

7" Wireless Bidirectional Diagnostic Tablet

Apex Tool Group

Part Number: GWSMART07AU

Version No: 2.4

Safety Data Sheet according to Work Health and Safety Regulations (Hazardous Chemicals) 2023 and ADG requirements

Initial Date: 24/09/2025

Revision Date: 24/09/2025

Print Date: 24/09/2025

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SECTION 1 Identification of the substance / mixture and of the company / undertaking

Product Identifier

Product name	7" Wireless Bidirectional Diagnostic Tablet
Synonyms	Not Available
Proper shipping name	LITHIUM ION BATTERIES PACKED WITH EQUIPMENT (including lithium ion polymer batteries); LITHIUM ION BATTERIES CONTAINED IN EQUIPMENT (including lithium ion polymer batteries)
Other means of identification	GWSMART07AU

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

Relevant identified uses	Not Available
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Details of the manufacturer or importer of the safety data sheet

Registered company name	Apex Tool Group
Address	Suite 201, 184 Bourke Road Alexandria New South Wales 2015 Australia
Telephone	02 6021 6666
Fax	Not Available
Website	www.gearwrench.com.au
Email	salesaus@apextoolgroup.com

Emergency telephone number

Association / Organisation	Poisons Information Hotline
Emergency telephone number(s)	131126
Other emergency telephone number(s)	000

SECTION 2 Hazards identification

Classification of the substance or mixture

HAZARDOUS CHEMICAL. DANGEROUS GOODS. According to the WHS Regulations and the ADG Code.

Poisons Schedule	Not Applicable
Classification ^[1]	Acute Toxicity (Oral) Category 2, Acute Toxicity (Dermal) Category 3, Skin Corrosion/Irritation Category 1B, Sensitisation (Skin) Category 1, Serious Eye Damage/Eye Irritation Category 1, Sensitisation (Respiratory) Category 1, Specific Target Organ Toxicity - Single Exposure (Respiratory Tract Irritation) Category 3, Germ Cell Mutagenicity Category 1A, Carcinogenicity Category 1B, Specific Target Organ Toxicity - Repeated Exposure Category 2, Hazardous to the Aquatic Environment Long-Term Hazard Category 1
Legend:	1. Classification by vendor; 2. Classification drawn from HCIS; 3. Classification drawn from Regulation (EU) No 1272/2008 - Annex VI

Label elements

7" Wireless Bidirectional Diagnostic Tablet

Hazard pictogram(s)	
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Signal word	Danger
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Hazard statement(s)

H300	Fatal if swallowed.
H311	Toxic in contact with skin.
H314	Causes severe skin burns and eye damage.
H317	May cause an allergic skin reaction.
H334	May cause allergy or asthma symptoms or breathing difficulties if inhaled.
H335	May cause respiratory irritation.
H340	May cause genetic defects.
H350	May cause cancer.
H373	May cause damage to organs through prolonged or repeated exposure.
H410	Very toxic to aquatic life with long lasting effects.

Supplementary statement(s)

Not Applicable

Precautionary statement(s) Prevention

P260	Do not breathe dust/fume/gas/mist/vapours/spray.
P264	Wash all exposed external body areas thoroughly after handling.
P270	Do not eat, drink or smoke when using this product.
P271	Use only outdoors or in a well-ventilated area.
P280	Wear protective gloves, protective clothing, eye protection and face protection.
P284	[In case of inadequate ventilation] wear respiratory protection.
P273	Avoid release to the environment.
P202	Do not handle until all safety precautions have been read and understood.
P272	Contaminated work clothing should not be allowed out of the workplace.

Precautionary statement(s) Response

P301+P310	IF SWALLOWED: Immediately call a POISON CENTER/doctor/physician/first aider.
P301+P330+P331	IF SWALLOWED: Rinse mouth. Do NOT induce vomiting. If more than 15 mins from Doctor, INDUCE VOMITING (if conscious).
P303+P361+P353	IF ON SKIN (or hair): Take off immediately all contaminated clothing. Rinse skin with water [or shower].
P304+P340	IF INHALED: Remove person to fresh air and keep comfortable for breathing.
P305+P351+P338	IF IN EYES: Rinse cautiously with water for several minutes. Remove contact lenses, if present and easy to do. Continue rinsing.
P308+P313	IF exposed or concerned: Get medical advice/ attention.
P342+P311	If experiencing respiratory symptoms: Call a POISON CENTER/doctor/physician/first aider.
P302+P352	IF ON SKIN: Wash with plenty of water.
P363	Wash contaminated clothing before reuse.
P333+P313	If skin irritation or rash occurs: Get medical advice/attention.
P361+P364	Take off immediately all contaminated clothing and wash it before reuse.
P391	Collect spillage.

Precautionary statement(s) Storage

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

Precautionary statement(s) Disposal

P501	Dispose of contents/container to authorised hazardous or special waste collection point in accordance with any local regulation.
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No further product hazard information.

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SECTION 3 Composition / information on ingredients

Substances

See section below for composition of Mixtures

Mixtures

CAS No	%[weight]	Name
12190-79-3	15-40	<u>lithium cobaltate</u>
7782-42-5	10-30	<u>graphite</u>
21324-40-3	10-30	<u>lithium fluorophosphate</u>
7440-50-8	7-13	<u>copper</u>
7429-90-5	5-10	<u>aluminium</u>
7440-02-0	1-5	<u>nickel</u>
Legend:		1. Classification by vendor; 2. Classification drawn from HCIS; 3. Classification drawn from Regulation (EU) No 1272/2008 - Annex VI; 4. Classification drawn from C&L; * EU IOELVs available

SECTION 4 First aid measures

Description of first aid measures

Eye Contact	If this product comes in contact with the eyes: ▶ Immediately hold eyelids apart and flush the eye continuously with running water. ▶ Ensure complete irrigation of the eye by keeping eyelids apart and away from eye and moving the eyelids by occasionally lifting the upper and lower lids. ▶ Continue flushing until advised to stop by the Poisons Information Centre or a doctor, or for at least 15 minutes. ▶ Transport to hospital or doctor without delay. ▶ Removal of contact lenses after an eye injury should only be undertaken by skilled personnel.
Skin Contact	If skin or hair contact occurs: ▶ Immediately flush body and clothes with large amounts of water, using safety shower if available. ▶ Quickly remove all contaminated clothing, including footwear. ▶ Wash skin and hair with running water. Continue flushing with water until advised to stop by the Poisons Information Centre. ▶ Transport to hospital, or doctor.
Inhalation	▶ If fumes or combustion products are inhaled remove from contaminated area. ▶ Lay patient down. Keep warm and rested. ▶ Prostheses such as false teeth, which may block airway, should be removed, where possible, prior to initiating first aid procedures. ▶ Apply artificial respiration if not breathing, preferably with a demand valve resuscitator, bag-valve mask device, or pocket mask as trained. Perform CPR if necessary. ▶ Transport to hospital, or doctor, without delay.
Ingestion	▶ For advice, contact a Poisons Information Centre or a doctor at once. ▶ Urgent hospital treatment is likely to be needed. ▶ 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. ▶ Transport to hospital or doctor without delay.

Indication of any immediate medical attention and special treatment needed

Treat symptomatically.

for copper intoxication:

- ▶ Unless extensive vomiting has occurred empty the stomach by lavage with water, milk, sodium bicarbonate solution or a 0.1% solution of potassium ferrocyanide (the resulting copper ferrocyanide is insoluble).
- ▶ Administer egg white and other demulcents.
- ▶ Maintain electrolyte and fluid balances.
- ▶ Morphine or meperidine (Demerol) may be necessary for control of pain.
- ▶ If symptoms persist or intensify (especially circulatory collapse or cerebral disturbances, try BAL intramuscularly or penicillamine in accordance with the supplier's recommendations.
- ▶ Treat shock vigorously with blood transfusions and perhaps vasopressor amines.
- ▶ If intravascular haemolysis becomes evident protect the kidneys by maintaining a diuresis with mannitol and perhaps by alkalising the urine with sodium bicarbonate.
- ▶ It is unlikely that methylene blue would be effective against the occasional methaemoglobinemia and it might exacerbate the subsequent haemolytic episode.
- ▶ Institute measures for impending renal and hepatic failure.

[GOSSELIN, SMITH & HODGE: Commercial Toxicology of Commercial Products]

- ▶ A role for activated charcoals for emesis is, as yet, unproven.
- ▶ In severe poisoning CaNa2EDTA has been proposed.

[ELLENHORN & BARCELOUX: Medical Toxicology]

Clinical effects of lithium intoxication appear to relate to duration of exposure as well as to level.

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- ▶ Lithium produces a generalised slowing of the electroencephalogram; the anion gap may increase in severe cases.
- ▶ Emesis (or lavage if the patient is obtunded or convulsing) is indicated for ingestions exceeding 40 mg (Li)/Kg.
- ▶ Overdose may delay absorption; decontamination measures may be more effective several hours after cathartics.
- ▶ Charcoal is not useful. No clinical data are available to guide the administration of catharsis.
- ▶ Haemodialysis significantly increases lithium clearance; indications for haemodialysis include patients with serum levels above 4 meq/L.
- ▶ There are no antidotes.

[Ellenhorn and Barceloux: Medical Toxicology]

For acute or short term repeated exposures to strong acids:

- ▶ Airway problems may arise from laryngeal edema and inhalation exposure. Treat with 100% oxygen initially.
- ▶ Respiratory distress may require cricothyroidotomy if endotracheal intubation is contraindicated by excessive swelling.
- ▶ Intravenous lines should be established immediately in all cases where there is evidence of circulatory compromise.
- ▶ Strong acids produce a coagulation necrosis characterised by formation of a coagulum (eschar) as a result of the desiccating action of the acid on proteins in specific tissues.

INGESTION:

- ▶ Immediate dilution (milk or water) within 30 minutes post ingestion is recommended.
- ▶ **DO NOT attempt to neutralise the acid since exothermic reaction may extend the corrosive injury.**
- ▶ Be careful to avoid further vomit since re-exposure of the mucosa to the acid is harmful. Limit fluids to one or two glasses in an adult.
- ▶ Charcoal has no place in acid management.
- ▶ Some authors suggest the use of lavage within 1 hour of ingestion.

SKIN:

- ▶ Skin lesions require copious saline irrigation. Treat chemical burns as thermal burns with non-adherent gauze and wrapping.
- ▶ Deep second-degree burns may benefit from topical silver sulfadiazine.

EYE:

- ▶ Eye injuries require retraction of the eyelids to ensure thorough irrigation of the conjunctival cul-de-sacs. Irrigation should last at least 20-30 minutes. **DO NOT use neutralising agents or any other additives.** Several litres of saline are required.
- ▶ Cycloplegic drops, (1% cyclopentolate for short-term use or 5% homatropine for longer term use) antibiotic drops, vasoconstrictive agents or artificial tears may be indicated dependent on the severity of the injury.
- ▶ Steroid eye drops should only be administered with the approval of a consulting ophthalmologist).

[Ellenhorn and Barceloux: Medical Toxicology]

- ▶ Chronic exposures to cobalt and its compounds results in the so-called "hard metal pneumoconiosis" amongst industrial workers. The lesions consist of nodular conglomerate shadows in the lungs, together with peribronchial infiltration. The disease may be reversible. The acute form of the disease resembles a hypersensitivity reaction with malaise, cough and wheezing; the chronic form progresses to cor pulmonale.
- ▶ Chronic therapeutic administration may cause goiter and reduced thyroid activity.
- ▶ An allergic dermatitis, usually confined to elbow flexures, the ankles and sides of the neck, has been described.
- ▶ Cobalt cardiomyopathy may be diagnosed early by changes in the final part of the ventricular ECG (repolarisation). In the presence of such disturbances, the changes in carbohydrate metabolism (revealed by the glucose test) are of important diagnostic value.
- ▶ Treatment generally consists of a combination of Retabolil (1 injection per week over 4 weeks) and beta-blockers (average dose 60-80 mg Obsidan/24 hr). Potassium salts and diuretics have also proved useful.

BIOLOGICAL EXPOSURE INDEX (BEI)

Determinant	Sampling time	Index	Comments
Cobalt in urine	End of shift at end of workweek	15 ug/L	B
Cobalt in blood	End of shift at end of workweek	1 ug/L	B, SQ

B: Background levels occur in specimens collected from subjects NOT exposed

SQ: Semi-quantitative determinant - Interpretation may be ambiguous; should be used as a screening test or confirmatory test.

For acute or short term repeated exposures to fluorides:

- ▶ Fluoride absorption from gastro-intestinal tract may be retarded by calcium salts, milk or antacids.
- ▶ Fluoride particulates or fume may be absorbed through the respiratory tract with 20-30% deposited at alveolar level.
- ▶ Peak serum levels are reached 30 mins. post-exposure; 50% appears in the urine within 24 hours.
- ▶ For acute poisoning (endotracheal intubation if inadequate tidal volume), monitor breathing and evaluate/monitor blood pressure and pulse frequently since shock may supervene with little warning. Monitor ECG immediately; watch for arrhythmias and evidence of Q-T prolongation or T-wave changes. Maintain monitor. Treat shock vigorously with isotonic saline (in 5% glucose) to restore blood volume and enhance renal excretion.
- ▶ Where evidence of hypocalcaemic or normocalcaemic tetany exists, calcium gluconate (10 ml of a 10% solution) is injected to avoid tachycardia.

BIOLOGICAL EXPOSURE INDEX - BEI

These represent the determinants observed in specimens collected from a healthy worker exposed at the Exposure Standard (ES or TLV):

Determinant	Index	Sampling Time	Comments
Fluorides in urine	3 mg/gm creatinine	Prior to shift	B, NS
	10mg/gm creatinine	End of shift	B, NS

B: Background levels occur in specimens collected from subjects **NOT** exposed

NS: Non-specific determinant; also observed after exposure to other exposures.

SECTION 5 Firefighting measures**Extinguishing media**

Metal dust fires need to be smothered with sand, inert dry powders.

DO NOT USE WATER, CO2 or FOAM.

- ▶ Use DRY sand, graphite powder, dry sodium chloride based extinguishers, G-1 or Met L-X to smother fire.
- ▶ Confining or smothering material is preferable to applying water as chemical reaction may produce flammable and explosive hydrogen gas.

