Carbon & Alloy Steel Flux Cored

Welding Guns of Australia Pty Ltd

Chemwatch Hazard Alert Code: **2**

Chemwatch: **5236-24**
Version No: **2.1.1.1**
Safety Data Sheet according to WHS and ADG requirements

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

Product Identifier

Product name	Carbon & Alloy Steel Flux Cored
Synonyms	70T-1, 70T-4, 71T-1, 71T-1LF, 71TC, 71TMJ, 71T1C02, Superflow 71-T, Superflow AP-CO-2, SUPERFLOW ULTRA, Superflow 71TM, 71T-12MJ, 71T-1M/1C, Eagle-Arc 71T-1C/1M, Eagle-Arc 71T-9C/9M, Eagle-Arc 71T-12C/12M, Eagle-Arc 71, 71T-11, 71T-GS, 80T1-A1, 80T5-B3L, 80T5-B6, 81T-Ni2, 81T1-1 Ni1, 81T1-A1, 81T1-B2, 81T1-B8L, 81T1- W2, 91T1-B3, 91T1-K2, 110T-K3, 91T1-B9, 110T1-K3, 110T5-K4M, 110C-G, E70C-3C, E70C-3M, E70C-6C, E70C-6M, Eagle-Arc 70C-6M
Other means of identification	Not Available

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

Relevant identified uses	Flux Cored Arc Welding.

Details of the supplier of the safety data sheet

Registered company name	Welding Guns of Australia Pty Ltd
Address	112 Christina Road Villawood NSW 2163 Australia
Telephone	+61 2 9780 4200
Fax	Not Available
Website	Not Available
Email	sales@unimig.com.au

Emergency telephone number

Association / Organisation	Not Available
Emergency telephone numbers	1800 039 008 (24 hours)
Other emergency telephone numbers	+61 3 9573 3112 (24 hours)

SECTION 2 HAZARDS IDENTIFICATION

Classification of the substance or mixture

Poisons Schedule	Not Applicable
Classification [1]	Acute Toxicity (Inhalation) Category 4, Carcinogenicity Category 2, Specific target organ toxicity - repeated exposure Category 2
Legend:	*1. Classified by Chemwatch; 2. Classification drawn from HSIS ; 3. Classification drawn from EC Directive 1272/2008 - Annex VI*

Label elements

GHS label elements	
SIGNAL WORD	**WARNING**

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Hazard statement(s)

H332	Harmful if inhaled.
H351	Suspected of causing cancer.
H373	May cause damage to organs through prolonged or repeated exposure.

Precautionary statement(s) Prevention

P201	Obtain special instructions before use.
P260	Do not breathe dust/fume/gas/mist/vapours/spray.
P271	Use only outdoors or in a well-ventilated area.
P281	Use personal protective equipment as required.

Precautionary statement(s) Response

P308+P313	IF exposed or concerned: Get medical advice/attention.
P312	Call a POISON CENTER or doctor/physician if you feel unwell.
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.

Precautionary statement(s) Disposal

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

SECTION 3 COMPOSITION / INFORMATION ON INGREDIENTS

Substances

See section below for composition of Mixtures

Mixtures

CAS No	%[weight]	Name
		carbon & alloy steel flux core, in use generates
Not avail.	>60	welding fumes
		as
1309-37-1.		iron oxide fume
7439-96-5.		manganese fume
69012-64-2		silica welding fumes
7429-90-5.		aluminium fumes
7439-98-7		molybdenum fume
7440-50-8.		copper fume
7440-02-0		nickel fume
7440-47-3		chromium fume
13463-67-7		titanium dioxide
124-38-9		carbon dioxide
630-08-0		carbon monoxide
10028-15-6		ozone
10102-44-0		nitrogen dioxide

SECTION 4 FIRST AID MEASURES

Description of first aid measures

Eye Contact	If this product comes in contact with the eyes: ▸ Wash out immediately with fresh 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. ▸ Seek medical attention without delay; if pain persists or recurs seek medical attention.

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	▸ Removal of contact lenses after an eye injury should only be undertaken by skilled personnel. ▸ Particulate bodies from welding spatter may be removed carefully. ▸ **DO NOT** attempt to remove particles attached to or embedded in eye. ▸ Lay victim down, on stretcher if available and pad **BOTH** eyes, make sure dressing does not press on the injured eye by placing thick pads under dressing, above and below the eye. ▸ Seek urgent medical assistance, or transport to hospital. ▸ For "arc eye", i.e. welding flash or UV light burns to the eye: ▸ Place eye pads or light clean dressings over both eyes. ▸ Seek medical assistance. For THERMAL burns: ▸ Do NOT remove contact lens ▸ Lay victim down, on stretcher if available and pad **BOTH** eyes, make sure dressing does not press on the injured eye by placing thick pads under dressing, above and below the eye. ▸ Seek urgent medical assistance, or transport to hospital.
Skin Contact	If skin or hair contact occurs: ▸ Flush skin and hair with running water (and soap if available). ▸ Seek medical attention in event of irritation. For thermal burns: ▸ Decontaminate area around burn. ▸ Consider the use of cold packs and topical antibiotics. For first-degree burns (affecting top layer of skin) ▸ Hold burned skin under cool (not cold) running water or immerse in cool water until pain subsides. ▸ Use compresses if running water is not available. ▸ Cover with sterile non-adhesive bandage or clean cloth. ▸ Do NOT apply butter or ointments; this may cause infection. ▸ Give over-the counter pain relievers if pain increases or swelling, redness, fever occur. For second-degree burns (affecting top two layers of skin) ▸ Cool the burn by immerse in cold running water for 10-15 minutes. ▸ Use compresses if running water is not available. ▸ Do NOT apply ice as this may lower body temperature and cause further damage. ▸ Do NOT break blisters or apply butter or ointments; this may cause infection. ▸ Protect burn by cover loosely with sterile, nonstick bandage and secure in place with gauze or tape. To prevent shock: (unless the person has a head, neck, or leg injury, or it would cause discomfort): ▸ Lay the person flat. ▸ Elevate feet about 12 inches. ▸ Elevate burn area above heart level, if possible. ▸ Cover the person with coat or blanket. ▸ Seek medical assistance. For third-degree burns Seek immediate medical or emergency assistance. In the mean time: ▸ Protect burn area cover loosely with sterile, nonstick bandage or, for large areas, a sheet or other material that will not leave lint in wound. ▸ Separate burned toes and fingers with dry, sterile dressings. ▸ Do not soak burn in water or apply ointments or butter; this may cause infection. ▸ To prevent shock see above. ▸ For an airway burn, do not place pillow under the person's head when the person is lying down. This can close the airway. ▸ Have a person with a facial burn sit up. ▸ Check pulse and breathing to monitor for shock until emergency help arrives. ▸ Generally not applicable.
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. ▸ Generally not applicable.
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. ▸ Generally not applicable.

Indication of any immediate medical attention and special treatment needed

Copper, magnesium, aluminium, antimony, iron, manganese, nickel, zinc (and their compounds) in welding, brazing, galvanising or smelting operations all

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give rise to thermally produced particulates of smaller dimension than may be produced if the metals are divided mechanically. Where insufficient ventilation or respiratory protection is available these particulates may produce "metal fume fever" in workers from an acute or long term exposure.

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

[Ellenhorn and Barceloux: Medical Toxicology]

SECTION 5 FIREFIGHTING MEASURES

Extinguishing media

- 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. Slight hazard when exposed to heat, flame and oxidisers.
Fire/Explosion Hazard	Articles and manufactured articles may constitute a fire hazard where polymers form their outer layers or where combustible packaging remains in place. Certain substances, found throughout their construction, may degrade or become volatile when heated to high temperatures. This may create a secondary hazard. Welding arc and metal sparks can ignite combustibles. May emit poisonous fumes. May emit corrosive fumes.
HAZCHEM	Not Applicable

SECTION 6 ACCIDENTAL RELEASE MEASURES

Personal precautions, protective equipment and emergency procedures

See section 8

Environmental precautions

See section 12

Methods and material for containment and cleaning up

Minor Spills	▸ Clean up all spills immediately. ▸ Secure load if safe to do so. ▸ Bundle/collect recoverable product. ▸ Collect remaining material in containers with covers for disposal.
Major Spills	▸ Clean up all spills immediately. ▸ Wear protective clothing, safety glasses, dust mask, gloves. ▸ Secure load if safe to do so. Bundle/collect recoverable product. ▸ Use dry clean up procedures and avoid generating dust. ▸ Vacuum up (consider explosion-proof machines designed to be grounded during storage and use). ▸ Water may be used to prevent dusting. ▸ Collect remaining material in containers with covers for disposal. ▸ Flush spill area with water.

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

SECTION 7 HANDLING AND STORAGE

Precautions for safe handling

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. ‣ 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	‣ Store away from incompatible materials.

Conditions for safe storage, including any incompatibilities

Suitable container	Generally packaging as originally supplied with the article or manufactured item is sufficient to protect against physical hazards. If repackaging is required ensure the article is intact and does not show signs of wear. As far as is practicably possible, reuse the original packaging or something providing a similar level of protection to both the article and the handler.
Storage incompatibility	Welding electrodes should not be allowed to come into contact with strong acids or other substances which are corrosive to metals. ‣ WARNING: Avoid or control reaction with peroxides. All *transition metal* peroxides should be considered as potentially explosive. For example transition metal complexes of alkyl hydroperoxides may decompose explosively. ‣ The pi-complexes formed between chromium(0), vanadium(0) and other transition metals (haloarene-metal complexes) and mono-or poly-fluorobenzene show extreme sensitivity to heat and are explosive. ‣ Avoid reaction with borohydrides or cyanoborohydrides ‣ Incidents involving interaction of active oxidants and reducing agents, either by design or accident, are usually very energetic and examples of so-called redox reactions.

