARBONATE IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Inventory of Chemical Substances (AICS)

ALUMINIUM SULFATE IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Hazardous Chemical Information System (HCIS) - Hazardous Chemicals

Australia Inventory of Chemical Substances (AICS)

SILICA CRYSTALLINE - QUARTZ IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Hazardous Chemical Information System (HCIS) - Hazardous Chemicals

International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) - Agents Classified by the IARC Monographs

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 - Group 1 : Carcinogenic to humans

National Inventory Status

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

SECTION 16 OTHER INFORMATION

Revision Date	01/11/2019
Initial Date	30/08/2018

SDS Version Summary

Version	Issue Date	Sections Updated
3.1.1.1	01/11/2019	One-off system update. NOTE: This may or may not change the GHS classification

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

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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

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