- ▶ Chemical reaction with CO2 may produce flammable and explosive methane.
- ▶ If impossible to extinguish, withdraw, protect surroundings and allow fire to burn itself out.
- ▶ Sand, dry powder extinguishers or other inerts should be used to smother dust fires.
- ▶ **DO NOT** use halogenated fire extinguishing agents.

Special hazards arising from the substrate or mixture

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

Fire Fighting	▶ Alert Fire Brigade and tell them location and nature of hazard. ▶ Wear breathing apparatus plus protective gloves in the event of a fire. ▶ Prevent, by any means available, spillage from entering drains or water courses. ▶ Use fire fighting procedures suitable for surrounding area. ▶ DO NOT approach containers suspected to be hot. ▶ Cool fire exposed containers with water spray from a protected location. ▶ If safe to do so, remove containers from path of fire. ▶ Equipment should be thoroughly decontaminated after use.												
Fire/Explosion Hazard	▶ DO NOT disturb burning dust. Explosion may result if dust is stirred into a cloud, by providing oxygen to a large surface of hot metal. ▶ DO NOT use water or foam as generation of explosive hydrogen may result. With the exception of the metals that burn in contact with air or water (for example, sodium), masses of combustible metals do not represent unusual fire risks because they have the ability to conduct heat away from hot spots so efficiently that the heat of combustion cannot be maintained - this means that it will require a lot of heat to ignite a mass of combustible metal. Generally, metal fire risks exist when sawdust, machine shavings and other metal 'fines' are present. Metal powders, while generally regarded as non-combustible: ▶ May burn when metal is finely divided and energy input is high. ▶ May react explosively with water. ▶ May be ignited by friction, heat, sparks or flame. ▶ May REIGNITE after fire is extinguished. ▶ Will burn with intense heat. Note: ▶ Metal dust fires are slow moving but intense and difficult to extinguish. ▶ Containers may explode on heating. ▶ Dusts or fumes may form explosive mixtures with air. ▶ Gases generated in fire may be poisonous, corrosive or irritating. ▶ Hot or burning metals may react violently upon contact with other materials, such as oxidising agents and extinguishing agents used on fires involving ordinary combustibles or flammable liquids. ▶ Temperatures produced by burning metals can be higher than temperatures generated by burning flammable liquids ▶ Some metals can continue to burn in carbon dioxide, nitrogen, water, or steam atmospheres in which ordinary combustibles or flammable liquids would be incapable of burning. carbon dioxide (CO2) phosphorus oxides (POx) hydrogen fluoride metal oxides other pyrolysis products typical of burning organic material. When aluminium oxide dust is dispersed in air, firefighters should wear protection against inhalation of dust particles, which can also contain hazardous substances from the fire absorbed on the alumina particles. A fire in bulk finely divided carbon may not be obviously visible unless the material is disturbed and sparks appear. A straw broom may be useful to produce the disturbance. Explosion and Ignition Behaviour of Carbon Black with Air <table><tr><td>Lower Limit for Explosion:</td><td>50 g/m3 (carbon black in air)</td></tr><tr><td>Maximum Explosion Pressure:</td><td>10 bar</td></tr><tr><td>Maximum Rate of Pressure Rise:</td><td>30-100 bar/sec</td></tr><tr><td>Minimum Ignition Temperature:</td><td>315 deg. C.</td></tr><tr><td>Ignition Energy:</td><td>>1 kJ</td></tr><tr><td>Glow Temperature:</td><td>500 deg. C. (approx.)</td></tr></table> Notes on Test Methods: Tests 1, 2 and 3 were conducted by Bergwerkeschaftliche Versuchsstrecke, Dortmunde-Derne, using a 1 m3 vessel with two chemical igniters having an intensity of 5000 W.S. Tests 1 and 2 results are confirmed by information in the Handbook of Powder Technology, Vol. 4 (P. Field) In Test 4, a modified Godbert-Greenwald furnace was used. See U.S. Bureau of Mines, Report 5624, 1960, p.5, "Lab Equipment and Test Procedures". Test 5 used a 1 m3 vessel with chemical igniters of variable intensity. Test 6 was conducted in a laboratory oven. Active glowing appeared after 3 minutes exposure. (European Committee for Biological Effects of Carbon Black) (2/84)	Lower Limit for Explosion:	50 g/m3 (carbon black in air)	Maximum Explosion Pressure:	10 bar	Maximum Rate of Pressure Rise:	30-100 bar/sec	Minimum Ignition Temperature:	315 deg. C.	Ignition Energy:	>1 kJ	Glow Temperature:	500 deg. C. (approx.)
Lower Limit for Explosion:	50 g/m3 (carbon black in air)												
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Minimum Ignition Temperature:	315 deg. C.												
Ignition Energy:	>1 kJ												
Glow Temperature:	500 deg. C. (approx.)												
HAZCHEM	2Y												

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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	
	▶ Clear area of personnel and move upwind. ▶ Alert Fire Brigade and tell them location and nature of hazard. ▶ Wear full body protective clothing with breathing apparatus. ▶ Prevent, by all means available, spillage from entering drains or water courses. ▶ Consider evacuation (or protect in place). ▶ No smoking, naked lights or ignition sources. ▶ Increase ventilation.
Major Spills	▶ Stop leak if safe to do so. ▶ Water spray or fog may be used to disperse / absorb vapour. ▶ Contain or absorb spill with sand, earth or vermiculite. ▶ Collect recoverable product into labelled containers for recycling. ▶ Collect solid residues and seal in labelled drums for disposal. ▶ Wash area and prevent runoff into drains. ▶ After clean up operations, decontaminate and launder all protective clothing and equipment before storing and re-using. ▶ If contamination of drains or waterways occurs, advise emergency services.

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

SECTION 7 Handling and storage

Precautions for safe handling

Safe handling	NOTE: ▶ Wet, activated carbon removes oxygen from the air thus producing a severe hazard to workers inside carbon vessels and in enclosed or confined spaces where activated carbons might accumulate. ▶ Before entry to such areas, sampling and test procedures for low oxygen levels should be undertaken; control conditions should be established to ensure the availability of adequate oxygen supply. ▶ 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	Carbon and charcoal may be stabilised for storage and transport, without moistening, by treatment with hot air at 50 deg. C.. Use of oxygen-impermeable bags to limit oxygen and moisture uptake has been proposed. Surface contamination with oxygenated volatiles may generate a heat of reaction (spontaneous heating). Should stored product reach 110 deg. C., stacked bags should be pulled apart with each bag separated by an air space to permit cooling away from other combustible materials. ▶ Store in original containers. ▶ Keep containers securely sealed. ▶ Store in a cool, dry, well-ventilated area. ▶ Store away from incompatible materials and foodstuff containers. ▶ Protect containers against physical damage and check regularly for leaks. ▶ Observe manufacturer's storage and handling recommendations contained within this SDS.

Conditions for safe storage, including any incompatibilities

Suitable container	▶ Lined metal can, lined metal pail/ can. ▶ Plastic pail. ▶ Polyliner drum. ▶ Packing as recommended by manufacturer. ▶ Check all containers are clearly labelled and free from leaks.
Storage incompatibility	Inorganic derivative of Group 11 metal. For aluminas (aluminium oxide): Incompatible with hot chlorinated rubber. In the presence of chlorine trifluoride may react violently and ignite.

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- May initiate explosive polymerisation of olefin oxides including ethylene oxide.
- Produces exothermic reaction above 200°C with halocarbons and an exothermic reaction at ambient temperatures with halocarbons in the presence of other metals.
- Produces exothermic reaction with oxygen difluoride.
- May form explosive mixture with oxygen difluoride.
- Forms explosive mixtures with sodium nitrate.
- Reacts vigorously with vinyl acetate.

Aluminium oxide is an amphoteric substance, meaning it can react with both acids and bases, such as hydrofluoric acid and sodium hydroxide, acting as an acid with a base and a base with an acid, neutralising the other and producing a salt.

- ▶ Inorganic acids are generally soluble in water with the release of hydrogen ions. The resulting solutions have pH's of less than 7.0.
- ▶ Inorganic acids neutralise chemical bases (for example: amines and inorganic hydroxides) to form salts - neutralisation can generate dangerously large amounts of heat in small spaces.
- ▶ The dissolution of inorganic acids in water or the dilution of their concentrated solutions with additional water may generate significant heat.
- ▶ The addition of water to inorganic acids often generates sufficient heat in the small region of mixing to cause some of the water to boil explosively. The resulting "bumping" can spatter the acid.
- ▶ Inorganic acids react with active metals, including such structural metals as aluminum and iron, to release hydrogen, a flammable gas.
- ▶ Inorganic acids can initiate the polymerisation of certain classes of organic compounds.
- ▶ Inorganic acids react with cyanide compounds to release gaseous hydrogen cyanide.
- ▶ Inorganic acids generate flammable and/or toxic gases in contact with dithiocarbamates, isocyanates, mercaptans, nitrides, nitriles, sulfides, and strong reducing agents. Additional gas-generating reactions occur with sulfites, nitrites, thiosulfates (to give H₂S and SO₃), dithionites (SO₂), and even carbonates.
- ▶ Acids often catalyse (increase the rate of) chemical reactions.
- ▶ 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
- ▶ Many metals may incandesce, react violently, ignite or react explosively upon addition of concentrated nitric acid.

Metals exhibit varying degrees of activity. Reaction is reduced in the massive form (sheet, rod, or drop), compared with finely divided forms. The less active metals will not burn in air but:

- ▶ can react exothermically with oxidising acids to form noxious gases.
 - ▶ catalyse polymerisation and other reactions, particularly when finely divided
 - ▶ react with halogenated hydrocarbons (for example, copper dissolves when heated in carbon tetrachloride), sometimes forming explosive compounds.
 - ▶ Finely divided metal powders develop pyrophoricity when a critical specific surface area is exceeded; this is ascribed to high heat of oxide formation on exposure to air.
 - ▶ Safe handling is possible in relatively low concentrations of oxygen in an inert gas.
 - ▶ Several pyrophoric metals, stored in glass bottles have ignited when the container is broken on impact. Storage of these materials moist and in metal containers is recommended.
 - ▶ The reaction residues from various metal syntheses (involving vacuum evaporation and co-deposition with a ligand) are often pyrophoric.
- Factors influencing the pyrophoricity of metals are particle size, presence of moisture, nature of the surface of the particle, heat of formation of the oxide, or nitride, mass, hydrogen content, stress, purity and presence of oxide, among others.
- ▶ Many metals in elemental form react exothermically with compounds having active hydrogen atoms (such as acids and water) to form flammable hydrogen gas and caustic products.
 - ▶ Elemental metals may react with azo/diazo compounds to form explosive products.
 - ▶ Some elemental metals form explosive products with halogenated hydrocarbons.

For carbon powders:

- ▶ Avoid oxidising agents, reducing agents.
- ▶ Reaction with finely divided metals, bromates, chlorates, chloramine monoxide, dichlorine oxide, iodates, metal nitrates, oxygen difluoride, peroxyformic acid, peroxyfuroic acid and trioxxygen difluoride may result in an exotherm with ignition or explosion. Less active forms of carbon will ignite or explode on suitably intimate contact with oxygen, oxides, peroxides, oxosalts, halogens, interhalogens and other oxidising species.
- ▶ Explosive reaction with ammonium nitrate, ammonium perchlorate, calcium hypochlorite and iodine pentoxide may occur following heating. Carbon may react violently with nitric acid and may be explosively reactive with nitrogen trifluoride at reduced temperatures. In the presence of nitrogen oxide, incandescence and ignition may occur. Finely divided or highly porous forms of carbon, exhibiting a high surface area to mass (up to 2000 m²/g) may function as unusually active fuels possessing both adsorptive and catalytic properties which accelerate the release of energy in the presence of oxidising substances. Dry metal-impregnated charcoal catalysts may generate sufficient static, during handling, to cause ignition.
- ▶ Graphite in contact with liquid potassium, rubidium or caesium at 300 deg. C. produces intercalation compounds (C₈M) which ignite in air and may react explosively with water. The fusion of powdered diamond and potassium hydroxide may produce explosive decomposition.
- ▶ Activated carbon, when exposed to air, represents a potential fire hazard due to a high surface area and adsorptive capacity. Freshly prepared material may ignite spontaneously in the presence of air especially at high humidity. Spontaneous combustion in air may occur at 90-100 deg. C. The presence of moisture in air facilitates the ignition. Drying oils and oxidising oils promote spontaneous heating and ignition; contamination with these must be avoided. Unsaturated drying oils (linseed oil etc.) may ignite following adsorption owing to an enormous increase in the surface area of oil exposed to air; the rate of oxidation may also be catalysed by metallic impurities in the carbon. A similar, but slower effect occurs on fibrous materials such as cotton waste. Spontaneous heating of activated carbon is related to the composition and method of preparation of the activated carbon. Free radicals, present in charcoal, are responsible for autoignition. Self-heating and autoignition may also result from adsorption of various vapours and gases (especially oxygen). For example, activated carbon auto- ignites in flowing air at 452-518 deg. C.; when the base, triethylenediamine, is adsorbed on the carbon (5%) the autoignition temperature is reduced to 230-260 deg. C.. An exotherm is produced at 230-260 deg. C., at high flow rates of air,

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although ignition did not occur until 500 deg. C.. Mixtures of sodium borohydride with activated carbons, in air, promote the oxidation of sodium borohydride, producing a self-heating reaction that may result in the ignition of charcoal and in the production of hydrogen through thermal decomposition of the borohydride.



X — Must not be stored together
O — May be stored together with specific preventions
+ — May be stored together

Note: Depending on other risk factors, compatibility assessment based on the table above may not be relevant to storage situations, particularly where large volumes of dangerous goods are stored and handled. Reference should be made to the Safety Data Sheets for each substance or article and risks assessed accordingly.