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	welding fumes	Welding fumes (not otherwise classified)	5 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	iron oxide fume	Iron oxide fume (Fe2O3) (as Fe)	5 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	manganese fume	Manganese, fume (as Mn)	1 mg/m3	3 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	silica welding fumes	Silica - Amorphous: Fume (thermally generated)(respirable dust)	2 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	aluminium fumes	Aluminium (metal dust) / Aluminium (welding fumes) (as Al) / Aluminium, pyro powders (as Al)	10 mg/m3 / 5 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	copper fume	Copper (fume) / Copper, dusts & mists (as Cu)	0.2 mg/m3 / 1 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	nickel fume	Nickel, metal	1 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Sen
Australia Exposure Standards	chromium fume	Chromium (metal)	0.5 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available

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Australia Exposure Standards	titanium dioxide	Titanium dioxide	10 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	carbon dioxide	Carbon dioxide / Carbon dioxide in coal mines	9000 mg/m3 / 22500 mg/m3 / 5000 ppm / 12500 ppm	54000 mg/m3 / 30000 ppm	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	carbon monoxide	Carbon monoxide	34 mg/m3 / 30 ppm	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	ozone	Ozone	Not Available	Not Available	0.2 mg/m3 / 0.1 ppm	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	nitrogen dioxide	Nitrogen dioxide	5.6 mg/m3 / 3 ppm	9.4 mg/m3 / 5 ppm	Not Available	Not Available

EMERGENCY LIMITS

Ingredient	Material name	TEEL-1	TEEL-2	TEEL-3
iron oxide fume	Iron oxide; (Ferric oxide)	15 mg/m3	360 mg/m3	2,200 mg/m3
manganese fume	Manganese	3 mg/m3	5 mg/m3	1,800 mg/m3
silica welding fumes	Silica, amorphous fume	45 mg/m3	500 mg/m3	3,000 mg/m3
molybdenum fume	Molybdenum	30 mg/m3	330 mg/m3	2,000 mg/m3
copper fume	Copper	3 mg/m3	33 mg/m3	200 mg/m3
nickel fume	Nickel	4.5 mg/m3	50 mg/m3	99 mg/m3
chromium fume	Chromium	1.5 mg/m3	17 mg/m3	99 mg/m3
titanium dioxide	Titanium oxide; (Titanium dioxide)	30 mg/m3	330 mg/m3	2,000 mg/m3
carbon dioxide	Carbon dioxide	30,000 ppm	40,000 ppm	50,000 ppm
carbon monoxide	Carbon monoxide	75 ppm	Not Available	Not Available
ozone	Ozone	0.24 ppm	1 ppm	10 ppm
nitrogen dioxide	Nitrogen dioxide	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
nitrogen dioxide	Nitrogen tetroxide	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available

Ingredient	Original IDLH	Revised IDLH
welding fumes	Not Available	Not Available
iron oxide fume	N.E. mg/m3 / N.E. ppm	2,500 mg/m3
manganese fume	N.E. mg/m3 / N.E. ppm	500 mg/m3
silica welding fumes	Not Available	Not Available
aluminium fumes	Not Available	Not Available
molybdenum fume	N.E. mg/m3 / N.E. ppm	5,000 mg/m3
copper fume	N.E. mg/m3 / N.E. ppm	100 mg/m3
nickel fume	N.E. mg/m3 / N.E. ppm	10 mg/m3
chromium fume	N.E. mg/m3 / N.E. ppm	250 mg/m3
titanium dioxide	N.E. mg/m3 / N.E. ppm	5,000 mg/m3
carbon dioxide	50,000 ppm	40,000 ppm
carbon monoxide	1,500 ppm	1,200 ppm
ozone	10 ppm	5 ppm
nitrogen dioxide	50 ppm	20 ppm

MATERIAL DATA

Ceiling values were recommended for manganese and compounds in earlier publications. As manganese is a chronic toxin a TWA is considered more appropriate. Because workers exposed to fume exhibited manganism at air-borne concentrations below those that affect workers exposed to dust a lower value has been proposed to provide an extra margin of safety. This value is still above that experienced by two workers exposed to manganese fume in the course of one study.
An increased incidence of non-specific symptoms including headache, weakness, fatigue, anorexia and joint and muscle weakness has been reported to occur in mining and metallurgy workers exposed to 60-600 mg (as Mo). Some investigators have attributed gout and elevated uric acid concentration found in some Armenians to result from exposures to Armenian soils rich in molybdenum, whilst exposure has been implicated as a cause of bone disease amongst Indians. "These involvements are speculative". [US National Research Council]. As far as it is known, the recommended TLV-TWA incorporates a large margin of safety against potential pulmonary or systemic effects.
NOTE: Detector tubes for nickel, measuring in excess of 0.25 mg/m3 (as Ni) are commercially available.
Use control measures / protective gear to avoid personal contact. Animal inhalation studies with insoluble nickel dusts (other than nickel sulfide) at concentrations of 1 to 3 mg/m3 show no difference in respiratory cancer between exposed and control animals.
These studies do not provide evidence that there is no excess risk of lung and nasal cancer - in view of limited exposure data and the absence of

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guidance for a TLV based on epidemiological studies of nickel induced respiratory tract cancer, it has been necessary to incorporate the results of animal studies that have demonstrated the production of pulmonary pathology. These studies have shown consistent pulmonary damage following inhalation of 0.1 to 1 mg/m3 insoluble inorganic nickel compounds. Individuals who may be hypersusceptible or otherwise unusually responsive to industrial chemicals may not be adequately protected against adverse health effects from nickel or its compounds at concentrations below the recommended or proposed TLV.
for welding fume:
In addition to complying with any individual exposure standards for specific contaminants, where current manual welding processes are used, the fume concentration inside the welder's helmet **should not** exceed 5 mg/m3, when collected in accordance with the appropriate standard (AS 3640, for example).
ES* TWA: 5 mg/m3
TLV* TWA: 5 mg/m3, B2 (a substance of variable composition)
OES* TWA: 5 mg/m3
Most welding, even with primitive ventilation, does not produce exposures inside the welding helmet above 5 mg/m3. That which does should be controlled (ACGIH). Inspirable dust concentrations in a worker's breathing zone shall be collected and measured in accordance with AS 3640, for example. Metal content can be analytically determined by OSHA Method ID25 (ICP-AES) after total digestion of filters and dissolution of captured metals. Sampling of the Respirable Dust fraction requires cyclone separator devices (elutriators) and procedures to comply with AS 2985 (for example).
During use the gases nitric oxide, nitrogen peroxide and ozone may be produced by the consumption of the electrode or the action of the welding arc on the atmosphere.
NOTE: Detector tubes for carbon monoxide, measuring in excess of 2 ppm, are commercially available for detection of carbon monoxide.
200 ppm carbon monoxide in air will produce headache, mental dullness and dizziness in a few hours; 600 ppm will produce identical symptoms in less than half and hour and may produce unconsciousness in 1.5 hours; 4000 ppm is fatal in less than an hour.
The TLV-TWA and STEL is recommended to keep blood carboxyhaemoglobin (CoHb) levels below 3.5% in workers so as to prevent adverse neurobehavioural changes and to maintain cardiovascular exercise. Earlier recommendations did not take into account heavy labour, high temperature, high elevations (over 5000 feet above sea level), adverse effects on pregnant workers (i.e. the foetus) and the effects on those with chronic heart and respiratory disease. Workers who smoke frequently have CoHb saturations above 3.5%.
Coburn et al have calculated the time needed to reach 3.5% CoHb at various carbon monoxide exposures.

Carbon Monoxide Concentration (ppm)	Work Load (time in minutes)		
	Sedentary	Light	Moderate
50	191	102	87
75	171	62	53
100	86	46	39
150	58	31	27
200	46	24	21
300	34	18	15
500	24	13	11
1000	18	10	8

Work Load is defined in terms of alveolar ventilation as:

Work Load	Ventilation (l/min)
Sedentary	6
Light	15
Moderate	20

Coburn, R.F.: Foster, R.E.: Kane, P.B.: Considerations of the Physiological Variables that Determine the Carboxyhaemoglobin Concentration in Man. J. Clin Invest. 44(1):1899-1910 (1965)
Odour Safety Factor(OSF)
OSF=0.00025 (CARBON MONOXIDE)
for ozone:
NOTE: Detector tubes for ozone, measuring in excess of 0.05 ppm, are commercially available.
Exposure at 0.2 ppm appears to produce mild acute but not cumulative effects. It is thought that exposures of the order of 0.1 ppm will be tolerated by most workers including asthmatics. Chronic exposure at 0.1 ppm or more can induce significant adverse effects in the lower respiratory tract of both normal and atopic individuals.
Human exposure for 2 hours at an average concentration of 1.5 ppm ozone resulted in a 20% reduction in timed vital capacity of the lung and other effects. Concentrations of ozone in excess of a few tenths ppm cause occasional discomfort to exposed individuals manifest as headache, dryness of the throat and mucous membranes of the eyes and nose following exposures of short duration.
Exposure to ozone during moderate to heavy work loads results in significantly decreased forced vital capacity (FVC) and forced expiratory volume in one second (FEV1) at 0.12 ppm; this is effect is greater at higher concentrations.
Odour Safety Factor(OSF)
OSF=1.1 (OZONE)
For nitric oxide:
Odour Threshold: 0.3 to 1 ppm.
NOTE: Detector tubes for nitrogen oxide, measuring in excess of 10 ppm, are commercially available.
Experimental animal date indicates that nitric oxide is one-fifth as toxic as nitrogen dioxide. The recommended TLV-TWA takes account of this relationship.
Exposure at or below the recommended TLV-TWA is thought to reduce the potential for immediate injury, adverse physiological effects, pulmonary disease (including the risk of increased airway resistance) from prolonged daily exposure
Odour Safety Factor (OSF)
OSF=7.7 (nitric oxide)

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
Animals exposed by inhalation to 10 mg/m3 titanium dioxide show no significant fibrosis, possibly reversible tissue reaction. The architecture of lung air spaces remains intact.

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For amorphous crystalline silica (precipitated silicic acid):
Amorphous crystalline silica shows little potential for producing adverse effects on the lung and exposure standards should reflect a particulate of low intrinsic toxicity. Mixtures of amorphous silicas/ diatomaceous earth and crystalline silica should be monitored as if they comprise only the crystalline forms.
The dusts from precipitated silica and silica gel produce little adverse effect on pulmonary functions and are not known to produce significant disease or toxic effect.
IARC has classified silica, amorphous as Group 3: **NOT** classifiable as to its carcinogenicity to humans.
Evidence of carcinogenicity may be inadequate or limited in animal testing.
for nitrogen dioxide
Odour Threshold Value: 0.11-0.14 ppm
NOTE: Detector tubes for nitrogen dioxide, measuring in excess of 0.5 ppm, are commercially available.
The TLV-TWA is considered to be sufficiently low to reduce the potential for immediate injury or adverse physiological effects from prolonged daily exposures. Although industrial data may contradict this conclusion, this data is not sufficiently precise to invalidate the TLV.
Short exposures of workmen to nitrogen dioxide concentrations averaging 25 to 38 ppm resulted in observable physiological response, but exposures of 3 to 5 minutes at 80 ppm produced tightness of the chest.
Odour Safety Factor (OSF)
OSF=7.7 (NITROGEN DIOXIDE)
For carbon dioxide:
NOTE: Detector tubes for carbon dioxide, measuring in excess of 0.01 % vol.,are commercially available. Long-term measurements (4 hrs) may be conducted to detect concentrations exceeding 250 ppm.
Studies using physically fit males in confined spaces indicate the TLV-TWA and STEL provides a wide margin of safety against asphyxiation and from undue metabolic stress, provided normal amounts of oxygen are present in inhaled air. Lowered oxygen content, increased physical activity and prolonged exposures each impact on systemic and respiratory effects.
Stimulation of the respiratory centre is produced at 50,000 ppm (5%). The gas is weakly narcotic at 30,000 ppm giving rise to reduced acuity of hearing and increasing blood pressure and pulse, Persons exposed a 20,000 ppm for several hours developed headaches and dyspnea on mild exertion, Acidosis and adrenal cortical exhaustion occurred as a result of prolonged continuous exposure at 10,000-20,0000 ppm.
Intoxication occurs after a 30 minute exposure at 50,000 ppm whilst exposure at 70,000-100,000 ppm produces unconsciousness within a few minutes.
Odour Safety Factor (OSF)
OSF=0.068 (CARBON DIOXIDE)

Exposure controls

Appropriate engineering controls

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

Special ventilation requirements apply for processes which result in the generation of aluminium, copper, fluoride, manganese or zinc fume.