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	graphite	Graphite (all forms except fibres) (respirable dust) (natural & synthetic)	3 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	(e) Containing no asbestos and < 1% crystalline silica.
Australia Exposure Standards	copper	Copper (fume)	0.2 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	copper	Copper, dusts & mists (as Cu)	1 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	aluminium	Aluminium (welding fumes) (as Al)	5 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	aluminium	Aluminium (metal dust)	10 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	aluminium	Aluminium, pyro powders (as Al)	5 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	nickel	Nickel, powder	1 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Australia Exposure Standards	nickel	Nickel, metal	1 mg/m3	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available

Ingredient	Original IDLH	Revised IDLH
lithium cobaltate	Not Available	Not Available
graphite	1,250 mg/m3	Not Available
lithium fluorophosphate	Not Available	Not Available
copper	100 mg/m3	Not Available
aluminium	Not Available	Not Available
nickel	10 mg/m3	Not Available

MATERIAL DATA

For graphite:
Graphite pneumoconiosis resembles coal workers' pneumoconiosis. Data indicate that the higher the crystalline silica content of graphite the more likely the disease will increase in severity. The presence of anthracite coal in the production of some synthetic grades of graphite appears to make arbitrary the use of the term, "synthetic", "artificial" or "natural".

The TLV-TWA for carbon black is recommended to minimise complaints of excessive dirtiness and applies only to commercially produced carbon blacks or to soots derived from combustion sources containing absorbed polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs). When PAHs are present in carbon black (measured as the cyclohexane-extractable fraction) NIOSH has established a REL-TWA of 0.1 mg/m3 and considers the material to be an occupational carcinogen. The NIOSH REL-TWA was "selected on the basis of professional judgement rather than on data delineating safe from unsafe concentrations of PAHs". This limit was justified on the basis of feasibility of measurement and not on a demonstration of its safety.
For aluminium oxide and pyrophoric grades of aluminium:
Twenty seven year experience with aluminium oxide dust (particle size 96% 1.2 um) without adverse effects either systemically or on the lung, and at a calculated concentration equivalent to 2 mg/m3 over an 8-hour shift has lead to the current recommendation of the TLV-TWA.
The limit should also apply to aluminium pyro powders whose toxicity is reportedly greater than aluminium dusts and should be protective against lung changes.

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

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

These exposure guidelines have been derived from a screening level of risk assessment and should not be construed as unequivocally safe limits. ORGS represent an 8-hour time-weighted average unless specified otherwise.

CR = Cancer Risk/10000; UF = Uncertainty factor:

TLV believed to be adequate to protect reproductive health:

LOD: Limit of detection

Toxic endpoints have also been identified as:

D = Developmental; R = Reproductive; TC = Transplacental carcinogen

Jankovic J., Drake F.: A Screening Method for Occupational Reproductive

American Industrial Hygiene Association Journal 57: 641-649 (1996)

for cobalt:

In view of the serious effects seen in experimental animals after a relatively short exposure period at 0.1 mg/m³ the recommended TLV-TWA is thought to reduce the significant risk of material impairment of health posed by respiratory disease and pulmonary sensitisation which have been shown to occur at higher levels of exposure. The value does not apply generally to cobalt compounds.

A significant increase in the risk of lung cancer was reported among workers involved in cobalt production (with concomitant exposure to nickel and arsenic) and hard-metal workers with documented exposure to cobalt-containing dusts. A significant increase in lung cancer risk has been observed in workers whose exposure began more than 20 years previously. A number of single cases of malignant tumours, mostly sarcomas, have been reported at the site, following implant of cobalt-containing orthopedic implants.

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. ▶ Employees exposed to confirmed human carcinogens should be authorized to do so by the employer, and work in a regulated area. ▶ Work should be undertaken in an isolated system such as a "glove-box" . Employees should wash their hands and arms upon completion of the assigned task and before engaging in other activities not associated with the isolated system. ▶ Within regulated areas, the carcinogen should be stored in sealed containers, or enclosed in a closed system, including piping systems, with any sample ports or openings closed while the carcinogens are contained within. ▶ Open-vessel systems are prohibited. ▶ Each operation should be provided with continuous local exhaust ventilation so that air movement is always from ordinary work areas to the operation. ▶ Exhaust air should not be discharged to regulated areas, non-regulated areas or the external environment unless decontaminated. Clean make-up air should be introduced in sufficient volume to maintain correct operation of the local exhaust system. ▶ For maintenance and decontamination activities, authorized employees entering the area should be provided with and required to wear clean, impervious garments, including gloves, boots and continuous-air supplied hood. Prior to removing protective garments the employee should undergo decontamination and be required to shower upon removal of the garments and hood. ▶ Except for outdoor systems, regulated areas should be maintained under negative pressure (with respect to non-regulated areas). ▶ Local exhaust ventilation requires make-up air be supplied in equal volumes to replaced air. ▶ Laboratory hoods must be designed and maintained so as to draw air inward at an average linear face velocity of 0.76 m/sec with a minimum of 0.64 m/sec. Design and construction of the fume hood requires that insertion of any portion of the employees body, other than hands and arms, be disallowed. Exhaust ventilation should be designed to prevent accumulation and recirculation in the workplace and safely remove carbon black from the air. Note: Wet, activated carbon removes oxygen from the air and thus presents a severe hazard to workers inside carbon vessels and enclosed or confined spaces. Before entering such areas sampling and test procedures for low oxygen levels should be undertaken and control conditions set up to ensure ample oxygen availability.[Linde]
Individual protection measures, such as personal protective equipment	
Eye and face protection	▶ Chemical goggles. ▶ Full face shield may be required for supplementary but never for primary protection of eyes. ▶ Contact lenses may pose a special hazard; soft contact lenses may absorb and concentrate irritants. A written policy document, describing the wearing of lenses or restrictions on use, should be created for each workplace or task. This should include a review of lens absorption and adsorption for the class of chemicals in use and an account of injury experience. Medical and first-aid personnel should be trained in their removal and suitable equipment should be readily available. In the event of chemical exposure, begin eye irrigation immediately and remove contact lens as soon as practicable. Lens should be removed at the first signs of eye redness or irritation - lens should be removed in a clean environment only after workers have washed hands thoroughly. [CDC NIOSH Current Intelligence Bulletin 59], [AS/NZS 1336 or national equivalent]
Skin protection	See Hand protection below

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Hands/feet protection	▶ Wear chemical protective gloves, e.g. PVC. ▶ Wear safety footwear or safety gumboots, e.g. Rubber NOTE: ▶ The material may produce skin sensitisation in predisposed individuals. Care must be taken, when removing gloves and other protective equipment, to avoid all possible skin contact. ▶ Contaminated leather items, such as shoes, belts and watch-bands should be removed and destroyed.
Body protection	See Other protection below
Other protection	▶ Employees working with confirmed human carcinogens should be provided with, and be required to wear, clean, full body protective clothing (smocks, coveralls, or long-sleeved shirt and pants), shoe covers and gloves prior to entering the regulated area. [AS/NZS ISO 6529:2006 or national equivalent] ▶ Employees engaged in handling operations involving carcinogens should be provided with, and required to wear and use half-face filter-type respirators with filters for dusts, mists and fumes, or air purifying canisters or cartridges. A respirator affording higher levels of protection may be substituted. [AS/NZS 1715 or national equivalent] ▶ Emergency deluge showers and eyewash fountains, supplied with potable water, should be located near, within sight of, and on the same level with locations where direct exposure is likely. ▶ Prior to each exit from an area containing confirmed human carcinogens, employees should be required to remove and leave protective clothing and equipment at the point of exit and at the last exit of the day, to place used clothing and equipment in impervious containers at the point of exit for purposes of decontamination or disposal. The contents of such impervious containers must be identified with suitable labels. For maintenance and decontamination activities, authorized employees entering the area should be provided with and required to wear clean, impervious garments, including gloves, boots and continuous-air supplied hood. ▶ Prior to removing protective garments the employee should undergo decontamination and be required to shower upon removal of the garments and hood. ▶ Overalls. ▶ P.V.C apron. ▶ Barrier cream. ▶ Skin cleansing cream. ▶ Eye wash unit.

Respiratory protection

- Respirators may be necessary when engineering and administrative controls do not adequately prevent exposures.
- The decision to use respiratory protection should be based on professional judgment that takes into account toxicity information, exposure measurement data, and frequency and likelihood of the worker's exposure - ensure users are not subject to high thermal loads which may result in heat stress or distress due to personal protective equipment (powered, positive flow, full face apparatus may be an option).
- Published occupational exposure limits, where they exist, will assist in determining the adequacy of the selected respiratory protection. These may be government mandated or vendor recommended.
- Certified respirators will be useful for protecting workers from inhalation of particulates when properly selected and fit tested as part of a complete respiratory protection program.
- Where protection from nuisance levels of dusts are desired, use type N95 (US) or type P1 (EN143) dust masks. Use respirators and components tested and approved under appropriate government standards such as NIOSH (US) or CEN (EU)
- Use approved positive flow mask if significant quantities of dust becomes airborne.
- Try to avoid creating dust conditions.

Where significant concentrations of the material are likely to enter the breathing zone, a Class P3 respirator may be required.

Class P3 particulate filters are used for protection against highly toxic or highly irritant particulates.

Filtration rate: Filters at least 99.95% of airborne particles

Suitable for:

- Relatively small particles generated by mechanical processes eg. grinding, cutting, sanding, drilling, sawing.
- Sub-micron thermally generated particles e.g. welding fumes, fertilizer and bushfire smoke.
- Biologically active airborne particles under specified infection control applications e.g. viruses, bacteria, COVID-19, SARS
- Highly toxic particles e.g. Organophosphate Insecticides, Radionuclides, Asbestos

Note: P3 Rating can only be achieved when used with a Full Face Respirator or Powered Air-Purifying Respirator (PAPR). If used with any other respirator, it will only provide filtration protection up to a P2 rating.

SECTION 9 Physical and chemical properties

Information on basic physical and chemical properties

Appearance	Not Available		
Physical state	Not Available	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 Available	Decomposition temperature (°C)	Not Available
Melting point / freezing point (°C)	Not Available	Viscosity (cSt)	Not Available
Initial boiling point and boiling range (°C)	Not Available	Molecular weight (g/mol)	Not Available

Flash point (°C)	Not Available	Taste	Not Available
Evaporation rate	Not Available	Explosive properties	Not Available
Flammability	Not Applicable	Oxidising properties	Not Available
Upper Explosive Limit (%)	Not Available	Surface Tension (dyn/cm or mN/m)	Not Available
Lower Explosive Limit (%)	Not Available	Volatile Component (%vol)	Not Available
Vapour pressure (kPa)	Not Available	Gas group	Not Available
Solubility in water	Not Available	pH as a solution (1%)	Not Available
Vapour density (Air = 1)	Not Available	VOC g/L	Not Available
Heat of Combustion (kJ/g)	Not Available	Ignition Distance (cm)	Not Available
Flame Height (cm)	Not Available	Flame Duration (s)	Not Available
Enclosed Space Ignition Time Equivalent (s/m3)	Not Available	Enclosed Space Ignition Deflagration Density (g/m3)	Not Available

SECTION 10 Stability and reactivity

Reactivity	See section 7
Chemical stability	
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

a) Acute Toxicity	There is sufficient evidence to classify this material as acutely toxic.
b) Skin Irritation/Corrosion	There is sufficient evidence to classify this material as skin corrosive or irritating.
c) Serious Eye Damage/Irritation	There is sufficient evidence to classify this material as eye damaging or irritating
d) Respiratory or Skin sensitisation	There is sufficient evidence to classify this material as sensitising to skin or the respiratory system
e) Mutagenicity	There is sufficient evidence to classify this material as mutagenic
f) Carcinogenicity	There is sufficient evidence to classify this material as carcinogenic
g) Reproductivity	Based on available data, the classification criteria are not met.
h) STOT - Single Exposure	There is sufficient evidence to classify this material as toxic to specific organs through single exposure
i) STOT - Repeated Exposure	There is sufficient evidence to classify this material as toxic to specific organs through repeated exposure
j) Aspiration Hazard	Based on available data, the classification criteria are not met.

Inhaled	Evidence shows, or practical experience predicts, that the material produces irritation of the respiratory system, in a substantial number of individuals, following inhalation. In contrast to most organs, the lung is able to respond to a chemical insult by first removing or neutralising the irritant and then repairing the damage. The repair process, which initially evolved to protect mammalian lungs from foreign matter and antigens, may however, produce further lung damage resulting in the impairment of gas exchange, the primary function of the lungs. Respiratory tract irritation often results in an inflammatory response involving the recruitment and activation of many cell types, mainly derived from the vascular system. Inhalation of vapours or aerosols (mists, fumes), generated by the material during the course of normal handling, may produce severe damage to the health of the individual. Relatively small amounts absorbed through the lungs may prove fatal. Side effects of the inhalation of cobalt and its compounds may include flushing of the face and ringing in the ears (tinnitus). Cobalt inhalation can be lethal in animals if exposure is sufficiently high or prolonged. The acute LC50 for a 30-minute inhalation exposure in rats was 165 mg cobalt/m3 as cobalt hydrocarbonyl. Exposure to 9 mg cobalt/m3 as cobalt hydrocarbonyl for 6 hours/day, 5 days/week for 3 months resulted in 16 deaths out of 75 rats. Death was reported in rats and mice exposed to 19 mg cobalt/m3 (but not 1.9 mg cobalt/m3) as cobalt sulfate over 16 days, but exposure to 11.4 mg cobalt/m3 over 13 weeks was lethal only to mice and not to rats. Exposure to 1.14 mg cobalt/m3 as cobalt sulfate for 104 weeks resulted in no increase in mortality in rats and mice of either sex. Inhalation of stable cobalt by humans and/or animals resulted in respiratory, cardiovascular, hematological, hepatic, renal, endocrine, ocular, and body weight effects. As with exposures in humans, exposures of animals to cobalt-containing aerosols have resulted in pronounced respiratory effects. Animals exposed to aerosols of cobalt oxides and cobalt sulfate developed respiratory effects that varied in severity with exposure level and duration. A single 30-minute exposure of rats to relatively high levels (26-236 mg cobalt/m3 as cobalt hydrocarbonyl) resulted in congestion, edema, and hemorrhage of the lung. Prolonged exposure (3-4 months) of rats and rabbits to mixed cobalt oxides (0.4-9 mg cobalt/m3) resulted in lesions in the alveolar region of
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the respiratory tract characterised histologically by nodular accumulation of Type II epithelial cells, accumulations of enlarged highly vacuolated macrophages, interstitial inflammation, and fibrosis. In at least one instance, the lesions appeared to regress when exposure was terminated. Guinea pigs sensitized to cobalt by repeated dermal application and then exposed to 2.4 mg cobalt/m³ as cobalt chloride showed pulmonary inflammatory changes (altered BAL fluid recovery, increased neutrophils and eosinophils in the recovered BAL fluid) that were different than those in exposed animals not sensitised to cobalt. Decreased lung compliance was found in pigs exposed to 0.1 mg cobalt/m³ as cobalt dust for 3 months. Lifetime exposure of hamsters to 7.9 mg cobalt/m³ as cobalt oxide resulted in emphysema. Necrosis and inflammation of the respiratory tract epithelium (nasal turbinates, larynx, trachea, bronchioles) were reported in rats exposed to 19 mg cobalt/m³ and mice exposed to 1.9 mg cobalt/m³ or greater as cobalt sulfate over 16 days. Exposure of rats and mice to cobalt as cobalt sulfate for 13 weeks resulted in adverse effects on all parts of the respiratory tract, with the larynx being the most sensitive part.

Acidic corrosives produce respiratory tract irritation with coughing, choking and mucous membrane damage. Symptoms of exposure may include dizziness, headache, nausea and weakness. In more severe exposures, pulmonary oedema may be evident either immediately or after a latent period of 5-72 hours. Symptoms of pulmonary oedema include a tightness in the chest, dyspnoea, frothy sputum and cyanosis. Examination may reveal hypotension, a weak and rapid pulse and moist rates. Death, due to anoxia, may occur several hours after onset of the pulmonary oedema.

Although carbon itself has no toxic action, associated impurities may be toxic. Iodine is often found as an impurity and air-borne carbon dusts, as a result, may produce irritation of the mucous membranes, the eyes, and skin. Symptoms of exposure may include coughing, irritation of the nose and throat and burning of the eyes.

Copper poisoning following exposure to copper dusts and fume may result in headache, cold sweat and weak pulse. Capillary, kidney, liver and brain damage are the longer term manifestations of such poisoning. 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.

Health hazards from welding fume containing cobalt are not well documented but there are well-known dangers associated with the processing of the substance by other techniques. Inhalation of the fume may result in shortness of breath, coughing and pneumonitis. Hypersensitivity, involving lung changes, occurs in a small number of workers exposed to the fume; the symptoms disappear after exposure ends. Obliterative bronchiolitis adenomatosis has been produced in guinea pigs receiving intratracheal injections of 10 mg cobalt dust. Intratracheal administration of 12.5 mg/kg caused lethargy and death in rats in 15 minutes to 6 hours.

Ingestion

Severely toxic effects may result from the accidental ingestion of the material; animal experiments indicate that ingestion of less than 5 gram may be fatal or may produce serious damage to the health of the individual.

The material can produce chemical burns within the oral cavity and gastrointestinal tract following ingestion.

Large doses of lithium ion have caused dizziness and prostration and can cause kidney damage if sodium intake is limited.

Dehydration, weight-loss, dermatological effects and thyroid disturbances have been reported. Central nervous system effects that include slurred speech, blurred vision, sensory loss, impaired concentration, irritability, lethargy, confusion, disorientation, drowsiness, anxiety, spasticity, delirium, stupor, ataxia (loss of muscle coordination), sedation, fine and gross tremor, giddiness, twitching and convulsions may occur. Diarrhoea, vomiting and neuromuscular effects such as tremor, clonus (rapid contraction and relaxation of muscles) and hyperactive reflexes may occur as a result of repeated exposure to lithium.

Acute severe overexposure may affect the kidneys, resulting in renal dysfunction, albuminuria, oliguria and degenerative changes. Cardiovascular effects may also result in cardiac arrhythmias and hypotension.

The primary target organ for lithium toxicity is the central nervous system. Lithium is therefore used therapeutically on membrane transport proteins in the central nervous system when treating manic-depression. Lithium is moderately toxic with lethal dose of LiCl in rats of 526-840 mg/kg body weight. After chronic exposure to 1 meq/L decreased brain weight was observed in male offspring. Chemically, lithium resembles sodium, but is more toxic: in humans 5 g LiCl can result in fatal poisoning. In therapeutic doses, damages on the central nervous system and the kidneys have been reported.

Acute toxic responses to aluminium are confined to the more soluble forms.

Ingestion of finely divided carbon may produce gagging and constipation. Aspiration does not appear to be a concern as the material is generally regarded as inert and is often used as a food additive. Ingestion may produce a black stool.

Ingestion of acidic corrosives may produce circumoral burns with a distinct discolouration of the mucous membranes of the mouth, throat and oesophagus. Immediate pain and difficulties in swallowing and speaking may also be evident. Oedema of the epiglottis may produce respiratory distress and possibly, asphyxia. Nausea, vomiting, diarrhoea and a pronounced thirst may occur. More severe exposures may produce a vomitus containing fresh or dark blood and large shreds of mucosa. Shock, with marked hypotension, weak and rapid pulse, shallow respiration and clammy skin may be symptomatic of the exposure. Circulatory collapse may, if left untreated, result in renal failure. Severe cases may show gastric and oesophageal perforation with peritonitis, fever and abdominal rigidity. Stricture of the oesophageal, gastric and pyloric sphincter may occur as within several weeks or may be delayed for years. Death may be rapid and often results from asphyxia, circulatory collapse or aspiration of even minute amounts. Delayed deaths may be due to peritonitis, severe nephritis or pneumonia. Coma and convulsions may be terminal.

Studies have shown that soluble cobalt compounds are generally more acutely toxic than insoluble cobalt compounds. When expressed in terms of the cobalt ion for the sake of comparison, however, the differences in lethality values from the available studies are within an order of magnitude.

Animal test indicate an increase in red blood cells (polycythaemia) following the absorption of cobalt salts. [ICI] In toxic doses soluble cobalt salts act locally on the gastro-intestinal tract to produce pain and vomiting. Systemic effects in man include a peculiar vasodilation (flushing) of the face and ears, mild hypotension, rash, tinnitus (ringing in the ears) and nerve deafness. [GOSSELIN, SMITH HODGE: Clinical Toxicology of Commercial Products]

Numerous cases of a single oral exposure to high levels of copper have been reported. Consumption of copper-contaminated drinking water has been associated with mainly gastrointestinal symptoms including nausea, abdominal pain, vomiting and diarrhoea. A metallic taste, nausea, vomiting and epigastric burning often occur after ingestion of copper and its derivatives. The

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	vomit is usually green/blue and discolours contaminated skin. Acute poisonings from the ingestion of copper salts are rare due to their prompt removal by vomiting. Vomiting is due mainly to the local and astringent action of copper ion on the stomach and bowel. Emesis usually occurs within 5 to 10 minutes but may be delayed if food is present in the stomach. Should vomiting not occur, or is delayed, gradual absorption from the bowel may result in systemic poisoning with death, possibly, following within several days. Apparent recovery may be followed by lethal relapse. Systemic effects of copper resemble other heavy metal poisonings and produce wide-spread capillary damage, kidney and liver damage and central nervous system excitation followed by depression. Haemolytic anaemia (a result of red-blood cell damage) has been described in acute human poisoning. [GOSSELIN, SMITH HODGE: Clinical Toxicology of Commercial Products.] Other symptoms of copper poisoning include lethargy, neurotoxicity, and increased blood pressure and respiratory rates. Coma and death have followed attempted suicides using solutions of copper sulfate. Copper is an essential element and most animal tissues have measurable amounts of copper associated with them. Humans have evolved mechanisms which maintain its availability whilst limiting its toxicity (homeostasis). Copper is initially bound in the body to a blood-borne protein, serum albumin and thereafter is more firmly bound to another protein, alpha-ceruloplasmin. Such binding effectively "inactivates" the copper, thus reducing its potential to produce toxic damage. In healthy individuals, bound copper can reach relatively high levels without producing adverse health effects. Excretion in the bile represents the major pathway by which copper is removed from the body when it reaches potentially toxic levels. Copper may also be stored in the liver and bone marrow where it is bound to another protein, metallothionein. A combination of binding and excretion ensures that the body is able to tolerate relatively high loadings of copper.
Skin Contact	Skin contact with the material may produce toxic effects; systemic effects may result following absorption. The material can produce chemical burns following direct contact with the skin. Contact with aluminas (aluminium oxides) may produce a form of irritant dermatitis accompanied by pruritus. Though considered non-harmful, slight irritation may result from contact because of the abrasive nature of the aluminium oxide particles. 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. Irritation and skin reactions are possible with sensitive skin. Skin contact with acidic corrosives may result in pain and burns; these may be deep with distinct edges and may heal slowly with the formation of scar tissue. Exposure to copper, by skin, has come from its use in pigments, ointments, ornaments, jewellery, dental amalgams and IUDs and as an antifungal agent and an algicide. Although copper alginates are used in the treatment of water in swimming pools and reservoirs, there are no reports of toxicity from these applications. Reports of allergic contact dermatitis following contact with copper and its salts have appeared in the literature, however the exposure concentrations leading to any effect have been poorly characterised. In one study, patch testing of 1190 eczema patients found that only 13 (1.1%) cross-reacted with 2% copper sulfate in petrolatum. The investigators warned, however, that the possibility of contamination with nickel (an established contact allergen) might have been the cause of the reaction. Copper salts often produce an itching eczema in contact with skin. This is, likely, of a non-allergic nature.
Eye	The material can produce chemical burns to the eye following direct contact. Vapours or mists may be extremely irritating. When applied to the eye(s) of animals, the material produces severe ocular lesions which are present twenty-four hours or more after instillation. Irritation of the eyes may produce a heavy secretion of tears (lachrymation). Direct eye contact with acid corrosives may produce pain, lachrymation, photophobia and burns. Mild burns of the epithelia generally recover rapidly and completely. Severe burns produce long-lasting and possible irreversible damage. The appearance of the burn may not be apparent for several weeks after the initial contact. The cornea may ultimately become deeply vascularised and opaque resulting in blindness. Symptoms of exposure by the eye to carbon particulates include irritation and a burning sensation. Following an industrial explosion, fine particles become embedded in the cornea and conjunctiva resulting in an inflammation which persisted for 2-3 weeks. Some particles remained permanently producing a punctate purplish-black discolouration. Copper salts, in contact with the eye, may produce conjunctivitis or even ulceration and turbidity of the cornea.
Chronic	Repeated or long-term occupational exposure is likely to produce cumulative health effects involving organs or biochemical systems. Long-term exposure to respiratory irritants may result in disease of the airways involving difficult breathing and related systemic problems. Practical evidence shows that inhalation of the material is capable of inducing a sensitisation reaction in a substantial 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. Practical experience shows that skin contact with the material is capable either of inducing a sensitisation reaction in a substantial number of individuals, and/or of producing a positive response in experimental animals. Substances that can cause occupational asthma (also known as asthmagens and respiratory sensitisers) can induce a state of specific airway hyper-responsiveness via an immunological, irritant or other mechanism. Once the airways have become hyper-responsive, further exposure to the substance, sometimes even to tiny quantities, may cause respiratory symptoms. These symptoms can range in severity from a runny nose to asthma. Not all workers who are exposed to a sensitizer will become hyper-responsive and it is impossible to identify in advance who are likely to become hyper-responsive. Substances that can cause occupational asthma should be distinguished from substances which may trigger the symptoms of asthma in people with pre-existing air-way hyper-responsiveness. The latter substances are not classified as asthmagens or respiratory sensitisers. Wherever it is reasonably practicable, exposure to substances that can cause occupational asthma should be prevented. Where this is not possible the primary aim is to apply adequate standards of control to prevent workers from becoming hyper-responsive. Activities giving rise to short-term peak concentrations should receive particular attention when risk management is being considered. Health surveillance is appropriate for all employees exposed or liable to be exposed to a substance which may

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cause occupational asthma and there should be appropriate consultation with an occupational health professional over the degree of risk and level of surveillance.

On the basis, primarily, of animal experiments, the material may be regarded as carcinogenic to humans. There is sufficient evidence to provide a strong presumption that human exposure to the material may result in cancer on the basis of:

- appropriate long-term animal studies
- other relevant information

There is sufficient evidence to provide a strong presumption that human exposure to the material may produce heritable genetic damage.

There is sufficient evidence to provide a strong presumption that human exposure to the material may result in the development of heritable genetic damage, generally on the basis of

- appropriate animal studies,
- other relevant information

Toxic: danger of serious damage to health by prolonged exposure through inhalation, in contact with skin and if swallowed.

Serious damage (clear functional disturbance or morphological change which may have toxicological significance) is likely to be caused by repeated or prolonged exposure. As a rule the material produces, or contains a substance which produces severe lesions. Such damage may become apparent following direct application in subchronic (90 day) toxicity studies or following sub-acute (28 day) or chronic (two-year) toxicity tests.

Chronic exposure to aluminas (aluminium oxides) of particle size 1.2 microns did not produce significant systemic or respiratory system effects in workers. Epidemiologic surveys have indicated an excess of nonmalignant respiratory disease in workers exposed to aluminum oxide during abrasives production.

Very fine Al₂O₃ powder was not fibrogenic in rats, guinea pigs, or hamsters when inhaled for 6 to 12 months and sacrificed at periods up to 12 months following the last exposure.

When hydrated aluminas were injected intratracheally, they produced dense and numerous nodules of advanced fibrosis in rats, a reticulin network with occasional collagen fibres in mice and guinea pigs, and only a slight reticulin network in rabbits. Shaver's disease, a rapidly progressive and often fatal interstitial fibrosis of the lungs, is associated with a process involving the fusion of bauxite (aluminium oxide) with iron, coke and silica at 2000 deg. C.