- For work conducted outdoors and in open work spaces, the use of mechanical (general exhaust or plenum) ventilation is required as a minimum. (Open work spaces exceed 300 cubic meters per welder)
- For indoor work, conducted in limited or confined work spaces, use of mechanical ventilation by local exhaust systems is mandatory. (In confined spaces always check that oxygen has not been depleted by excessive rusting of steel or snowflake corrosion of aluminium)

Local exhaust systems must be designed to provide a minimum capture velocity at the fume source, away from the worker, of 0.5 metre/sec. 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:
welding, brazing fumes (released at relatively low velocity into moderately still air)	0.5-1.0 m/s (100-200 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 welding or brazing fumes generated 2 meters distant from the extraction point. Other mechanical considerations, producing performance deficits

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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.
Articles or manufactured items, in their original condition, generally don't require engineering controls during handling or in normal use.
Exceptions may arise following extensive use and subsequent wear, during recycling or disposal operations where substances, found in the article, may be released to the environment.
Engineering controls are used to remove a hazard or place a barrier between the worker and the hazard. Well-designed engineering controls can be highly effective in protecting workers and will typically be independent of worker interactions to provide this high level of protection.
The basic types of engineering controls are:
Process controls which involve changing the way a job activity or process is done to reduce the risk.
Enclosure and/or isolation of emission source which keeps a selected hazard "physically" away from the worker and ventilation that strategically "adds" and "removes" air in the work environment. Ventilation can remove or dilute an air contaminant if designed properly. The design of a ventilation system must match the particular process and chemical or contaminant in use.
Employers may need to use multiple types of controls to prevent employee overexposure.
Special ventilation requirements apply for processes which result in the generation of barium, chromium, lead, or nickel fume and in those processes which generate ozone.
The use of mechanical ventilation by local exhaust systems is required as a minimum in all circumstances (including outdoor work). (In confined spaces always check that oxygen has not been depleted by excessive rusting of steel or snowflake corrosion of aluminium)
Local exhaust systems must be designed to provide a minimum capture velocity at the fume source, away from the worker, of 0.5 metre/sec. 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:
welding, brazing fumes (released at relatively low velocity into moderately still air)	0.5-1.0 m/s (100-200 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 welding or brazing fumes generated 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.

For manual arc welding operations the nature of ventilation is determined by the location of the work.
- For outdoor work, natural ventilation is generally sufficient.
- For indoor work, conducted in open spaces, use mechanical (general exhaust or plenum) ventilation. (Open work spaces exceed 300 cubic metres per welder)
- For work conducted in limited or confined spaces, mechanical ventilation, using local exhaust systems, is required. (In confined spaces always check that oxygen has not been depleted by excessive rusting of steel or snowflake corrosion of aluminium)

Mechanical or local exhaust ventilation may not be required where the process working time does not exceed 24 mins. (in an 8 hr. shift) provided the work is intermittent (a maximum of 5 mins. every hour). Local exhaust systems must be designed to provide a minimum capture velocity at the fume source, away from the worker, of 0.5 metre/sec. 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:
welding, brazing fumes (released at relatively low velocity into moderately still air)	0.5-1.0 m/s (100-200 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

Continued...

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 1-2.5 m/s (200-500 f/min.) for extraction of gases discharged 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.
Engineering controls are used to remove a hazard or place a barrier between the worker and the hazard. Well-designed engineering controls can be highly effective in protecting workers and will typically be independent of worker interactions to provide this high level of protection.
The basic types of engineering controls are:
Process controls which involve changing the way a job activity or process is done to reduce the risk.
Enclosure and/or isolation of emission source which keeps a selected hazard "physically" away from the worker and ventilation that strategically "adds" and "removes" air in the work environment. Ventilation can remove or dilute an air contaminant if designed properly. The design of a ventilation system must match the particular process and chemical or contaminant in use.
Employers may need to use multiple types of controls to prevent employee overexposure.

Local exhaust ventilation usually required. If risk of overexposure exists, wear approved respirator. Correct fit is essential to obtain adequate protection. Supplied-air type respirator may be required in special circumstances. Correct fit is essential to ensure adequate protection.
An approved self contained breathing apparatus (SCBA) may be required in some situations.
Provide adequate ventilation in warehouse or closed storage area. Air contaminants generated in the workplace possess varying "escape" velocities which, in turn, determine the "capture velocities" of fresh circulating air required to effectively remove the contaminant.

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

Within each range the appropriate value depends on:

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

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

- Goggles or other suitable eye protection shall be used during all gas welding or oxygen cutting operations. Spectacles without side shields, with suitable filter lenses are permitted for use during gas welding operations on light work, for torch brazing or for inspection.
- For most open welding/brazing operations, goggles, even with appropriate filters, will not afford sufficient facial protection for operators. Where possible use welding helmets or handshields corresponding to EN 175, ANSI Z49:12005, AS 1336 and AS 1338 which provide the maximum possible facial protection from flying particles and fragments. [WRIA-WTIA Technical Note 7]
- An approved face shield or welding helmet can also have filters for optical radiation protection, and offer additional protection against debris and sparks.
- UV blocking protective spectacles with side shields or welding goggles are considered primary protection, with the face

Continued...

	▸ shield or welding helmet considered secondary protection. ▸ The optical filter in welding goggles, face mask or helmet must be a type which is suitable for the sort of work being done.A filter suitable for gas welding, for instance, should not be used for arc welding. ▸ Face masks which are self dimming are available for arc welding, MIG, TIG and plasma cutting, and allow better vision before the arc is struck and after it is extinguished. For submerged arc welding use a lens shade which gives just sufficient arc brightness to allow weld pool control.
Skin protection	See Hand protection below
Hands/feet protection	Wear general protective gloves, eg. light weight rubber gloves. ▸ Welding gloves conforming to Standards such as EN 12477:2001, ANSI Z49.1, AS/NZS 2161:2008 produced from leather, rubber, treated cotton,or aluminised ▸ These gloves protect against mechanical risk caused by abrasion, blade cut, tear and puncture ▸ Other gloves which protect against thermal risks (heat and fire) might also be considered - these comply with different standards to those mentioned above. ▸ One pair of gloves may not be suitable for all processes. For example, gloves that are suitable for low current Gas Tungsten Arc Welding (GTAW) (thin and flexible) would not be proper for high-current Air Carbon Arc Cutting (CAC-A) (insulated, tough, and durable)
Body protection	See Other protection below
Other protection	Before starting; consider that protection should be provided for all personnel within 10 metres of any open arc welding operation. Welding sites must be adequately shielded with screens of non flammable materials. Screens should permit ventilation at floor and ceiling levels. ▸ Overalls. ▸ P.V.C. apron. ▸ Barrier cream. ▸ Skin cleansing cream. ▸ Eye wash unit.
Thermal hazards	Not Available

Recommended material(s)

GLOVE SELECTION INDEX

Glove selection is based on a modified presentation of the:
"Forsberg Clothing Performance Index".
The effect(s) of the following substance(s) are taken into account in the ***computer-generated*** selection:
Carbon & Alloy Steel Flux Cored

Material	CPI
SARANEX-23	A

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

Respiratory protection

Type NO Filter of sufficient capacity. (AS/NZS 1716 & 1715, EN 143:2000 & 149:2001, ANSI Z88 or national equivalent)

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

Required Minimum Protection Factor	Half-Face Respirator	Full-Face Respirator	Powered Air Respirator
up to 10 x ES	NO-AUS	-	NO-PAPR-AUS / Class 1
up to 50 x ES	-	NO-AUS / Class 1	-
up to 100 x ES	-	NO-2	NO-PAPR-2 ^

^ - Full-face
A(All classes) = Organic vapours, B AUS or B1 = Acid gasses, B2 = Acid gas or hydrogen cyanide(HCN), B3 = Acid gas or hydrogen cyanide(HCN), E = Sulfur dioxide(SO2), G = Agricultural chemicals, K = Ammonia(NH3), Hg = Mercury, NO = Oxides of nitrogen, MB = Methyl bromide, AX = Low boiling point organic compounds(below 65 degC)

Welding of powder coated metal requires good general area ventilation, and ventilated mask as local heat causes minor coating decomposition releasing highly discomforting fume which may be harmful if exposure is regular.
Welding or flame cutting of metals with chromate pigmented primers or coatings may result in inhalation of highly toxic chromate fumes.
Exposures may be significant in enclosed or poorly ventilated areas
Respiratory protection not normally required due to the physical form of the product.

SECTION 9 PHYSICAL AND CHEMICAL PROPERTIES

Information on basic physical and chemical properties

Continued...

Appearance	Silver to grey round welding rods that are odourless with flux core varying in colour insoluble in water.