The weight of evidence suggests that catalytically active alumina and the large surface area aluminas can induce lung fibrosis(aluminosis) in experimental animals, but only when given by the intra-tracheal route. The pertinence of such experiments in relation to workplace exposure is doubtful especially since it has been demonstrated that the most reactive of the aluminas (i.e. the chi and gamma forms), when given by inhalation, are non-fibrogenic in experimental animals. However rats exposed by inhalation to refractory aluminium fibre showed mild fibrosis and possibly carcinogenic effects indicating that fibrous aluminas might exhibit different toxicology to non-fibrous forms. Aluminium oxide fibres administered by the intrapleural route produce clear evidence of carcinogenicity.

Saffil fibre an artificially produced form alumina fibre used as refractories, consists of over 95% alumina, 3-4 % silica. Animal tests for fibrogenic, carcinogenic potential and oral toxicity have included in-vitro, intraperitoneal injection, intrapleural injection, inhalation, and feeding. The fibre has generally been inactive in animal studies. Also studies of Saffil dust clouds show very low respirable fraction.

There is general agreement that particle size determines that the degree of pathogenicity (the ability of a micro-organism to produce infectious disease) of elementary aluminium, or its oxides or hydroxides when they occur as dusts, fumes or vapours.

Only those particles small enough to enter the alveoli (sub 5 um) are able to produce pathogenic effects in the lungs.

Occupational exposure to aluminium compounds may produce asthma, chronic obstructive lung disease and pulmonary fibrosis.

Long-term overexposure may produce dyspnoea, cough, pneumothorax, variable sputum production and nodular interstitial fibrosis; death has been reported. Chronic interstitial pneumonia with severe cavitations in the right upper lung and small cavities in the remaining lung tissue, have been observed in gross pathology. Shaver's Disease may result from occupational exposure to fumes or dusts; this may produce respiratory distress and fibrosis with large blebs. Animal studies produce no indication that aluminium or its compounds are carcinogenic.

Because aluminium competes with calcium for absorption, increased amounts of dietary aluminium may contribute to the reduced skeletal mineralisation (osteopenia) observed in preterm infants and infants with growth retardation. In very high doses, aluminium can cause neurotoxicity, and is associated with altered function of the blood-brain barrier. A small percentage of people are allergic to aluminium and experience contact dermatitis, digestive disorders, vomiting or other symptoms upon contact or ingestion of products containing aluminium, such as deodorants or antacids. In those without allergies, aluminium is not as toxic as heavy metals, but there is evidence of some toxicity if it is consumed in excessive amounts. Although the use of aluminium cookware has not been shown to lead to aluminium toxicity in general, excessive consumption of antacids containing aluminium compounds and excessive use of aluminium-containing antiperspirants provide more significant exposure levels.

Studies have shown that consumption of acidic foods or liquids with aluminium significantly increases aluminium absorption, and maltol has been shown to increase the accumulation of aluminium in nervous and osseous tissue. Furthermore, aluminium increases oestrogen-related gene expression in human breast cancer cells cultured in the laboratory. These salts' estrogen-like effects have led to their classification as a metalloestrogen. Some researchers have expressed concerns that the aluminium in antiperspirants may increase the risk of breast cancer.

After absorption, aluminium distributes to all tissues in animals and humans and accumulates in some, in particular bone. The main carrier of the aluminium ion in plasma is the iron binding protein, transferrin. Aluminium can enter the brain and reach the placenta and foetus. Aluminium may persist for a very long time in various organs and tissues before it is excreted in the urine. Although retention times for aluminium appear to be longer in humans than in rodents, there is little information allowing extrapolation from rodents to the humans.

At high levels of exposure, some aluminium compounds may produce DNA damage in vitro and in vivo via indirect mechanisms.

The database on carcinogenicity of aluminium compounds is limited. No indication of any carcinogenic potential was obtained in mice given aluminium potassium sulphate at high levels in the diet.

Aluminium has shown neurotoxicity in patients undergoing dialysis and thereby chronically exposed parenterally to high concentrations of aluminium. It has been suggested that aluminium is implicated in the aetiology of Alzheimer's disease and associated with other neurodegenerative diseases in humans. However, these hypotheses remain controversial. Several compounds containing aluminium have the potential to produce neurotoxicity (mice, rats) and to affect the male reproductive system (dogs). In addition, after maternal exposure they have shown embryotoxicity (mice) and have affected the developing nervous system in the offspring (mice, rats). The available studies have a number of limitations and do not allow any dose-response relationships to be established. The combined evidence from several studies in mice, rats and dogs that used dietary administration of aluminium compounds produce lowest-observed-adverse-effect levels (LOAELs) for effects on neurotoxicity, testes, embryotoxicity, and the developing nervous system of 52, 75, 100, and 50 mg aluminium/kg bw/day, respectively.

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Similarly, the lowest no-observed-adverse-effect levels (NOAELs) for effects on these endpoints were reported at 30, 27, 100, and for effects on the developing nervous system, between 10 and 42 mg aluminium/kg bw per day, respectively. Controversy exists over whether aluminium is the cause of degenerative brain disease (Alzheimer's disease or AD). Several epidemiological studies show a possible correlation between the incidence of AD and high levels of aluminium in drinking water. A study in Toronto, for example, found a 2.6 times increased risk in people residing for at least 10 years in communities where drinking water contained more than 0.15 mg/l aluminium compared with communities where the aluminium level was lower than 0.1 mg/l. A neurochemical model has been suggested linking aluminium exposure to brain disease. Aluminium concentrates in brain regions, notably the hippocampus, cerebral cortex and amygdala where it preferentially binds to large pyramid-shaped cells - it does not bind to a substantial degree to the smaller interneurons. Aluminium displaces magnesium in key metabolic reactions in brain cells and also interferes with calcium metabolism and inhibits phosphoinositide metabolism. Phosphoinositide normally controls calcium ion levels at critical concentrations.

Under the microscope the brain of AD sufferers show thickened fibrils (neurofibrillary tangles - NFT) and plaques consisting of amyloid protein deposited in the matrix between brain cells. Tangles result from alteration of "tau" a brain cytoskeletal protein. AD tau is distinguished from normal tau because it is hyperphosphorylated. Aluminium hyperphosphorylates tau in vitro. When AD tau is injected into rat brain NFT-like aggregates form but soon degrade. Aluminium stabilises these aggregates rendering them resistant to protease degradation. Plaque formation is also enhanced by aluminium which induces the accumulation of amyloid precursor protein in the thread-like extensions of nerve cells (axons and dendrites). In addition aluminium has been shown to depress the activity of most neuro-transmitters similarly depressed in AD (acetylcholine, norepinephrine, glutamate and GABA). Aluminium enters the brain in measurable quantities, even when trace levels are contained in a glass of tap water. Other sources of bioavailable aluminium include baking powder, antacids and aluminium products used for general food preparation and storage (over 12 months, aluminium levels in soft drink packed in aluminium cans rose from 0.05 to 0.9 mg/l). **[Walton, J and Bryson-Taylor, D. - Chemistry in Australia, August 1995]**

In general, available cohort studies in humans have not reported a significant increase in total mortality as a result of cobalt exposure. Several studies have noted increased mortality rates resulting from lung cancer following occupational exposure to cobalt, either as a mixture of cobalt compounds or as hard metal, a metal alloy with a tungsten carbide and cobalt matrix. Fatal cases of hard metal disease and cardiomyopathy believed to have resulted from occupational cobalt exposure have also been reported. However, in the majority of these and other reported occupational studies, co-exposure to other substances was common, and was unable to be corrected for in the analysis.

The effects of chronic occupational exposure to cobalt and cobalt compounds on the respiratory system in humans are well-documented. These effects include respiratory irritation, diminished pulmonary function, wheezing, asthma, pneumonia, and fibrosis and occurred at exposure levels ranging from 0.007 to 0.893 mg cobalt/m³ (exposure from 2 to 17 years). These effects have been observed in workers employed in cobalt refineries, as well as hard metal workers, diamond polishers, and ceramic dish painters (painting with cobalt blue dye).

Occupational asthma attributed to the inhalation of cobalt powder has been confirmed following bronchial challenge tests. Chest tightness and chronic bronchitis have been recorded in hard-metal workers exposed to cobalt. Cobalt is known to function as a hapten, resulting in the generation of antibodies against cobalt-protein complexes. Although the minimum exposure level associated with cobalt sensitisation has not been determined, sensitisation has been demonstrated in hard metal workers with work-related asthma who have experienced prolonged occupational exposure (>3 years) to levels ranging from 0.007 to 0.893 mg cobalt/m³. The sensitisation phenomenon includes the production of IgE and IgA antibodies to cobalt. Exposure to inhaled cobalt chloride aerosols can precipitate an asthmatic attack in sensitised individuals believed to be the result of an allergic reaction within the lungs.

Allergic dermatitis of an erythematous papular type may also occur following occupational exposure. Dermatitis is a common result of dermal exposure to cobalt in humans that has been verified in a large number of studies. Using patch tests and intradermal injections, it has been demonstrated that the dermatitis is probably caused by an allergic reaction to cobalt. Contact allergy was reported in 22 of 223 (9.9%) nurses who were tested with a patch test of 1.0% cobalt chloride as well as 16 of 79 (20.3%) of examined dentists. Persons with body piercings showed an increased prevalence of allergy to cobalt, with the incidence of contact allergy being proportional to number of piercings. The prevalence of sensitivity to cobalt following exposure to cobalt as a component of metal implants is low, with only 3.8% of patients developing a new sensitivity to cobalt following insertion of the implant.

Exposure levels associated with the development of dermatitis have not been identified. It appears that the allergic properties of cobalt result mainly from exposure to the metal itself, rather than a salt, as it has been demonstrated that daily repeated exposure to aqueous cobalt salts did not result in hand eczema in patients known to have cobalt allergy.

Occupational exposure to cobalt in humans has been reported to cause several effects on the nervous system, including memory loss, nerve deafness, and a decreased visual acuity. It should be noted though, that both of the studies reporting on these findings, had small numbers of subjects, and exposure characterization was not reported.

Chronic exposure to cobalt produces polycythaemia (increase in blood haemoglobin), increased production of cells of the bone marrow and thyroid gland, pericardial effusion and damage to the alpha cells of the pancreas. Chronic exposure to cobalt compounds may result in pericardial effusion, polycardial effusion, cardiac failure, vomiting, convulsions and thyroid enlargement. Chronic administration of cobaltous chloride has produced goiter, reduced thyroid activity and lowered synthesis rates and levels of cytochrome P-450, an enzymatic system responsible for chemical detoxification, in the liver. A toxic nephritis (kidney disease) may also develop.

Epidemic cardiomyopathy (heart disease) among heavy beer drinkers in the 1960's in Canada, the USA and Belgium has been attributed to the addition of up to 1.5 ppm of cobalt as a foam restorative and stabiliser. Other factors are probably implicated as therapeutic doses of cobalt, up to 50 mg/day (in the treatment of refractory anaemias) do not produce this effect. Inadequate protein or vitamin intake amongst heavy drinkers, or the effects of alcohol in rendering the heart more susceptible to disease may be important.

Single and repeated subcutaneous or intramuscular injection of cobalt powder and salts to rats may cause sarcoma at the injection site but evidence for carcinogenicity by any other route of exposure does not exist. A number of single cases of malignant tumours, mostly sarcomas, have been reported at the site of orthopedic implants containing cobalt.

Animals, exposed to cobalt compounds also exhibit an increase in respiration, as well as tremor and convulsion. Exposure of rats and mice to aerosols of cobalt (as cobalt sulfate) at concentrations from 0.11 to 1.14 mg cobalt/m³ for 2 years resulted in a spectrum of inflammatory, fibrotic, and proliferative lesions in the respiratory tract of male and female rats and mice. Squamous metaplasia of the larynx occurred in rats and mice at exposure concentrations of .011 mg cobalt/m³, with severity of the lesion increasing with increased cobalt concentration. Hyperplastic lesions of the nasal epithelium occurred in rats at concentrations of .011 mg cobalt/m³, and in mice at concentrations of .038 mg cobalt/m³. Both sexes of rats had greatly increased incidences (>90% incidence) of alveolar lesions at all exposure levels, including inflammatory changes, fibrosis, and metaplasia. Similar changes were seen in mice at all exposure levels, though the changes in mice were less severe.

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Cobalt metal dust inhalations by miniature swine resulted in early marked decrease in lung compliance and increases in septal collagen. After a one-week "sensitising period", followed by a 10-day lapse period, further exposures resulted in wheezing produced by hypersensitivity reactions.

Repeated or prolonged exposure to acids may result in the erosion of teeth, inflammatory and ulcerative changes in the mouth and necrosis (rarely) of the jaw. Bronchial irritation, with cough, and frequent attacks of bronchial pneumonia may ensue.

Gastrointestinal disturbances may also occur. Chronic exposures may result in dermatitis and/or conjunctivitis.

The impact of inhaled acidic agents on the respiratory tract depends upon a number of interrelated factors. These include physicochemical characteristics, e.g., gas versus aerosol; particle size (small particles can penetrate deeper into the lung); water solubility (more soluble agents are more likely to be removed in the nose and mouth). Given the general lack of information on the particle size of aerosols involved in occupational exposures to acids, it is difficult to identify their principal deposition site within the respiratory tract. Acid mists containing particles with a diameter of up to a few micrometers will be deposited in both the upper and lower airways. They are irritating to mucous epithelia, they cause dental erosion, and they produce acute effects in the lungs (symptoms and changes in pulmonary function). Asthmatics appear to be at particular risk for pulmonary effects.

Neuromuscular effects result from chronic over-exposure to lithium compounds. These may include tremor, ataxia, clonus and hyperactive reflexes. Some animal studies have shown that exposure during pregnancy may produce birth defects. Other studies with rats, rabbits and monkeys have not shown teratogenic effects. Human data are ambiguous; it is well established that lithium can cross the human placenta. Of 225 registered pregnancies in which the mothers had received lithium (as a tranquiliser) there were 25 instances of congenital malformation. Although pharmacological doses of lithium cannot be unequivocally designated as a human teratogen, lithium therapy is contraindicated in women of childbearing potential.

Prolonged exposure may produce anorexia, weight loss and emaciation. The kidneys, behavioural/ central nervous system and peripheral nervous system may also show adverse effects.

Various types of dermatitis (psoriasis, alopecia, cutaneous ulcers, acne, follicular papules, xerosis cutis, exfoliative) may also result from chronic skin exposure.