Physical state	Manufactured	**Relative density (Water = 1)**	Not Available
Odour	Not Available	**Partition coefficient n-octanol / water**	Not Available
Odour threshold	Not Available	**Auto-ignition temperature (°C)**	Not Available
pH (as supplied)	Not Applicable	**Decomposition temperature**	Not Available
Melting point / freezing point (°C)	Not Available	**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 Available	**Surface Tension (dyn/cm or mN/m)**	Not Applicable
Lower Explosive Limit (%)	Not Available	**Volatile Component (%vol)**	Not Applicable
Vapour pressure (kPa)	Not Applicable	**Gas group**	Not Available
Solubility in water (g/L)	Immiscible	**pH as a solution (1%)**	Not Applicable
Vapour density (Air = 1)	Not Applicable	**VOC g/L**	Not Applicable

SECTION 10 STABILITY AND REACTIVITY

Reactivity	See section 7
Chemical stability	Product is considered stable and 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	Limited evidence or practical experience suggests that the material may produce irritation of the respiratory system, in a significant 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. Fumes evolved during welding operations may be irritating to the upper-respiratory tract and may be harmful if inhaled. 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. Bronchial and alveolar exudate are apparent in animals exposed to molybdenum by inhalation. Molybdenum fume may produce bronchial irritation and moderate fatty changes in liver and kidney. Acute carbon monoxide exposure can mimic acute gastroenteritis or food poisoning with accompanying nausea and vomiting. Rapidly fatal cases of poisoning are characterised by congestion and hemorrhages in all organs. The extent of the tissue and organ damage is related to the duration of the post-hypoxic unconsciousness. Exposure to carbon monoxide can result in

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	immediate effects and, depending on the severity of the exposure, delayed effects. These delayed effects may occur days to weeks after the initial exposure. Signs of brain or nerve injury may appear at any time within three weeks following an acute exposure. Characteristically, those patients manifesting delayed neuropathology are middle aged or older. Most of the neurological symptoms associated with carbon monoxide exposure can resolve within a year but memory deficits and gait disturbances may remain Symptoms of poisoning resulting from carbon monoxide exposure include respiratory disorders, diarrhoea and shock. Carbon monoxide competes with oxygen for haemoglobin binding sites and has a 240-fold affinity for these sites compared to oxygen. In addition to oxygen deficiency further disability is produced by the formation of carboxymyoglobin (COHb) in muscles, to produce disturbances in muscle metabolism, particularly that of the heart. The tissues most affected by carbon monoxide are those which are most sensitive to oxygen deprivation such as the brain and the heart. The overt lesion in these tissues is mostly haemorrhage. The severe headache associated with exposure is believed to be caused by cerebral oedema and increased intracranial pressure resulting from excessive transudate leakage of fluids through the hypoxic capillaries. Carbon monoxide induced hypoxia in the cochlea and brain stem leads to central hearing loss and vestibular dysfunction (vertigo, nausea, vomiting) with the vestibular symptoms usually more prominent than the hearing loss At low levels carbon monoxide may cause poor concentration, memory and vision problems, vertigo, muscular weakness and loss of muscle coordination, rapid and stretorous breathing, intermittent heart beat, loss of sphincter control and rarely coma and death. At higher levels (200 ppm for 2-3 hours), it may cause headaches, fatigue and nausea. At very high levels (400 ppm) the symptoms intensify and will be life-threatening after three hours. Exposure to levels of 1200 ppm or greater are immediately dangerous to life. When carbon monoxide levels in air exceed 3% (30,000 ppm), death occurs almost at once. Carbon monoxide is not a cumulative poison since COHb is fully dissociable and once exposure has ceased, the hemoglobin will revert to oxyhemoglobin. The biological half life of carbon monoxide in the blood in sedentary adults is 2- 5 hours and the elimination becomes slower as the concentration decreases. Manganese fume is toxic and produces nervous system effects characterised by tiredness. Acute poisoning is rare although acute inflammation of the lungs may occur. A chemical pneumonia may also result from frequent exposure. 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. Inhalation of dusts, generated by the material, during the course of normal handling, may be harmful.
Ingestion	Accidental ingestion of the material may be damaging to the health of the individual.
Skin Contact	Skin contact is not thought to produce harmful health effects (as classified under EC Directives using animal models). Systemic harm, however, has been identified following exposure of animals by at least one other route and the material may still produce health damage following entry through wounds, lesions or abrasions. Good hygiene practice requires that exposure be kept to a minimum and that suitable gloves be used in an occupational setting. Ultraviolet radiation (UV) is generated by the electric arc in the welding process. Skin exposure to UV can result in severe burns, in many cases without prior warning. Exposure to infrared radiation (IR), produced by the electric arc and other flame cutting equipment may heat the skin surface and the tissues immediately below the surface. Except for this effect, which can progress to thermal burns in some situations, infrared radiation is not dangerous to welders. Most welders protect themselves from IR (and UV) with a welder's helmet (or glasses) and protective clothing. Engineering controls are used to remove a hazard or place a barrier between the worker and the hazard. Well-designed engineering controls can be highly effective in protecting workers and will typically be independent of worker interactions to provide this high level of protection. The basic types of engineering controls are: Process controls which involve changing the way a job activity or process is done to reduce the risk. Enclosure and/or isolation of emission source which keeps a selected hazard "physically" away from the worker and ventilation that strategically "adds" and "removes" air in the work environment. Ventilation can remove or dilute an air contaminant if designed properly. The design of a ventilation system must match the particular process and chemical or contaminant in use. Employers may need to use multiple types of controls to prevent employee overexposure. Special ventilation requirements apply for processes which result in the generation of aluminium, copper, fluoride, manganese or zinc fume. ▸ For work conducted outdoors and in open work spaces, the use of mechanical (general exhaust or plenum) ventilation is required as a minimum. (Open work spaces exceed 300 cubic meters per welder) ▸ For indoor work, conducted in limited or confined work spaces, use of mechanical ventilation by local exhaust systems is mandatory. (In confined spaces always check that oxygen has not been depleted by excessive rusting of steel or snowflake corrosion of aluminium) Local exhaust systems must be designed to provide a minimum capture velocity at the fume source, away from the worker, of 0.5 metre/sec. 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:
welding, brazing fumes (released at relatively low velocity into moderately still air)	0.5-1.0 m/s (100-200 f/min.)

Continued...

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 welding or brazing fumes generated 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.
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

Although the material 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).
Ultraviolet (UV) radiation can also damage the lens of the eye. Many arc welders are aware of the condition known as "arc-eye," a sensation of sand in the eyes. This condition is caused by excessive eye exposure to UV. Exposure to ultraviolet rays may also increase the skin effects of some industrial chemicals (coal tar and cresol compounds, for example).
Exposure of the human eye to intense visible light can produce adaptation, pupillary reflex, and shading of the eyes. Such actions are protective mechanisms to prevent excessive light from being focused on the retina. In the arc welding process, eye exposure to intense visible light is prevented for the most part by the welder's helmet. However, some individuals have sustained retinal damage due to careless "viewing" of the arc. At no time should the arc be observed without eye protection.

Chronic

On the basis, primarily, of animal experiments, concern has been expressed that the material may produce carcinogenic or mutagenic effects; in respect of the available information, however, there presently exists inadequate data for making a satisfactory assessment.
Repeated or long-term occupational exposure is likely to produce cumulative health effects involving organs or biochemical systems.
Limited evidence shows that inhalation of the material is capable of inducing a sensitisation reaction in a significant number of individuals at a greater frequency than would be expected from the response of a normal population.
Pulmonary sensitisation, resulting in hyperactive airway dysfunction and pulmonary allergy may be accompanied by fatigue, malaise and aching. Significant symptoms of exposure may persist for extended periods, even after exposure ceases. Symptoms can be activated by a variety of nonspecific environmental stimuli such as automobile exhaust, perfumes and passive smoking.
Repeated or prolonged exposure may also damage the liver and may cause a decrease in the heart rate. Systemic poisoning may result from inhalation or chronic ingestion of manganese containing substances. Progressive and permanent disability can occur from chronic manganese poisoning if it is not treated, but it is not fatal.
Chronic exposure has been associated with two major effects; bronchitis/pneumonitis following inhalation of manganese dusts and "manganism", a neuropsychiatric disorder that may also arise from inhalation exposures. Chronic exposure to low levels may result in the accumulation of toxic concentrations in critical organs. The brain in particular appears to sustain cellular damage to the ganglion. Symptoms appear before any pathology is evident and may include a mask-like facial expression, spastic gait, tremors, slurred speech, sometimes dystonia (disordered muscle tone), fatigue, anorexia, asthenia (loss of strength and energy), apathy and the inability to concentrate. Insomnia may be an early finding. Chronic poisoning may occur over a 6-24 month period depending on exposure levels.
The onset of chronic manganese poisoning is insidious, with apathy, anorexia weakness, headache and spasms. Manganese psychosis follows with certain definitive features: unaccountable laughter, euphoria, impulsive acts, absentmindedness, mental confusion, aggressiveness and hallucinations. The final stage is characterised by speech difficulties, muscular twitching, spastic gait and other nervous system effects. Symptoms resemble those of Parkinson's disease. Rat studies indicate the gradual accumulation of brain manganese to produce lesions mimicking those found in Parkinsonism. If the disease is diagnosed whilst still in the early stages and the patient is removed from exposure, the course may be reversed.
Inhalation of manganese fumes may cause 'metal fume fever' characterised by flu-like symptoms: fever, chill, nausea, weakness and body aches. Manganese dust is no longer believed to be a causative factor in pneumonia. If there is any relationship at all, it appears to be as an aggravating factor to a preexisting condition.
Prolonged or repeated eye contact may result in conjunctivitis.
Manganese is an essential trace element in all living organisms with the level of tissue manganese remaining remarkably constant throughout life.
Persons, exposed for long periods to molybdenum oxides, suffer from anaemia. Animals exposed to certain insoluble molybdenum compounds show anorexia, diarrhoea, weight loss, listlessness, and liver and kidney damage. Molybdenum disturbs bone metabolism, giving rise to lameness, bone joint abnormalities, osteoporosis and high serum phosphatase levels.Cattle, rabbits, and chicks on high dietary levels of molybdenum exhibited deformities of joints of the extremities. Low molybdenum intake has been attributed to the high incidence of oesophageal cancer in South Africa among the Bantu of Transkei, in China and in Russia.
Chronic exposure of workers in Russian molybdenum-copper plant resulted in a fall in the albumin/globulin ratio owing to a