Lithium ion can be an effective treatment for manic depression. It is thought to bind the enzyme IMPase (inositol monophosphatase) and thereby mediates its influence in producing a response to calcium-induced production of neurotransmitters and hormones thought to be responsible for the clinical picture.

Lithium ions interfere with ion transport processes (involving the "sodium pump") that relay and amplify messages carried to the cells of the brain. Mania is associated with irregular increases in protein kinase C (PKC) activity within the brain. Lithium carbonate and sodium valproate, another drug traditionally used to treat the disorder, act in the brain by inhibiting PKC's activity and help to produce other compounds that also inhibit the PKC.

Taking lithium salts has risks and side effects. Extended use of lithium to treat various mental disorders has been known to lead to acquired nephrogenic diabetes insipidus. Nephrogenic diabetes insipidus (NDI), also known as renal diabetes insipidus, is a form of diabetes insipidus primarily due to pathology of the kidney. This is in contrast to central or neurogenic diabetes insipidus, which is caused by insufficient levels of antidiuretic hormone (ADH, also called vasopressin). Nephrogenic diabetes insipidus is caused by an improper response of the kidney to ADH, leading to a decrease in the ability of the kidney to concentrate the urine by removing free water.

Lithium intoxication can affect the central nervous system and renal system and can be lethal

In subchronic studies, rats were exposed to 3 milliequivalents Li/kg/day (equivalent to 1450 mg for a 70 kg person) but did not accumulate Li whilst on a high sodium diet. However when sodium was restricted, fatal kidney toxicity developed. Dogs survived daily dose of 50 mg LiCl/kg for 150 days to the termination of the experiment on a normal sodium intake, whereas the same dose was lethal in 12 to 18 days on a low sodium diet: 20 mg LiCl/kg/day resulted in death in 18 to 30 days.

Several reports have demonstrated that lithium may impair basal ganglia activity. Lithium intoxication has been associated, severe and persistent oculogyric crises. Oculogyric crisis (OGC) is the name of a dystonic reaction to certain drugs or medical conditions characterized by a prolonged involuntary upward deviation of the eyes. The term "oculogyric" refers to the bilateral elevation of the visual gaze but several other responses are associated with the crisis.

Prolonged or repeated inhalation of dust may result in pneumoconiosis (lung disease caused by inhalation dust).

Graphite workers have reported symptoms of headaches, coughing, depression, low appetite, dyspnoea (difficult breathing) and black sputum.

A number of studies indicate that graphitosis is a progressive and disabling disease and that the presence of crystalline silica and some silicates as graphite impurities have a pronounced synergistic effect.

Workers suffering from graphite pneumoconiosis have generally worked in the industry for long periods, i.e. 10 years or more, although some cases have been reported after as little as four years.

Data indicate the higher the crystalline silica content of graphite the greater is the severity of the pneumoconiosis.

Pre-employment and periodic examinations should be directed towards detecting significant respiratory disease through chest X-rays and pulmonary function tests

Chronic inhalation exposure of production workers has caused decreased pulmonary function and myocardial dystrophy. There is suggestive but inconclusive evidence that carbon black containing polyaromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) has been responsible for induction of skin cancers in exposed workers.

Long term inhalation of carbon black can cause cough, phlegm, tiredness, chest pain and headache. Dermal, mucosal, or inhalation exposure can cause irritation.

Inhalation of carbon black by mice, rats and monkeys caused thickened alveolar walls, increased pulmonary collagen, right atrial and ventricular strain, hypertrophy of the right atrial and ventricular septum and increased heart weights. Although carbon black itself did not cause cancer in treated animals, carbon black containing polyaromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) did cause cancer following chronic administration by all routes tested.

Epidemiological studies of workers in the carbon black producing industries of North America and Western Europe show no significant health effect due to occupational exposure to carbon black. Several other studies provide conflicting evidence. Early studies in the former USSR and Eastern Europe report respiratory diseases amongst workers exposed to carbon black, including bronchitis, pneumonia, emphysema and rhinitis. These studies are of questionable validity due to inadequate study design and methodology, lack of appropriate controls for cigarette smoking and other confounding factors such as concurrent exposure to carbon dioxide, coal oil and petroleum vapours. Moreover, review of these studies indicates that the concentrations of carbon black were greater than current occupational standards.

Carbon black may cause adverse pulmonary changes following prolonged or repeated inhalation of the dust; these include oral mucosal lesions, bronchitis and pneumoconiosis which may lead to lung tumours.

The body of evidence of carcinogenicity in animal studies comes from two chronic inhalation studies and two intratracheal instillation studies in rats, which showed significantly elevated rates of lung cancer in exposed animals. An inhalation study was tested on mice, but did not show significantly elevated rates of lung cancer in exposed animals. Epidemiologic data comes from

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three different cohort studies of carbon black production workers. Two studies, from the United Kingdom and Germany, with over 1,000 workers in each study group, showed elevated mortality from lung cancer in the carbon black workers. Another study of over 5,000 workers in the United States did not show elevated mortality from lung cancer in the carbon black workers. Newer findings of increased lung cancer mortality in an update from the UK study may suggest that carbon black could be a late-stage carcinogen. However, a more recent and larger study from Germany did not confirm this hypothesis that carbon black acts as a late-stage carcinogen.

In studies employing channel and furnace black, hamsters, mice, guinea pigs, rabbits and monkeys exposed to dusts for 7 hours/day, 5 days/week, at concentrations of 87.4 mg/m3 for channel black and 56.5 mg/m3 for furnace black, no malignancies were observed in any of the animals. Channel black had little if any absorbed polyaromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) (as benzene extractables) whilst furnace black had 0.28%.

Several findings have strengthened the association between inflammation and cancer and between the particle surface area dose of carbon black and other poorly soluble low toxicity (PSLT) particles and the pulmonary inflammation response in mice and the proinflammatory effects in lung cells in vitro. Other evidence suggests that in addition to a cancer mechanism involving indirect genotoxicity through inflammation and oxidative stress, nanoparticles may act as direct carcinogens .

Carbon black appears to act like PSLT particles, which can elicit lung tumours in rats following prolonged exposure to sufficiently high concentrations of particles. Particle surface area dose was found to be most predictive of pulmonary inflammation and tumour response in rats when comparing the dose-response relationships for various types and sizes of PSLT including carbon black. Compared to fine PSLT, much lower concentrations of ultrafine PSLT (e.g. 2.5, 6.5 or 11.5 mg/m3 carbon black and ~10 mg/m3 ultrafine titanium dioxide) were associated with impaired clearance, persistent inflammation, and malignant lung tumours in chronic inhalation studies in rats. Most evidence suggests that carbon black and other PSLT-elicited lung tumours occurs through a secondary genotoxic mechanism, involving chronic inflammation and oxidative stress. Experimental studies have shown that when the particle lung dose reaches a sufficiently high concentration (e.g., mass dose of ~0.5 mg fine-sized PSLT/g lung in rats), the alveolar macrophage-mediated clearance process begins to be impaired (complete impairment occurs at ~10 mg/g lung. Overloading of lung clearance is accompanied by pulmonary inflammation, leading to increased production of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species, depletion of antioxidants and/or impairment of other defense mechanisms, cell injury, cell proliferation, fibrosis, and as seen in rats, induction of mutations and eventually cancer. Rats appear to be more sensitive to carbon black and other PSLT than other rodent species. Although studies in humans have not shown a direct link between inhaled PSLT and lung cancer, many of the steps in the mechanism observed in rats have also been observed in humans who work in dusty jobs, including increased particle lung retention and pulmonary inflammation in workers exposed to coal dust or crystalline silica and elevated lung cancer has been observed in some studies of workers exposed to carbon black, crystalline silica, and diesel exhaust particles

Monkeys exposed to channel black for 1000-1500 hours showed evidence of electrocardiac changes indicative of right atrial and right ventricular strain. These changes increased progressively until after 10,000 hours of exposure, when the changes were marked. The authors of this study concluded that there was no significant effect due to prolonged exposure other than those expected from the accumulation of non-toxic dusts in the pulmonary system. Exposure to furnace black produced a similar picture although electrocardiographic change was first observed in monkeys after 2500 hours' exposure and marked atrial and right ventricular strain after 10,000 hours' exposure. The authors concluded that there was no significant effect due to prolonged exposure other than those expected from the accumulation of nontoxic dusts in the pulmonary system. Exposure to furnace black produced a similar picture although electrocardiographic change was first observed in monkeys after 2500 hours exposure and marked atrial and right ventricular strain after 10,000 hours exposure.

Chromatographic fractions of oily material extracted from carbon black have been shown to be carcinogenic whilst the unfractionated extracts are not. The activity of some carcinogens appear to be inhibited by carbon black itself.

For copper and its compounds (typically copper chloride):

Acute toxicity: There are no reliable acute oral toxicity results available. Animal testing shows that skin in exposure to copper may lead to hardness of the skin, scar formation, exudation and reddish changes. Inflammation, irritation and injury of the skin were noted.

Repeat dose toxicity: Animal testing shows that very high levels of copper monochloride may cause anaemia.

Genetic toxicity: Copper monochloride does not appear to cause mutations in vivo, although chromosomal aberrations were seen at very high concentrations in vitro.

Cancer-causing potential: There was insufficient information to evaluate the cancer-causing activity of copper monochloride.

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	Not Available	Not Available
lithium cobaltate	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg ^[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]
	Inhalation (Rat) LC50: 5.05 mg/l4h ^[1]	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]
	Oral (Rat) LD50; >5000 mg/kg ^[1]	
graphite	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	Inhalation (Rat) LC50: >2 mg/L4h ^[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]
	Oral (Rat) LD50; >200 mg/kg ^[1]	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]
lithium fluorophosphate	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	Oral (Rat) LD50; 50-300 mg/kg ^[1]	Eye: adverse effect observed (irritating) ^[1]
		Skin: adverse effect observed (corrosive) ^[1]
copper	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	dermal (rat) LD50: >2000 mg/kg ^[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]

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	Inhalation (Rat) LC50: 0.733 mg/l4h ^[1]	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]
	Oral (Mouse) LD50; 0.7 mg/kg ^[2]	
aluminium	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	Inhalation (Rat) LC50: >2.3 mg/l4h ^[1]	Eye: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]
	Oral (Rat) LD50; >2000 mg/kg ^[1]	Skin: no adverse effect observed (not irritating) ^[1]
nickel	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	Oral (Rat) LD50; 5000 mg/kg ^[2]	Skin (Human): 5pph/48H - Severe
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	

7" Wireless Bidirectional Diagnostic Tablet	for acid mists, aerosols, vapours Data from assays for genotoxic activity in vitro suggest that eukaryotic cells are susceptible to genetic damage when the pH falls to about 6.5. Cells from the respiratory tract have not been examined in this respect. Mucous secretion may protect the cells of the airways from direct exposure to inhaled acidic mists, just as mucous plays an important role in protecting the gastric epithelium from its auto-secreted hydrochloric acid. In considering whether pH itself induces genotoxic events in vivo in the respiratory system, comparison should be made with the human stomach, in which gastric juice may be at pH 1-2 under fasting or nocturnal conditions, and with the human urinary bladder, in which the pH of urine can range from <5 to > 7 and normally averages 6.2. Furthermore, exposures to low pH in vivo differ from exposures <i>in vitro</i> in that, <i>in vivo</i>, only a portion of the cell surface is subjected to the adverse conditions, so that perturbation of intracellular homeostasis may be maintained more readily than in vitro. For aluminium compounds: Aluminium present in food and drinking water is poorly absorbed through the gastrointestinal tract. The bioavailability of aluminium is dependent on the form in which it is ingested and the presence of dietary constituents with which the metal cation can complex Ligands in food can have a marked effect on absorption of aluminium, as they can either enhance uptake by forming absorbable (usually water soluble) complexes (e.g., with carboxylic acids such as citric and lactic), or reduce it by forming insoluble compounds (e.g., with phosphate or dissolved silicate). Considering the available human and animal data it is likely that the oral absorption of aluminium can vary 10-fold based on chemical form alone. Although bioavailability appears to generally parallel water solubility, insufficient data are available to directly extrapolate from solubility in water to bioavailability. For oral intake from food, the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) has derived a tolerable weekly intake (TWI) of 1 milligram (mg) of aluminium per kilogram of bodyweight. In its health assessment, the EFSA states a medium bioavailability of 0.1 % for all aluminium compounds which are ingested with food. This corresponds to a systemically available tolerable daily dose of 0.143 microgrammes (µg) per kilogramme (kg) of body weight. This means that for an adult weighing 60 kg, a systemically available dose of 8.6 µg per day is considered safe. Based on a neuro-developmental toxicity study of aluminium citrate administered via drinking water to rats, the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives (JECFA) established a Provisional Tolerable Weekly Intake (PTWI) of 2 mg/kg bw (expressed as aluminium) for all aluminium compounds in food, including food additives. The Committee on Toxicity of chemicals in food, consumer products and the environment (COT) considers that the derivation of this PTWI was sound and that it should be used in assessing potential risks from dietary exposure to aluminium. The Federal Institute for Risk Assessment (BfR) of Germany has assessed the estimated aluminium absorption from antiperspirants. For this purpose, the data, derived from experimental studies, on dermal absorption of aluminium from antiperspirants for healthy and damaged skin was used as a basis. At about 10.5 µg, the calculated systemic intake values for healthy skin are above the 8.6 µg per day that are considered safe for an adult weighing 60 kg. If aluminium -containing antiperspirants are used on a daily basis, the tolerable weekly intake determined by the EFSA is therefore exceeded. The values for damaged skin, for example injuries from shaving, are many times higher. This means that in case of daily use of an aluminium-containing antiperspirant alone, the TWI may be completely exhausted. In addition, further aluminium absorption sources such as food, cooking utensils and other cosmetic products must be taken into account Systemic toxicity after repeated exposure No studies were located regarding dermal effects in animals following intermediate or chronic-duration dermal exposure to various forms of aluminium. When orally administered to rats, aluminium compounds (including aluminium nitrate, aluminium sulfate and potassium aluminium sulfate) have produced various effects, including decreased gain in body weight and mild histopathological changes in the spleen, kidney and liver of rats (104 mg Al/kg bw/day) and dogs (88-93 mg Al/kg bw/day) during subchronic oral exposure. Effects on nerve cells, testes, bone and stomach have been reported at higher doses. Severity of effects increased with dose. The main toxic effects of aluminium that have been observed in experimental animals are neurotoxicity and nephrotoxicity. Neurotoxicity has also been described in patients dialysed with water containing high concentrations of aluminium, but epidemiological data on possible adverse effects in humans at lower exposures are inconsistent Reproductive and developmental toxicity: Studies of reproductive toxicity in male mice (intraperitoneal or subcutaneous administration of aluminium nitrate or chloride) and rabbits (administration of aluminium chloride by gavage) have demonstrated the ability of aluminium to cause testicular toxicity, decreased sperm quality in mice and rabbits and reduced fertility in mice. No reproductive toxicity was seen in females given aluminium nitrate by gavage or dissolved in drinking water. Multi-generation reproductive studies in which aluminium sulfate and aluminium ammonium sulfate were administered to rats in drinking water, showed no evidence of reproductive toxicity High doses of aluminium compounds given by gavage have induced signs of embryotoxicity in mice and rats in particular, reduced fetal body weight or pup weight at birth and delayed ossification. Developmental toxicity studies in which aluminium chloride was administered by gavage to pregnant rats showed evidence of foetotoxicity, but it was unclear whether the findings were secondary to maternal toxicity. A twelve-month neuro-development with aluminium citrate administered via the drinking water to Sprague-Dawley rats, was conducted according to Good Laboratory Practice (GLP). Aluminium citrate was selected for the study since it is the most soluble and bioavailable aluminium salt. Pregnant rats were exposed to aluminium citrate from
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gestational day 6 through lactation, and then the offspring were exposed post-weaning until postnatal day 364. An extensive functional observational battery of tests was performed at various times. Evidence of aluminium toxicity was demonstrated in the high (300 mg/kg bw/day of aluminium) and to a lesser extent, the mid-dose groups (100 mg/kg bw/day of aluminium). In the high-dose group, the main effect was renal damage, resulting in high mortality in the male offspring. No major neurological pathology or neurobehavioural effects were observed, other than in the neuromuscular subdomain (reduced grip strength and increased foot splay). Thus, the lowest observed adverse effect level (LOAEL) was 100 mg/kg bw/day and the no observed adverse effect level (NOAEL) was 30 mg/kg bw/day. Bioavailability of aluminium chloride, sulfate and nitrate and aluminium hydroxide was much lower than that of aluminium citrate This study was used by JECFA as key study to derive the PTWI.