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rise in globulins (particularly alpha-globulins) which is interpreted as evidence of liver dysfunction with hyperbilirubinaemia. Hepatotoxic effects are also found in animals given molybdenum salts with a rise in alpha-globulin levels, hypoalbuminaemia and increased serum bilirubin reported. Other reported biochemical effects include an early depletive effect on tissue nicotinamide nucleotides, hyperaminoaciduria, reduction in red blood cell life-span and hyper-thyroidism. Industrial exposure to some insoluble molybdenum compounds is thought to have resulted in an increased incidence of weakness, fatigue, anorexia, headache and joint and muscular pain. Under the conditions of a 2-year inhalation study* there was equivocal evidence of carcinogenic activity of molybdenum trioxide in male rats, male mice and female mice based on a marginally significant positive trend of alveolar/bronchiolar adenoma or carcinoma. There was no evidence of carcinogenic activity in female rats exposed to 10, 30 and 100 mg/m3. Exposure of male and female rats to molybdenum trioxide by inhalation resulted in increased incidences of chronic alveolar inflammation, hyaline degeneration of the olfactory epithelium (females), hyaline degeneration of the respiratory epithelium and squamous metaplasia of the epiglottis. Exposure of female and male mice to molybdenum trioxide resulted in an increased incidence of metaplasia of the alveolar epithelium, histiocyte cellular inflammation (males), hyaline degeneration of the respiratory epithelium, hyaline degeneration of the olfactory epithelium (females), squamous metaplasia of the epiglottis, and hyperplasia of the larynx.
Guinea pigs exposed to molybdenum trioxide dust for 1 hour daily at 250 mg/m3 showed extreme irritation. Symptoms include loss of appetite, weight loss, diarrhoea, muscular incoordination and loss of hair. Of the 51 animals exposed, 26 died after the tenth exposure. Exposure to freshly generated MoO_2 fume under about the same exposure conditions proved unexpectedly less toxic, with only 8.3% mortality compared with 51% mortality with the dust, and no mortality when the exposure level was reduced to about one-third (57 mg Mo/m3). Explanation for this unexpected finding was felt to reside in the more rapid solution and elimination of the large surface area fume particle. [Patty's]
Exposure of male and female rats to molybdenum trioxide resulted in the development of respiratory system lesions. In the lung, the incidence and severity of chronic alveolar inflammation increased with increasing exposure concentration in male and female rats. In some male rats, exposure to the material resulted in alveolar/ bronchiolar adenomas or carcinomas. Lesions in the nose (hyaline degeneration) and larynx (squamous metaplasia) were considered to be a non-specific defensive or adaptive response to chronic inhalation exposure. Inhalation exposure of mice to molybdenum trioxide was associated with the development of lung neoplasms and an increased incidence of alveolar/ bronchiolar carcinoma or adenoma in both sexes. Chronic inflammatory lesions were not present in the lungs. Lesions of the nose and larynx were similar to those observed in rats.
Molybdenum trioxide was not mutagenic in any of five strains of Salmonella typhimurium and did not induce sister chromatid exchanges or chromosomal aberrations in cultured Chinese hamster ovary cells in vitro. All tests were conducted with or without S9 metabolic activation enzymes.
Pneumoconiosis has been described in experimental animals exposed sub-chronically to molybdenum trioxide.
The mechanism of molybdenum trioxide action in lung carcinogenicity is not known; the material is not mutagenic.
Non-neoplastic lesions of the nose and larynx of rats and in the nose, larynx and lungs of mice were apparently due to the development of a more durable epithelium in response to chronic exposure.
The US Department of Health and Human Services (1) concluded that there was equivocal evidence of carcinogenic activity in male F344/N rats based on a marginally significant positive trend of alveolar/ bronchiolar adenoma or carcinoma; that there was no evidence of carcinogenic activity in female F344/N rats; that there was some evidence of carcinogenic activity in male B6C3F1 mice and that there was evidence of carcinogenic activity in female B6C3F1 mice
National Toxicology Program: Technical Report Series 462, April 1997

Principal route of exposure is inhalation of welding fumes from electrodes and workpiece. Reaction products arising from electrode core and flux appear as welding fume depending on welding conditions, relative volatilities of metal oxides and any coatings on the workpiece. Studies of lung cancer among welders indicate that they may experience a 30-40% increased risk compared to the general population. Since smoking and exposure to other cancer-causing agents, such as asbestos fibre, may influence these results, it is not clear whether welding, in fact, represents a significant lung cancer risk. Whilst mild steel welding represents little risk, the stainless steel welder, exposed to chromium and nickel fume, may be at risk and it is this factor which may account for the overall increase in lung cancer incidence among welders. Cold isolated electrodes are relatively harmless.
Long-term (chronic) exposure to low levels of carbon monoxide may produce heart disease and damage to the nervous system. Exposure of pregnant animals to carbon monoxide may cause low birthweight, increased foetal mortality and nervous system damage to the offspring.
Carbon monoxide is a common cause of fatal poisoning in industry and homes. Non fatal poisoning may result in permanent nervous system damage. Carbon monoxide reduces the oxygen carrying capacity of the blood. Effects on the body are considered to be reversible as long as brain cell damage or heart failure has not occurred. Avoid prolonged exposure, even to small concentrations. A well-established and probably causal relationship exists between maternal smoking (resulting in carboxyhaemoglobin levels of 2-7% in the foetus) and low birth weight. There also appears to be a dose-related increase in perinatal deaths and a retardation of mental ability in infants born to smoking mothers.
The foetus and newborn infant are considered to be very susceptible to CO exposure for several reasons:

- Foetal hemoglobin has a greater affinity for CO than maternal hemoglobin.
- Due to differences in uptake and elimination of CO, the fetal circulation is likely to have COHb levels higher (up to 2.5 times) than seen in the maternal circulation.
- The half-life of COHb in fetal blood is 3 times longer than that of maternal blood.
- Since the fetus has a comparatively high rate of O_2 consumption, and a lower O_2 tension in the blood than adults, a compromised O_2 transport has the potential to produce a serious hypoxia.

Carbon monoxide gas readily crosses the placenta and CO exposure during pregnancy can be teratogenic.
Carbon dioxide at low levels may initiate or enhance deleterious myocardial alterations in individuals with restricted coronary artery blood flow and decreased myocardial lactate production. - Linde
Metal oxides generated by industrial processes such as welding, give rise to a number of potential health problems. Particles smaller than 5 micron (respirables) articles may cause lung deterioration. Particles of less than 1.5 micron can be trapped in the lungs and, dependent on the nature of the particle, may give rise to further serious health consequences.

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Exposure to fume containing high concentrations of water-soluble chromium (VI) during the welding of stainless steels in confined spaces has been reported to result in chronic chrome intoxication, dermatitis and asthma. Certain insoluble chromium (VI) compounds have been named as carcinogens (by the ACGIH) in other work environments. Chromium may also appear in welding fumes as Cr2O3 or double oxides with iron. These chromium (III) compounds are generally biologically inert.
Welding fume with high levels of ferrous materials may lead to particle deposition in the lungs (siderosis) after long exposure. This clears up when exposure stops. Chronic exposure to iron dusts may lead to eye disorders.
Silica and silicates in welding fumes are non-crystalline and believed to be non-harmful.
Other welding process exposures can arise from radiant energy UV flash burns, thermal burns or electric shock
The welding arc emits ultraviolet radiation at wavelengths that have the potential to produce skin tumours in animals and in over-exposed individuals, however, no confirmatory studies of this effect in welders have been reported.

	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
Carbon & Alloy Steel Flux Cored	Not Available	Not Available
welding fumes	Not Available	Not Available
iron oxide fume	Oral (rat) LD50: >5000 mg/kg[1]	Not Available
manganese fume	Oral (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Eye (rabbit) 500mg/24H Mild
		Skin (rabbit) 500mg/24H Mild
silica welding fumes	Dermal (rabbit) LD50: >5000 mg/kg[1]	Not Available
	Oral (rat) LD50: 3160 mg/kg[2]	
aluminium fumes	Oral (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Not Available
molybdenum fume	dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Not Available
	Oral (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	
copper fume	dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	Not Available
	Inhalation (rat) LC50: 0.733 mg/l/4hr[1]	
	Inhalation (rat) LC50: 1.03 mg/l/4hr[1]	
	Inhalation (rat) LC50: 1.67 mg/l/4hr[1]	
	Oral (rat) LD50: 300-500 mg/kg[1]	
nickel fume	Oral (rat) LD50: 5000 mg/kg[2]	Not Available
chromium fume	Not Available	Not Available
titanium dioxide	Inhalation (rat) LC50: >2.28 mg/l/4hr[1]	Skin (human): 0.3 mg /3D (int)-mild *
	Inhalation (rat) LC50: >3.56 mg/l/4hr[1]	
	Inhalation (rat) LC50: >6.82 mg/l/4hr[1]	
	Inhalation (rat) LC50: 3.43 mg/l/4hr[1]	
	Inhalation (rat) LC50: 5.09 mg/l/4hr[1]	
	Oral (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg[1]	

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carbon dioxide	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	Inhalation (mouse) LC50: 200000 ppm/2hr[2]	Not Available
	Inhalation (mouse) LC50: 361 mg/L/2hr[2]	
	Inhalation (rat) LC50: 470000 ppm/30M[2]	
carbon monoxide	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	Inhalation (rat) LC50: 1.9 mg/L/4hr[2]	Not Available
	Inhalation (rat) LC50: 1807 ppm/4hr[2]	
ozone	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	Inhalation (rat) LC50: 0.001 mg/L/44hr[2]	Not Available
	Inhalation (rat) LC50: 4.8 ppm/4hr[2]	
nitrogen dioxide	**TOXICITY**	**IRRITATION**
	Inhalation (rat) LC50: 0.22 mg/L/1hr[2]	Not Available
	Inhalation (rat) LC50: 88 ppm/4hr[2]	
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*	

WELDING FUMES	Not available. Refer to individual constituents.
SILICA WELDING FUMES	For silica amorphous: When experimental animals inhale synthetic amorphous silica (SAS) dust, it dissolves in the lung fluid and is rapidly eliminated. If swallowed, the vast majority of SAS is excreted in the faeces and there is little accumulation in the body. Following absorption across the gut, SAS is eliminated via urine without modification in animals and humans. SAS is not expected to be broken down (metabolised) in mammals. After ingestion, there is limited accumulation of SAS in body tissues and rapid elimination occurs. Intestinal absorption has not been calculated, but appears to be insignificant in animals and humans. SASs injected subcutaneously are subjected to rapid dissolution and removal. There is no indication of metabolism of SAS in animals or humans based on chemical structure and available data. In contrast to crystalline silica, SAS is soluble in physiological media and the soluble chemical species that are formed are eliminated via the urinary tract without modification. Both the mammalian and environmental toxicology of SASs are significantly influenced by the physical and chemical properties, particularly those of solubility and particle size. SAS has no acute intrinsic toxicity by inhalation. Adverse effects, including suffocation, that have been reported were caused by the presence of high numbers of respirable particles generated to meet the required test atmosphere. These results are not representative of exposure to commercial SASs and should not be used for human risk assessment. Though repeated exposure of the skin may cause dryness and cracking, SAS is not a skin or eye irritant, and it is not a sensitiser. Repeated-dose and chronic toxicity studies confirm the absence of toxicity when SAS is swallowed or upon skin contact. Long-term inhalation of SAS caused some adverse effects in animals (increases in lung inflammation, cell injury and lung collagen content), all of which subsided after exposure. Numerous repeated-dose, subchronic and chronic inhalation toxicity studies have been conducted with SAS in a number of species, at airborne concentrations ranging from 0.5 mg/m3 to 150 mg/m3. Lowest-observed adverse effect levels (LOAELs) were typically in the range of 1 to 50 mg/m3. When available, the no-observed adverse effect levels (NOAELs) were between 0.5 and 10 mg/m3. The difference in values may be explained by different particle size, and therefore the number of particles administered per unit dose. In general, as particle size decreases so does the NOAEL/LOAEL. Neither inhalation nor oral administration caused neoplasms (tumours). SAS is not mutagenic in vitro. No genotoxicity was detected in in vivo assays. SAS does not impair development of the foetus. Fertility was not specifically studied, but the reproductive organs in long-term studies were not affected. In humans, SAS is essentially non-toxic by mouth, skin or eyes, and by inhalation. Epidemiology studies show little evidence of adverse health effects due to SAS. Repeated exposure (without personal protection) may cause mechanical irritation of the eye and drying/cracking of the skin. There is no evidence of cancer or other long-term respiratory health effects (for example, silicosis) in workers employed in the manufacture of SAS. Respiratory symptoms in SAS workers have been shown to correlate with smoking but not with SAS exposure, while serial pulmonary function values and chest radiographs are not adversely affected by long-term exposure to SAS. Reports indicate high/prolonged exposures to amorphous silicas induced lung fibrosis in experimental animals; in some experiments these effects were reversible. [PATTYS]
NICKEL FUME	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,

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	substances are noteworthy if they produce an allergic test reaction in more than 1% of the persons tested. Tenth Annual Report on Carcinogens: Substance anticipated to be Carcinogen [*National Toxicology Program: U.S. Dep. of Health & Human Services 2002*]
CHROMIUM FUME	For chrome(III) and other valence states (except hexavalent): For inhalation exposure, all trivalent and other chromium compounds are treated as particulates, not gases. The mechanisms of chromium toxicity are very complex, and although many studies on chromium are available, there is a great deal of uncertainty about how chromium exerts its toxic influence. Much more is known about the mechanisms of hexavalent chromium toxicity than trivalent chromium toxicity. There is an abundance of information available on the carcinogenic potential of chromium compounds and on the genotoxicity and mutagenicity of chromium compounds in experimental systems. The consensus from various reviews and agencies is that evidence of carcinogenicity of elemental, divalent, or trivalent chromium compounds is lacking. Epidemiological studies of workers in a number of industries (chromate production, chromate pigment production and use, and chrome plating) conclude that while occupational exposure to hexavalent chromium compounds is associated with an increased risk of respiratory system cancers (primarily bronchogenic and nasal), results from occupational exposure studies to mixtures that were mainly elemental and trivalent (ferrochromium alloy worker) were inconclusive. Studies in leather tanners, who were exposed to trivalent chromium were consistently negative. In addition to the lack of direct evidence of carcinogenicity of trivalent or elemental chromium and its compounds, the genotoxic evidence is overwhelmingly negative. The lesser potency of trivalent chromium relative to hexavalent chromium is likely related to the higher redox potential of hexavalent chromium and its greater ability to enter cells. enter cells The general inability of trivalent chromium to traverse membranes and thus be absorbed or reach peripheral tissue in significant amounts is generally accepted as a probable explanation for the overall absence of systemic trivalent chromium toxicity. Elemental and divalent forms of chromium are not able to traverse membranes readily either. This is not to say that elemental, divalent, or trivalent chromium compounds cannot traverse membranes and reach peripheral tissue, the mechanism of absorption is simply less efficient in comparison to absorption of hexavalent chromium compounds. Hexavalent chromium compounds exist as tetrahedral chromate anions, resembling the forms of other natural anions like sulfate and phosphate which are permeable across nonselective membranes. Trivalent chromium forms octahedral complexes which cannot easily enter though these channels, instead being absorbed via passive diffusion and phagocytosis. Although trivalent chromium is less well absorbed than hexavalent chromium, workers exposed to trivalent compounds have had detectable levels of chromium in the urine at the end of a workday. Absorbed chromium is widely distributed throughout the body via the bloodstream, and can reach the foetus. Although there is ample in vivo evidence that hexavalent chromium is efficiently reduced to trivalent chromium in the gastrointestinal tract and can be reduced to the trivalent form by ascorbate and glutathione in the lungs, there is no evidence that trivalent chromium is converted to hexavalent chromium in biological systems. In general, trivalent chromium compounds are cleared rapidly from the blood and more slowly from the tissues. Although not fully characterized, the biologically active trivalent chromium molecule appears to be chromodulin, also referred to as (GTF). Chromodulin is an oligopeptide complex containing four chromic ions. Chromodulin may facilitate interactions of insulin with its receptor site, influencing protein, glucose, and lipid metabolism. Inorganic trivalent chromium compounds, which do not appear to have insulin-potentiating properties, are capable of being converted into biologically active forms by humans and animals Chromium can be a potent sensitiser in a small minority of humans, both from dermal and inhalation exposures. The most sensitive endpoint identified in animal studies of acute exposure to trivalent chromium appears to involve the respiratory system. Specifically, acute exposure to trivalent chromium is associated with impaired lung function and lung damage. Based on what is known about absorption of chromium in the human body, its potential mechanism of action in cells, and occupational data indicating that valence states other than hexavalent exhibit a relative lack of toxicity the toxicity of elemental and divalent chromium compounds is expected to be similar to or less than common trivalent forms.
TITANIUM DIOXIDE	The material may produce moderate eye irritation leading to inflammation. Repeated or prolonged exposure to irritants may produce conjunctivitis. The material may cause skin irritation after prolonged or repeated exposure and may produce a contact dermatitis (nonallergic). This form of dermatitis is often characterised by skin redness (erythema) and swelling epidermis. Histologically there may be intercellular oedema of the spongy layer (spongiosis) and intracellular oedema of the epidermis. For titanium dioxide: Humans can be exposed to titanium dioxide via inhalation, ingestion or dermal contact. In human lungs, the clearance kinetics of titanium dioxide is poorly characterized relative to that in experimental animals. (General particle characteristics and host factors that are considered to affect deposition and retention patterns of inhaled, poorly soluble particles such as titanium dioxide are summarized in the monograph on carbon black.) With regard to inhaled titanium dioxide, human data are mainly available from case reports that showed deposits of titanium dioxide in lung tissue as well as in lymph nodes. A single clinical study of oral ingestion of fine titanium dioxide showed particle size-dependent absorption by the gastrointestinal tract and large interindividual variations in blood levels of titanium dioxide. Studies on the application of sunscreens containing ultrafine titanium dioxide to healthy skin of human volunteers revealed that titanium dioxide particles only penetrate into the outermost layers of the stratum corneum, suggesting that healthy skin is an effective barrier to titanium dioxide. There are no studies on penetration of titanium dioxide in compromised skin. Respiratory effects that have been observed among groups of titanium dioxide-exposed workers include decline in lung function, pleural disease with plaques and pleural thickening, and mild fibrotic changes. However, the workers in these studies were also exposed to asbestos and/or silica. No data were available on genotoxic effects in titanium dioxide-exposed humans. Many data on deposition, retention and clearance of titanium dioxide in experimental animals are available for the inhalation route. Titanium dioxide inhalation studies showed differences — both for normalized pulmonary burden (deposited mass per dry lung, mass per body weight) and clearance kinetics — among rodent species including rats of different size, age and strain. Clearance of titanium dioxide is also affected by pre-exposure to gaseous pollutants or co-exposure to cytotoxic aerosols. Differences in dose rate or clearance kinetics and the appearance of focal areas of high particle burden have been implicated in the higher toxic and inflammatory lung responses to intratracheally instilled vs inhaled titanium dioxide particles.

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	Experimental studies with titanium dioxide have demonstrated that rodents experience dose-dependent impairment of alveolar macrophage-mediated clearance. Hamsters have the most efficient clearance of inhaled titanium dioxide. Ultrafine primary particles of titanium dioxide are more slowly cleared than their fine counterparts. Titanium dioxide causes varying degrees of inflammation and associated pulmonary effects including lung epithelial cell injury, cholesterol granulomas and fibrosis. Rodents experience stronger pulmonary effects after exposure to ultrafine titanium dioxide particles compared with fine particles on a mass basis. These differences are related to lung burden in terms of particle surface area, and are considered to result from impaired phagocytosis and sequestration of ultrafine particles into the interstitium. Fine titanium dioxide particles show minimal cytotoxicity to and inflammatory/pro-fibrotic mediator release from primary human alveolar macrophages in vitro compared with other particles. Ultrafine titanium dioxide particles inhibit phagocytosis of alveolar macrophages in vitro at mass dose concentrations at which this effect does not occur with fine titanium dioxide. In-vitro studies with fine and ultrafine titanium dioxide and purified DNA show induction of DNA damage that is suggestive of the generation of reactive oxygen species by both particle types. This effect is stronger for ultrafine than for fine titanium oxide, and is markedly enhanced by exposure to simulated sunlight/ultraviolet light. **Animal carcinogenicity data** Pigmentary and ultrafine titanium dioxide were tested for carcinogenicity by oral administration in mice and rats, by inhalation in rats and female mice, by intratracheal administration in hamsters and female rats and mice, by subcutaneous injection in rats and by intraperitoneal administration in male mice and female rats. In one inhalation study, the incidence of benign and malignant lung tumours was increased in female rats. In another inhalation study, the incidences of lung adenomas were increased in the high-dose groups of male and female rats. Cystic keratinizing lesions that were diagnosed as squamous-cell carcinomas but re-evaluated as non-neoplastic pulmonary keratinizing cysts were also observed in the high-dose groups of female rats. Two inhalation studies in rats and one in female mice were negative. Intratracheally instilled female rats showed an increased incidence of both benign and malignant lung tumours following treatment with two types of titanium dioxide. Tumour incidence was not increased in intratracheally instilled hamsters and female mice. In-vivo studies have shown enhanced micronucleus formation in bone marrow and peripheral blood lymphocytes of intraperitoneally instilled mice. Increased Hprt mutations were seen in lung epithelial cells isolated from titanium dioxide-instilled rats. In another study, no enhanced oxidative DNA damage was observed in lung tissues of rats that were intratracheally instilled with titanium dioxide. The results of most in-vitro genotoxicity studies with titanium dioxide were negative. * IUCLID
CARBON DIOXIDE	- pulmonary effects IDLH: 50,000 ppm
CARBON MONOXIDE	- central nervous system effects
OZONE	NOTE: Ozone aggravates chronic obstructive pulmonary diseases. Ozone is suspected also of increasing the risk of acute and chronic respiratory disease, mutagenesis and foetotoxicity. In animals short-term exposure to ambient concentrations of less than 1 ppm results in reduced capacity to kill intrapulmonary organisms and allows purulent bacteria to proliferate [Ellenhorn etal].
NITROGEN DIOXIDE	Substance has been investigated as a mutagen and reproductive effector. NOTE: Interstitial edema, epithelial proliferation and, in high concentrations, fibrosis and emphysema develop after repeated exposure.
Carbon & Alloy Steel Flux Cored & MOLYBDENUM FUME & CHROMIUM FUME	No significant acute toxicological data identified in literature search.
Carbon & Alloy Steel Flux Cored & WELDING FUMES & NICKEL FUME & TITANIUM DIOXIDE	**WARNING:** This substance has been classified by the IARC as Group 2B: Possibly Carcinogenic to Humans.
Carbon & Alloy Steel Flux Cored & WELDING FUMES	Most welding is performed using electric arc processes - manual metal arc, metal inert gas (MIG) and tungsten inert gas welding (TIG) – and most welding is on mild steel. There has been considerable evidence over several decades regarding cancer risks in relation to welding activities. Several case-control studies reported excess risks of ocular melanoma in welders. This association may be due to the presence in some welding environments of fumes of thorium-232, which is used in tungsten welding rods. Different welding environments may present different and complex profiles of exposures. In one study to characterise welding fume aerosol nanoparticles in mild steel metal active gas welding showed a mass median diameter (MMMD) of 200-300 nm. A widespread consensus seems to have formed to the effect that some welding environments, notably in stainless steel welding, do carry risks of lung cancer. This widespread consensus is in part based on empirical evidence regarding risks among stainless steel welders and in part on the fact that stainless steel welding entails moderately high exposure to nickel and chromium VI compounds, which are recognised lung carcinogens. The corollary is that welding without the presence of nickel and chromium VI compounds, namely mild-steel welding, should not carry risk. But it appears that this line of reasoning in not supported by the accumulated body of epidemiologic evidence. While there remained some uncertainty about possible confounding by smoking and by asbestos, and some possible publication bias, the overwhelming evidence is that there has been an excess risk of lung cancer among welders as a whole in the order of 20%-40%.The most begrudging explanation is that there is an as-yet unexplained common reason for excess lung cancer risks that applies to all types of welders. It has been have proposed that iron fumes may play such a role, and some Finnish data appear to support this hypothesis, though not conclusively. This hypothesis would also imply that excess lung cancer risks among welders are not unique to welders, but rather may be shared among many types of metal working occupations. Welders are exposed to a range of fumes and gases (evaporated metal, metal oxides, hydrocarbons, nanoparticles, ozone,