Genotoxicity

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

Carcinogenicity.

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

Neurodegenerative diseases.

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

Contact sensitivity:

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

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

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

The material may trigger oculogyric crisis. The term "oculogyric" refers to the bilateral elevation of the visual gaze. Initial symptoms include restlessness, agitation, malaise, or a fixed stare. Then comes the more characteristically described extreme and sustained upward deviation of the eyes. In addition, the eyes may converge, deviate upward and laterally, or deviate downward. The most frequently reported associated findings are backwards and lateral flexion of the neck, widely opened mouth, tongue protrusion, and ocular pain. However, the condition may also be associated with intensely painful jaw spasm which may result in the breaking of a tooth. A wave of exhaustion may follow an episode. The abrupt termination of the psychiatric symptoms at the conclusion of the crisis is most striking.

Other features that are noted during attacks include mutism, pallor, eye blinking, lacrimation, pupil dilation, drooling, respiratory dyskinesia, increased blood pressure and heart rate, facial flushing, headache, vertigo, anxiety, agitation, compulsive thinking, paranoia, depression, recurrent fixed ideas, depersonalization, violence, and obscene language.

In addition to the acute presentation, oculogyric crisis can develop as a recurrent syndrome, triggered by stress and by exposure to the drugs.

The diagnosis of oculogyric crisis is largely clinical and involves taking a focused history and physical examination to identify possible triggers for the crisis and rule out other causes of abnormal ocular movements.

COPPER

WARNING: Inhalation of high concentrations of copper fume may cause "metal fume fever", an acute industrial disease of short duration. Symptoms are tiredness, influenza like respiratory tract irritation with fever. for copper and its compounds (typically copper chloride):

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	Acute toxicity: There are no reliable acute oral toxicity results available. In an acute dermal toxicity study (OECD TG 402), one group of 5 male rats and 5 groups of 5 female rats received doses of 1000, 1500 and 2000 mg/kg bw via dermal application for 24 hours. The LD50 values of copper monochloride were 2,000 mg/kg bw or greater for male (no deaths observed) and 1,224 mg/kg bw for female. Four females died at both 1500 and 2000 mg/kg bw, and one at 1,000 mg/kg bw. Symptom of the hardness of skin, an exudation of hardness site, the formation of scar and reddish changes were observed on application sites in all treated animals. Skin inflammation and injury were also noted. In addition, a reddish or black urine was observed in females at 2,000, 1,500 and 1,000 mg/kg bw. Female rats appeared to be more sensitive than male based on mortality and clinical signs. No reliable skin/eye irritation studies were available. The acute dermal study with copper monochloride suggests that it has a potential to cause skin irritation. Repeat dose toxicity: In repeated dose toxicity study performed according to OECD TG 422, copper monochloride was given orally (gavage) to Sprague-Dawley rats for 30 days to males and for 39 - 51 days to females at concentrations of 0, 1.3, 5.0, 20, and 80 mg/kg bw/day. The NOAEL value was 5 and 1.3 mg/kg bw/day for male and female rats, respectively. No deaths were observed in male rats. One treatment-related death was observed in female rats in the high dose group. Erythropoietic toxicity (anaemia) was seen in both sexes at the 80 mg/kg bw/day. The frequency of squamous cell hyperplasia of the forestomach was increased in a dose-dependent manner in male and female rats at all treatment groups, and was statistically significant in males at doses of =20 mg/kg bw/day and in females at doses of =5 mg/kg bw/day doses. The observed effects are considered to be local, non-systemic effect on the forestomach which result from oral (gavage) administration of copper monochloride. Genotoxicity: An in vitro genotoxicity study with copper monochloride showed negative results in a bacterial reverse mutation test with Salmonella typhimurium strains (TA 98, TA 100, TA 1535, and TA 1537) with and without S9 mix at concentrations of up to 1,000 ug/plate. An in vitro test for chromosome aberration in Chinese hamster lung (CHL) cells showed that copper monochloride induced structural and numerical aberrations at the concentration of 50, 70 and 100 ug/mL without S9 mix. In the presence of the metabolic activation system, significant increases of structural aberrations were observed at 50 and 70 ug/mL and significant increases of numerical aberrations were observed at 70 ug/mL. In an in vivo mammalian erythrocyte micronucleus assay, all animals dosed (15 - 60 mg/kg bw) with copper monochloride exhibited similar PCE/(PCE+NCE) ratios and MNPCE frequencies compared to those of the negative control animals. Therefore copper monochloride is not an in vivo mutagen. Carcinogenicity: there was insufficient information to evaluate the carcinogenic activity of copper monochloride. Reproductive and developmental toxicity: In the combined repeated dose toxicity study with the reproduction/developmental toxicity screening test (OECD TG 422), copper monochloride was given orally (gavage) to Sprague-Dawley rats for 30 days to males and for 39-51 days to females at concentrations of 0, 1.3, 5.0, 20, and 80 mg/kg bw/day. The NOAEL of copper monochloride for fertility toxicity was 80 mg/kg bw/day for the parental animals. No treatment-related effects were observed on the reproductive organs and the fertility parameters assessed. For developmental toxicity the NOAEL was 20 mg/kg bw/day. Three of 120 pups appeared to have icterus at birth; 4 of 120 pups appeared runted at the highest dose tested (80 mg/kg bw/day).
NICKEL	Oral (rat) TDLo: 500 mg/kg/5D-I Inhalation (rat) TCLo: 0.1 mg/m³/24H/17W-C WARNING: This substance has been classified by the IARC as Group 2B: Possibly Carcinogenic to Humans. Tenth Annual Report on Carcinogens: Substance anticipated to be Carcinogen [National Toxicology Program: U.S. Dep. of Health & Human Services 2002]
7" Wireless Bidirectional Diagnostic Tablet & GRAPHITE & LITHIUM FLUOROPHOSPHATE	Asthma-like symptoms may continue for months or even years after exposure to the material ends. This may be due to a non-allergic condition known as reactive airways dysfunction syndrome (RADS) which can occur after exposure to high levels of highly irritating compound. Main criteria for diagnosing RADS include the absence of previous airways disease in a non-atopic individual, with sudden onset of persistent asthma-like symptoms within minutes to hours of a documented exposure to the irritant. Other criteria for diagnosis of RADS include a reversible airflow pattern on lung function tests, moderate to severe bronchial hyperreactivity on methacholine challenge testing, and the lack of minimal lymphocytic inflammation, without eosinophilia. 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. On the other hand, industrial bronchitis is a disorder that occurs as a result of exposure due to high concentrations of irritating substance (often particles) and is completely reversible after exposure ceases. The disorder is characterized by difficulty breathing, cough and mucus production.
7" Wireless Bidirectional Diagnostic Tablet & LITHIUM COBALTATE	Allergic reactions which develop in the respiratory passages as bronchial asthma or rhinoconjunctivitis, are mostly the result of reactions of the allergen with specific antibodies of the IgE class and belong in their reaction rates to the manifestation of the immediate type. In addition to the allergen-specific potential for causing respiratory sensitisation, the amount of the allergen, the exposure period and the genetically determined disposition of the exposed person are likely to be decisive. Factors which increase the sensitivity of the mucosa may play a role in predisposing a person to allergy. They may be genetically determined or acquired, for example, during infections or exposure to irritant substances. Immunologically the low molecular weight substances become complete allergens in the organism either by binding to peptides or proteins (haptens) or after metabolism (prohaptens). Particular attention is drawn to so-called atopic diathesis which is characterised by an increased susceptibility to allergic rhinitis, allergic bronchial asthma and atopic eczema (neurodermatitis) which is associated with increased IgE synthesis. Exogenous allergic alveolitis is induced essentially by allergen specific immune-complexes of the IgG type; cell-mediated reactions (T lymphocytes) may be involved. Such allergy is of the delayed type with onset up to four hours following exposure. Goitrogenic:. Goitrogens are substances that suppress the function of the thyroid gland by interfering with iodine uptake, which can, as a result, cause an enlargement of the thyroid, i.e., a goitre Goitrogens include: ▶ Vitexin, a flavanoid, which inhibits thyroid peroxidase thus contributing to goiter. ▶ Ions such as thiocyanate and perchlorate which decrease iodide uptake by competitive inhibition; as a consequence of reduced thyroxine and triiodothyronine secretion by the gland, at low doses, this causes an increased release of thyrotropin (by reduced negative feedback), which then stimulates the gland. ▶ Lithium which inhibits thyroid hormone release. ▶ Certain foods, such as soy and millet (containing vitexins) and vegetables in the genus Brassica (e.g. broccoli, brussels sprouts, cabbage, horseradish). ▶ Caffeine (in coffee, tea, cola, chocolate) which acts on thyroid function as a suppressant.
7" Wireless Bidirectional Diagnostic Tablet & LITHIUM COBALTATE & NICKEL	The following information refers to contact allergens as a group and may not be specific to this product. Contact allergies quickly manifest themselves as contact eczema, more rarely as urticaria or Quincke's oedema. The pathogenesis of contact eczema involves a cell-mediated (T lymphocytes) immune reaction of the delayed type. Other allergic skin reactions, e.g. contact urticaria, involve antibody-mediated immune reactions. The significance of the contact allergen is not

	simply determined by its sensitisation potential: the distribution of the substance and the opportunities for contact with it are equally important. A weakly sensitising substance which is widely distributed can be a more important allergen than one with stronger sensitising potential with which few individuals come into contact. From a clinical point of view, substances are noteworthy if they produce an allergic test reaction in more than 1% of the persons tested.
LITHIUM COBALTATE & GRAPHITE & LITHIUM FLUOROPHOSPHATE & ALUMINIUM	No significant acute toxicological data identified in literature search.

Acute Toxicity	✓	Carcinogenicity	✓
Skin Irritation/Corrosion	✓	Reproductivity	✗
Serious Eye Damage/Irritation	✓	STOT - Single Exposure	✓
Respiratory or Skin sensitisation	✓	STOT - Repeated Exposure	✓
Mutagenicity	✓	Aspiration Hazard	✗

Legend: ✗ – Data either not available or does not fill the criteria for classification
✓ – Data available to make classification

SECTION 12 Ecological information

Toxicity

7" Wireless Bidirectional Diagnostic Tablet	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
lithium cobaltate	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.029mg/L	2
	EC50	48h	Crustacea	0.241mg/L	2
	EC10(ECx)	168h	Crustacea	0.001mg/L	2
	EC50	96h	Algae or other aquatic plants	23.8mg/l	2
	LC50	96h	Fish	0.8mg/l	2
graphite	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	>100mg/l	2
	EC50	48h	Crustacea	>100mg/l	2
	NOEC(ECx)	96h	Fish	>=100mg/l	2
	LC50	96h	Fish	>100mg/l	2
lithium fluorophosphate	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	NOEC(ECx)	528h	Fish	0.2mg/l	2
	EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	62mg/l	2
	EC50	48h	Crustacea	98mg/l	2
	EC50	96h	Algae or other aquatic plants	43mg/l	2
	LC50	96h	Fish	42mg/l	2
copper	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.011-0.017mg/L	4
	EC50	48h	Crustacea	<0.001mg/L	4
	EC50	96h	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.03-0.058mg/l	4
	NOEC(ECx)	48h	Fish	<0.001mg/L	4
	LC50	96h	Fish	0.003mg/L	2
aluminium	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.017mg/L	2
	EC50	48h	Crustacea	0.736mg/L	2
	EC50	96h	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.005mg/L	2
	NOEC(ECx)	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	>100mg/l	1

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	LC50	96h	Fish	0.078-0.108mg/l	2
nickel	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	EC50	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.18mg/l	1
	EC50	48h	Crustacea	>100mg/l	1
	EC50	96h	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.174-0.311mg/L	4
	EC50(ECx)	72h	Algae or other aquatic plants	0.18mg/l	1
	LC50	96h	Fish	0.06mg/L	4
Legend:	Extracted from 1. IUCLID Toxicity Data 2. Europe ECHA Registered Substances - Ecotoxicological Information - Aquatic Toxicity 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				

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

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

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

For Metal:

Atmospheric Fate - Metal-containing inorganic substances generally have negligible vapour pressure and are not expected to partition to air.