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	oxides of nitrogen (NOx)) depending on the electrodes, filler wire and flux materials used in the process, but also physical exposures such as electric and magnetic fields (EMF) and ultraviolet (UV) radiation. Fume particles contain a wide variety of oxides and salts of metals and other compounds, which are produced mainly from electrodes, filler wire and flux materials. Fumes from the welding of stainless-steel and other alloys contain nickel compounds and chromium[VI] and [III]. Ozone is formed during most electric arc welding, and exposures can be high in comparison to the exposure limit, particularly during metal inert gas welding of aluminium. Oxides of nitrogen are found during manual metal arc welding and particularly during gas welding. Welders who weld painted mild steel can also be exposed to a range of organic compounds produced by pyrolysis. In one study particle elemental composition was mainly iron and manganese. Ni and Cr exposures were very low in the vicinity of mild steel welders, but much higher in the background in the workshop where there presumably was some stainless steel welding. Personal exposures to manganese ranged from 0.01-4.93 mg/m3 and to iron ranged from 0.04-16.29 mg/m3 in eight Canadian welding companies. Types of welding identified were mostly (90%) MIG mild steel, MIG stainless steel, and TIG aluminum. Carbon monoxide levels were less than 5.0 ppm (at source) and ozone levels varied from 0.4-0.6 ppm (at source). Welders, especially in shipyards, may also be exposed to asbestos dust. Physical exposures such as electric and magnetic fields (EMF) and ultraviolet (UV) radiation are also common. In all, the in vivo studies suggest that different welding fumes cause varied responses in rat lungs in vivo , and the toxic effects typically correlate with the metal composition of the fumes and their ability to produce free radicals. In many studies both soluble and insoluble fractions of the stainless steel welding fumes were required to produce most types of effects, indicating that the responses are not dependent exclusively on the soluble metals. Lung tumourigenicity of welding fumes was investigated in lung tumour susceptible (A/J) strain of mice. Male mice were exposed by pharyngeal aspiration four times (once every 3 days) to 85 ug of gas metal arc-mild steel (GMA-MS), GMA-SS, or manual metal arc-SS (MMA-SS) fume. At 48 weeks post-exposure, GMA-SS caused the greatest increase in tumour multiplicity and incidence, but did not differ from sham exposure. Tumour incidence in the GMA-SS group versus sham control was close to significance at 78 weeks post exposure. Histopathological analysis of the lungs of these mice showed the GMA-SS group having an increase in preneoplasia/tumour multiplicity and incidence compared to the GMA-MS and sham groups at 48 weeks. The increase in incidence in the GMA-SS exposed mice was significant compared to the GMA-MS group but not to the sham-exposed animals, and the difference in incidence between the GMA-SS and MMA-SS groups was of border-line significance (p = 0.06). At 78 week s post-exposure, no statistically significant differences. A significantly higher frequency of micronuclei in peripheral blood lymphocytes (binucleated cell assay) and higher mean levels of both centromere-positive and centromere-negative micronuclei was observed in welders (n=27) who worked without protective device compared to controls (n=30).The rate of micronucleated cells did not correlate with the duration of exposure.
SILICA WELDING FUMES & CHROMIUM FUME	The substance is classified by IARC as Group 3: **NOT** classifiable as to its carcinogenicity to humans. Evidence of carcinogenicity may be inadequate or limited in animal testing.
MOLYBDENUM FUME & OZONE & NITROGEN DIOXIDE	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 available but does not fill the criteria for classification*
✔ *– Data required to make classification available*
⊘ *– Data Not Available to make classification*

SECTION 12 ECOLOGICAL INFORMATION

Toxicity

Ingredient	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
iron oxide fume	LC50	96	Fish	0.05mg/L	2
iron oxide fume	EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	18mg/L	2

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iron oxide fume	EC50	504	Crustacea	4.49mg/L	2
iron oxide fume	NOEC	504	Fish	0.52mg/L	2
manganese fume	LC50	96	Fish	>3.6mg/L	2
manganese fume	EC50	48	Crustacea	>1.6mg/L	2
manganese fume	EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	2.8mg/L	2
manganese fume	BCFD	37	Algae or other aquatic plants	2.2mg/L	4
manganese fume	EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	4.5mg/L	2
manganese fume	NOEC	48	Crustacea	1.6mg/L	2
silica welding fumes	EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	ca.250mg/L	2
aluminium fumes	LC50	96	Fish	0.078-0.108mg/L	2
aluminium fumes	EC50	48	Crustacea	0.7364mg/L	2
aluminium fumes	EC50	96	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.0054mg/L	2
aluminium fumes	BCF	360	Algae or other aquatic plants	9mg/L	4
aluminium fumes	EC50	120	Fish	0.000051mg/L	5
aluminium fumes	NOEC	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	>=0.004mg/L	2
molybdenum fume	LC50	96	Fish	609.1mg/L	2
molybdenum fume	EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	289.2mg/L	2
molybdenum fume	BCF	336	Algae or other aquatic plants	64mg/L	4
molybdenum fume	EC50	336	Algae or other aquatic plants	64mg/L	4
molybdenum fume	NOEC	672	Crustacea	0.67mg/L	2
copper fume	LC50	96	Fish	0.0028mg/L	2
copper fume	EC50	48	Crustacea	0.001mg/L	5
copper fume	EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.013335mg/L	4
copper fume	BCF	960	Fish	200mg/L	4
copper fume	EC50	96	Crustacea	0.001mg/L	5
copper fume	NOEC	96	Crustacea	0.0008mg/L	4
nickel fume	LC50	96	Fish	0.0000475mg/L	4
nickel fume	EC50	48	Crustacea	0.013mg/L	5
nickel fume	EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.0407mg/L	2
nickel fume	BCF	1440	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.47mg/L	4
nickel fume	EC50	720	Crustacea	0.0062mg/L	2
nickel fume	NOEC	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.0035mg/L	2
chromium fume	LC50	96	Fish	13.9mg/L	4
chromium fume	EC50	48	Crustacea	0.0225mg/L	5
chromium fume	EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.104mg/L	4
chromium fume	BCF	1440	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.0495mg/L	4
chromium fume	EC50	48	Crustacea	0.0245mg/L	5
chromium fume	NOEC	672	Fish	0.00019mg/L	4
titanium dioxide	LC50	96	Fish	9.214mg/L	3
titanium dioxide	EC50	48	Crustacea	>10mg/L	2
titanium dioxide	EC50	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	5.83mg/L	4
titanium dioxide	EC20	72	Algae or other aquatic plants	1.81mg/L	4
titanium dioxide	NOEC	336	Fish	0.089mg/L	4
carbon dioxide	LC50	96	Fish	53.413mg/L	3
carbon dioxide	EC50	96	Algae or other aquatic plants	237.138mg/L	3
carbon dioxide	EC50	384	Crustacea	12.472mg/L	3
ozone	LC50	96	Fish	0.0093mg/L	4
ozone	EC50	96	Fish	0.0093mg/L	5
ozone	NOEC	2160	Fish	0.002mg/L	5
nitrogen dioxide	LC50	96	Fish	19.6mg/L	4

Continued...

Legend:	*Extracted from 1. IUCLID Toxicity Data 2. Europe ECHA Registered Substances - Ecotoxicological Information - Aquatic Toxicity 3. EPIWIN Suite V3.12 - 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*

For manganese and its compounds:
Environmental fate:
It has been established that while lower organisms (e.g., plankton, aquatic plants, and some fish) can significantly bioconcentrate manganese, higher organisms (including humans) tend to maintain manganese homeostasis. This indicates that the potential for biomagnification of manganese from lower trophic levels to higher ones is low.
There were two mechanisms involved in explaining the retention of manganese and other metals in the environment by soil. First, through cation exchange reactions, manganese ions and the charged surface of soil particles form manganese oxides, hydroxides, and oxyhydroxides which in turn form absorption sites for other metals. Secondly, manganese can be adsorbed to other oxides, hydroxides, and oxyhydroxides through ligand exchange reactions. When the soil solution becomes saturated, these manganese oxides, hydroxides, and oxyhydroxides can precipitate into a new mineral phase and act as a new surface to which other substances can absorb. The tendency of soluble manganese compounds to adsorb to soils and sediments depends mainly on the cation exchange capacity and the organic composition of the soil. The soil adsorption constants (the ratio of the concentration in soil to the concentration in water) for Mn(II) span five orders of magnitude, ranging from 0.2 to 10,000 mL/g, increasing as a function of the organic content and the ion exchange capacity of the soil; thus, adsorption may be highly variable. In some cases, adsorption of manganese to soils may not be a readily reversible process. At low concentrations, manganese may be "fixed" by clays and will not be released into solution readily. At higher concentrations, manganese may be desorbed by ion exchange mechanisms with other ions in solution. For example, the discharge of waste water effluent into estuarine environments resulted in the mobilization of manganese from the bottom sediments. The metals in the effluent may have been preferentially adsorbed resulting in the release of manganese. The oxidation state of manganese in soil and sediments may be altered by microbial activity; oxidation may lead to the precipitation of manganese. Bacteria and microflora can increase the mobility of manganese.
The transport and partitioning of manganese in water is controlled by the solubility of the specific chemical form present, which in turn is determined by pH, Eh (oxidation-reduction potential), and the characteristics of the available anions. The metal may exist in water in any of four oxidation states. Manganese(II) predominates in most waters (pH 4-7) but may become oxidized at a pH >8 or 9. The principal anion associated with Mn(II) in water is usually carbonate (CO3.2), and the concentration of manganese is limited by the relatively low solubility (65 mg/L) of MnCO3. In relatively oxidized water, the solubility of Mn(II) may be controlled by manganese oxide equilibria, with manganese being converted to the Mn(II) or Mn(IV) oxidation states. In extremely reduced water, the fate of manganese tends to be controlled by formation of a poorly soluble sulfide. Manganese in water may undergo oxidation at high pH or Eh and is also subject to microbial activity. For example, Mn(II) in a lake was oxidized during the summer months, but this was inhibited by a microbial poison, indicating that the oxidation was mediated by bacteria . The microbial metabolism of manganese is presumed to be a function of pH, temperature, and other factors.
Manganese in water may be significantly bioconcentrated at lower trophic levels. A bioconcentration factor (BCF) relates the concentration of a chemical in plant and animal tissues to the concentration of the chemical in the water in which they live. The BCF of manganese was estimated as 2,500 - 6,300 for phytoplankton, 300 -5,500 for marine algae, 80 - 830 for intertidal mussels, and 35 - 930 for coastal fish. Similarly, the BCF of manganese was estimated to be 10,00 -20,000 for marine and freshwater plants, 10,000 - 40,000 for invertebrates, and 10 - 600 for fish. In general, these data indicate that lower organisms such as algae have larger BCFs than higher organisms. In order to protect consumers from the risk of manganese bioaccumulation in marine mollusks, the U.S. EPA has set a criterion for manganese at 0.1 mg/L for marine waters.
Elemental manganese and inorganic manganese compounds have negligible vapor pressures but may exist in air as suspended particulate matter derived from industrial emissions or the erosion of soils. Manganese-containing particles are mainly removed from the atmosphere by gravitational settling, with large particles tending to fall out faster than small particles. The half-life of airborne particles is usually on the order of days, depending on the size of the particle and atmospheric conditions. Some removal by washout mechanisms such as rain may also occur, although it is of minor significance in comparison to dry deposition.
Ecotoxicity:
Manganese ion is toxic to aqueous organisms
Fish LC50 (28 d): orfe 2490 mg/l, trout 2.91 mg/l
Daphnia magna LC50: 50 mg/l
Pseudomonas putida LC50: 10.6 mg/l
Photobacterium phosphoreum LC50: 14.7 mg/l
Turbellarian worms (EC0): Polycelis nigra 660 mg/l (interference threshold); microregma 31 mg/l
Based on the high concentration of molybdenum in all analysed waste types, the exposure of the environment to molybdenum is regarded as significant. The limited amount of data regarding its toxicity makes it impossible to evaluate the potential for adverse environmental and health effects from molybdenum exposure.
Molybdenum cause adverse effects in ruminant animals. Livestock have been injured by forage grown on soils with excessive geochemically-derived molybdenum. Soil molybdenum is a potentially toxic element, but no cases have been reported of molybdenum toxicity to animals from consumption of forage grown on sludge-amended soils. In pot studies, where clover was grown on alkaline soils containing up to 16 kg of molybdenum per ha, concentrations in the plant tissue reached levels that could be harmful to animals if the clover were to make up a substantial portion of the diet for an extended period of time.
Molybdenum is generally found in two oxidation states in nature, Mo(IV) and Mo(VI). In oxidising environments Mo(VI) dominates and it is commonly present as the oxyanion molybdate (MoO4,2-)
In a laboratory experiment it was found that Mo was lost from solution under reducing conditions and remobilised under oxidizing conditions, and hypothesised that MoS2, a low-solubility mineral, formed in the system.
In this study it was also found that Fe minerals were important sinks for Mo accumulation in reducing sediments. It has been proposed that under reducing conditions and with the reduction of sulfate, molybdate is converted to thiomolybdate (MoS4,2-) which then binds to Fe, Al, and organic matter phases a via sulfur bridges. This mechanism could also account for decreased Mo solubility under reducing conditions.
Another study in wetland found that Mo accumulated in the sediments with most of the accumulation occurring in the top 2 cm and decreasing with depth. It appears that Mo accumulation (as well as As and V accumulation) or retention in the surface sediments is dependent on the depth of the overlying water column and correspondingly on redox status.

Transport and distribution of nickel particulates between different environmental compartments, is strongly influenced by particle size. Fine particulate matter has a longer residence time in the environment and is carried a long distance from its source; larger particles are deposited near the emission source. Atmospheric residence time for nickel particulates is estimated to be 5.4-7.9 days. Water solubility and bioavailability is affected by soil pH;

Continued...

decrease in pH generally mobilises nickel, thus acid rain can mobilise nickel from the soil and increase nickel concentrations in ground water. Nickel bioaccumulates in the food chain but is not bioconcentrated.

Drinking Water Standards:

Nickel 50 ug/l (UK max.)

20 ug/l (WHO guideline)

Soil Guidelines:

Dutch Criteria: 35 mg/kg (target)

210 mg/kg (intervention)
For carbon monoxide:
Environmental fate:
Although carbon monoxide is not considered a greenhouse gas, it is a precursor to greenhouse gases. Carbon monoxide elevates the concentrations of methane (a greenhouse gas) and ozone in the atmosphere. It eventually oxidises into carbon dioxide. Greenhouse gases are linked to global warming. Very high levels of carbon monoxide will cause the same problems to birds and animals that are experienced by people, although these levels are very unlikely to be encountered in the environment except during extreme events like bushfires.
DO NOT discharge into sewer or waterways.

Persistence and degradability

Ingredient	Persistence: Water/Soil	Persistence: Air
titanium dioxide	HIGH	HIGH
carbon dioxide	LOW	LOW

Bioaccumulative potential

Ingredient	Bioaccumulation
titanium dioxide	LOW (BCF = 10)
carbon dioxide	LOW (LogKOW = 0.83)

Mobility in soil

Ingredient	Mobility
titanium dioxide	LOW (KOC = 23.74)
carbon dioxide	HIGH (KOC = 1.498)

SECTION 13 DISPOSAL CONSIDERATIONS

Waste treatment methods

Product / Packaging disposal	· Recycle wherever possible or consult manufacturer for recycling options. · Consult State Land Waste Management Authority for disposal.

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

Continued...

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

WELDING FUMES(NOT AVAIL.) IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Exposure Standards
Australia Hazardous Substances Information System - Consolidated Lists
International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) - Agents Classified by the IARC Monographs

IRON OXIDE FUME(1309-37-1.) IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Exposure Standards
Australia Hazardous Substances Information System - Consolidated Lists
Australia Inventory of Chemical Substances (AICS)
International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) - Agents Classified by the IARC Monographs

MANGANESE FUME(7439-96-5.) IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Exposure Standards
Australia Hazardous Substances Information System - Consolidated Lists
Australia Inventory of Chemical Substances (AICS)

SILICA WELDING FUMES(69012-64-2) IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Exposure Standards
Australia Inventory of Chemical Substances (AICS)

ALUMINIUM FUMES(7429-90-5.) IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Exposure Standards
Australia Hazardous Substances Information System - Consolidated Lists
Australia Inventory of Chemical Substances (AICS)

MOLYBDENUM FUME(7439-98-7) IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Inventory of Chemical Substances (AICS)

COPPER FUME(7440-50-8.) IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Exposure Standards
Australia Hazardous Substances Information System - Consolidated Lists
Australia Inventory of Chemical Substances (AICS)

NICKEL FUME(7440-02-0) IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Exposure Standards
Australia Hazardous Substances Information System - Consolidated Lists
Australia Inventory of Chemical Substances (AICS)

CHROMIUM FUME(7440-47-3) IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Exposure Standards
Australia Hazardous Substances Information System - Consolidated Lists
Australia Inventory of Chemical Substances (AICS)
International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) - Agents Classified by the IARC Monographs

TITANIUM DIOXIDE(13463-67-7) IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Exposure Standards
Australia Inventory of Chemical Substances (AICS)
International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) - Agents Classified by the IARC Monographs

CARBON DIOXIDE(124-38-9) IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Exposure Standards
Australia Hazardous Substances Information System - Consolidated Lists
Australia Inventory of Chemical Substances (AICS)

CARBON MONOXIDE(630-08-0) IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Exposure Standards
Australia Hazardous Substances Information System - Consolidated Lists
Australia Inventory of Chemical Substances (AICS)
International Air Transport Association (IATA) Dangerous Goods Regulations - Prohibited List Passenger and Cargo Aircraft

OZONE(10028-15-6) IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Exposure Standards
Australia Hazardous Substances Information System - Consolidated Lists

NITROGEN DIOXIDE(10102-44-0) IS FOUND ON THE FOLLOWING REGULATORY LISTS

Australia Exposure Standards
Australia Hazardous Substances Information System - Consolidated Lists
Australia Inventory of Chemical Substances (AICS)
International Air Transport Association (IATA) Dangerous Goods Regulations - Prohibited List Passenger and Cargo Aircraft

National Inventory	Status
Australia - AICS	N (ozone; welding fumes)
Canada - DSL	N (ozone; welding fumes)
Canada - NDSL	N (manganese fume; nickel fume; copper fume; chromium fume; carbon dioxide; silica welding fumes; welding fumes; aluminium fumes; iron oxide fume; carbon monoxide; molybdenum fume)
China - IECSC	N (welding fumes)

Continued...

Europe - EINEC / ELINCS / NLP	N (welding fumes)
Japan - ENCS	N (manganese fume; nickel fume; copper fume; chromium fume; ozone; welding fumes; aluminium fumes; molybdenum fume)
Korea - KECI	N (welding fumes)
New Zealand - NZIoC	N (welding fumes)
Philippines - PICCS	N (ozone; welding fumes)
USA - TSCA	N (welding fumes)
Legend:	*Y = All ingredients are on the inventory* *N = Not determined or one or more ingredients are not on the inventory and are not exempt from listing(see specific ingredients in brackets)*

SECTION 16 OTHER INFORMATION

Other information

Ingredients with multiple cas numbers

Name	CAS No
titanium dioxide	13463-67-7, 1317-70-0, 1317-80-2, 12188-41-9, 1309-63-3, 100292-32-8, 101239-53-6, 116788-85-3, 12000-59-8, 12701-76-7, 12767-65-6, 12789-63-8, 1344-29-2, 185323-71-1, 185828-91-5, 188357-76-8, 188357-79-1, 195740-11-5, 221548-98-7, 224963-00-2, 246178-32-5, 252962-41-7, 37230-92-5, 37230-94-7, 37230-95-8, 37230-96-9, 39320-58-6, 39360-64-0, 39379-02-7, 416845-43-7, 494848-07-6, 494848-23-6, 494851-77-3, 494851-98-8, 55068-84-3, 55068-85-4, 552316-51-5, 62338-64-1, 767341-00-4, 97929-50-5, 98084-96-9
nitrogen dioxide	10102-44-0, 10544-72-6

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

Definitions and abbreviations

PC—TWA: Permissible Concentration-Time Weighted Average
PC—STEL: Permissible Concentration-Short Term Exposure Limit
IARC: International Agency for Research on Cancer
ACGIH: American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists
STEL: Short Term Exposure Limit
TEEL: Temporary Emergency Exposure Limit。
IDLH: Immediately Dangerous to Life or Health Concentrations
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