Environmental Fate: Environmental processes, such as oxidation, the presence of acids or bases and microbiological processes, may transform insoluble metals to more soluble ionic forms. Environmental processes may enhance bioavailability and may also be important in changing solubilities.

Aquatic/Terrestrial Fate: When released to dry soil, most metals will exhibit limited mobility and remain in the upper layer; some will leach locally into ground water and/ or surface water ecosystems when soaked by rain or melt ice. A metal ion is considered infinitely persistent because it cannot degrade further. Once released to surface waters and moist soils their fate depends on solubility and dissociation in water. A significant proportion of dissolved/ sorbed metals will end up in sediments through the settling of suspended particles. The remaining metal ions can then be taken up by aquatic organisms. Ionic species may bind to dissolved ligands or sorb to solid particles in water.

Ecotoxicity: Even though many metals show few toxic effects at physiological pH levels, transformation may introduce new or magnified effects.

Ecotoxicity:

The tolerance of water organisms towards pH margin and variation is diverse. Recommended pH values for test species listed in OECD guidelines are between 6.0 and almost 9. Acute testing with fish showed 96h-LC50 at about pH 3.5

For copper:

Atmospheric Fate - Copper is unlikely to accumulate in the atmosphere due to a short residence time for airborne copper aerosols. Airborne coppers, however, may be transported over large distances. Air Quality Standards: no data available.

Aquatic Fate: Toxicity of copper is affected by pH and hardness of water. Total copper is rarely useful as a predictor of toxicity. In natural sea water, more than 98% of copper is organically bound and in river waters a high percentage is often organically bound, but the actual percentage depends on the river water and its pH.

Ecotoxicity: Copper accumulates significantly in the food chain. The toxic effect of copper in the aquatic biota depends on the bio-availability of copper in water which, in turn, depends on its physico-chemical form (i.e. speciation). Bioavailability is decreased by complexation and adsorption of copper by natural organic matter, iron and manganese hydrated oxides, and chelating agents excreted by algae and other aquatic organisms. Copper exhibits significant toxicity in some aquatic organisms. Some algal species are very sensitive to copper. Silicate, iron, manganese and EDTA may reduce bioavailability.

For copper: Ecotoxicity - Significant effects are expected on various species of microalgae, some species of macroalgae, and a range of invertebrates, including crustaceans, gastropods and sea urchins. Copper is moderately toxic to crab and their larvae and is highly toxic to gastropods (mollusks, including oysters, mussels and clams). In fish, the acute lethal concentrations of copper depends both on test species and exposure conditions. Waters with high concentrations of copper can have significant effects on diatoms and sensitive invertebrates, notably cladocerans (water fleas). Most taxonomic groups of macroalgae and invertebrates will be severely affected.

For Copper: Typical foliar levels of copper are: Uncontaminated soils (0.3-250 mg/kg) ; Contaminated soils (150-450 mg/kg) ; Mining/smeltering soils (6.1-25 mg/kg)80 mg/kg300 mg/kg).

Terrestrial Fate: Plants - Generally, vegetation reflects soil copper levels in its foliage. This is dependent upon the bioavailability of copper and the physiological requirements of species concerned. Crops are often more sensitive to copper than the native flora. Soil: In soil, copper levels are raised by application of fertilizer, fungicides, from deposition of highway dusts and from urban, mining and industrial sources. Chronic and or acute effects on sensitive species occur as a result of human activities such as copper fertilizer addition and addition of sludge. When soil levels exceed 150 mg Cu/kg, native and agricultural species show chronic effects. Soils in the range 500-1000 mg Cu/kg act in a strongly selective fashion allowing the survival of only copper-tolerant species and strains. At 2000 Cu mg/kg, most species cannot survive. By 3500 mg Cu/kg, areas are largely devoid of vegetation cover. The organic content of the soil appears to be a key factor affecting the bioavailability of copper. On normal forest soils, non-rooted plants such as mosses and lichens show higher copper concentrations. The fruiting bodies and mycorrhizal sheaths of soil fungi associated with higher plants in forests often accumulate copper to much higher levels than plants at the same site. Although small amounts of fluorides are conceded to have beneficial effects, two forms of chronic toxic effect, dental fluorosis and skeletal fluorosis may be caused by excessive intake over long periods. Fluorides are absorbed by humans following inhalation of workplace and ambient air that has been contaminated, ingestion of drinking water and foods and dermal contact.

Fluoride accumulates, food-dependently in skeletal tissues of both aquatic and terrestrial vertebrates and invertebrates. Bioaccumulation occurs in marine organisms and, to a lesser extend, fresh water organisms. Reported BCF-values for marine organisms range up to approximately 150 and 60 for fish and crustacea, respectively. The most important exposure route for plants is uptake from the atmosphere. Concentrations in plants in the vicinity of a HF production plant range up to approximately 200 mg/kg, with mean levels between 20 and 50 mg/kg dry weight. Generally, lowest fluoride levels are found in herbivores and (somewhat) higher levels in predators.

Fluorides have been shown to accumulate in animals that consume fluoride-containing foliage However, accumulation is primarily in skeletal tissue and therefore, it is unlikely that fluoride will biomagnify up the food chain.

Both hydrogen fluoride and particulate fluorides will be transported in the atmosphere and deposited on land or water by wet and dry deposition. Non-volatile inorganic fluoride particulates are removed from the atmosphere via condensation or nucleation processes. Fluorides adsorbed on particulate matter in the atmosphere are generally stable and are not readily hydrolysed, although they may be degraded by radiation if they persist in the atmosphere. Fluorine and the silicon fluorides (fluosilicates, silicofluorides) are hydrolysed in the atmosphere to form hydrogen fluoride. Hydrogen fluoride may combine with water vapour to produce an aerosol or fog of aqueous hydrofluoric acid. Based upon available data, inorganic fluoride compounds, with the exception of sulfur hexafluoride, are not expected to remain in the troposphere for long periods or to migrate to the stratosphere. Estimates of the residence time of sulfur hexafluoride in the atmosphere range from 500 to several thousand years. Fluoride in aerosols can be transported over large distances by wind or as a result of atmospheric turbulence. The distance travelled is determined by the deposition velocity of both the gaseous hydrogen fluoride and the fluorides in particulate form. Atmospheric fluorides may be transported to soils and surface waters through both wet and dry deposition processes.

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Fluorides undergo transformations in soil and water, forming complexes and binding strongly to soil and sediment.

In water, the transport and transformation of inorganic fluorides are influenced by pH, water hardness and the presence of ion-exchange materials such as clays.

In natural water, fluoride forms strong complexes with aluminum in water, and fluorine chemistry in water is largely regulated by aluminum concentration and pH.

Below pH 5, fluoride is almost entirely complexed with aluminum and consequently, the concentration of free F^- is low. As the pH increases, $Al-OH$ complexes dominate over $Al-F$ complexes and the free F^- levels increase. Fluoride forms stable complexes with calcium and magnesium, which are present in sea water.

Calcium carbonate precipitation dominates the removal of dissolved fluoride from sea water. The residence time for fluoride in ocean sediment is calculated to be 2-3 million years. Fluorosilicic acid and hydrofluoric acid in high aquatic concentrations such as may be found in industrial waste ponds may volatilise, releasing silicon tetrafluoride and hydrogen fluoride into the atmosphere.

Solubilisation of inorganic fluorides from minerals may also be enhanced by the presence of ion-exchange materials (e.g., bentonite clays and humic acid). Once dissolved, inorganic fluorides remain in solution under conditions of low pH and hardness and in the presence of ion-exchange material. Soluble inorganic fluorides may also form aerosols at the air-water interface or vaporise into the atmosphere whereas undissolved species generally undergo sedimentation.

Factors that influence the mobility of inorganic fluorides in soil are pH and the formation of aluminium and calcium complexes. In more acidic soils, concentrations of inorganic fluoride were considerably higher in the deeper horizons. The low affinity of fluorides for organic material results in leaching from the more acidic surface horizon and increased retention by clay minerals and silts in the more alkaline, deeper horizons. The maximum adsorption of fluoride to soil was reported to occur at pH 5.5. In acidic soils with pH below 6, most of the fluoride is in complexes with either aluminium or iron. Fluoride in alkaline soils at pH 6.5 and above is almost completely fixed in soils as calcium fluoride, if sufficient calcium carbonate is available. Fluoride is extremely immobile in soil, as determined by lysimeter experiments.

Populations living in areas with high fluoride levels in groundwater may be exposed to higher levels of fluorides in their drinking water or in beverages prepared with the water. Among these populations, outdoor laborers, people living in hot climates, and people with polydipsia will generally have the greatest daily intake of fluorides because they consume greater amounts of water.

Foods characteristically high in fluoride content are certain types of fish and seafood (1.9-28.5 mg/kg), especially those types in which the bones are consumed, bone products such as bone meal and gelatin, and tea, which contains approximately 0.52 mg fluoride/cup.

Fluoride is mainly absorbed by the body in the form of hydrogen fluoride, which has a pK_a of 3.45. That is, when ionic fluoride enters the acidic environment of the stomach lumen, it is largely converted into hydrogen fluoride. Most of the fluoride that is not absorbed from the stomach will be rapidly absorbed from the small intestine.

For lithium (anion):

Environmental fate:

Experiments with experimental animals have shown that lithium can have reprotoxic effects, and increasing consumption might therefore result in adverse effects on health and environment. Lithium has significant bioavailability only when administered as a partially soluble salt such as lithium carbonate. Lithium is not a dietary mineral for plants but it does stimulate plant growth.

Ecotoxicity:

Fish LC50 (28, 35 days) rainbow trout 9.28, 1.4 mg/l (salt)

Fish LC50 (96 h): fathead minnow 42 mg/l; NOEC 13 mg/l (salt)

Daphnia magna EC50 (48 h): 24 mg/l; NOEC 11 mg/l

Lithium is not expected to bioaccumulate in mammals and its human and environmental toxicity are low. Lithium does accumulate in several species of fish, molluscs and crustaceans where it stored in the digestive tract and exoskeleton.

Methanogenesis of granular anaerobic sludge (initial COD 5750 mg/l O_2 , pH 7.2) was stimulated at lithium ion concentration 10-20 mg/l, slightly inhibited at lithium ion concentration 350 mg/l and seriously inhibited at lithium ion concentration > 500 mg/l.

Microinjection of lithium chloride into prospective ventral blastomeres of a 32-cell *Xenopus laevis* embryo gives rise to duplication of dorsoanterior structures such as the notochord, neural tube and eyes.

For aluminium and its compounds and salts:

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

Environmental fate:

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

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

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

The trivalent aluminum ion is surrounded by six water molecules in solution. The hydrated aluminum ion, $[Al(H_2O)_6]^{3+}$, undergoes hydrolysis, in which a stepwise deprotonation of the coordinated water ligands forms bound hydroxide ligands (e.g., $[Al(H_2O)_5(OH)]^{2+}$, $[Al(H_2O)_4(OH)_2]^+$). The speciation of aluminum in water is pH dependent. The hydrated trivalent aluminum ion is the predominant form at pH levels below 4. Between pH 5 and 6, the predominant hydrolysis products are $Al(OH)_2^+$ and $Al(OH)^{2+}$, while the solid $Al(OH)_3$ is most prevalent between pH 5.2 and 8.8. The soluble species $Al(OH)_4^-$ is the predominant species above pH 9, and is the only species present above pH 10. Polymeric aluminum hydroxides appear between pH 4.7 and 10.5, and increase in size until they are transformed into colloidal particles of amorphous $Al(OH)_3$, which crystallise to gibbsite in acid waters. Polymerisation is affected by the presence of dissolved silica; when enough silica is present, aluminum is precipitated as poorly crystallised clay mineral species.

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

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

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

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

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

Aluminum concentrations in rainbow trout from an alum-treated lake, an untreated lake, and a hatchery were highest in gill tissue and lowest in muscle. Aluminum residue analyses in brook trout have shown that whole-body aluminum content decreases as the fish advance from larvae to juveniles. These results imply that

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the aging larvae begin to decrease their rate of aluminum uptake, to eliminate aluminum at a rate that exceeds uptake, or to maintain approximately the same amount of aluminum while the body mass increases. The decline in whole-body aluminum residues in juvenile brook trout may be related to growth and dilution by edible muscle tissue that accumulated less aluminum than did the other tissues.

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

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

Ecotoxicity:**Freshwater species pH >6.5**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Alga: 1 sp NOEC growth 2.0 mg/L

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

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

Drinking Water Standards:

aluminium: 200 ug/l (UK max.)

200 ug/l (WHO guideline)

chloride: 400 mg/l (UK max.)

250 mg/l (WHO guideline)

fluoride: 1.5 mg/l (UK max.)

1.5 mg/l (WHO guideline)

nitrate: 50 mg/l (UK max.)

50 mg/l (WHO guideline)

sulfate: 250 mg/l (UK max.)

Soil Guideline: none available.

Air Quality Standards: none available.

for cobalt compounds:

Environmental Fate:

Cobalt strongly binds to humic substances naturally present in aquatic environments. Humic acids can be modified by UV light and bacterial decomposition, which may change their binding characteristics over time. The lability of the complexes is strongly influenced by pH, the nature of the humic material, and the metal-to-humic substance ratio. The lability of cobalt-humate complexes decreases in time ("aging effect"). The "aging effect" indicates that after a period of time (~12 hours), complexes that were initially formed are transformed into stronger ones from which the metal ion is less readily dislodged.

Between 45 and 100% of dissolved cobalt was found to occur in very strong complexes. The distribution coefficient of cobalt may vary considerably in the same sediment in response to conditions affecting the pH, redox conditions, ionic strength, and amount of dissolved organic matter. Uptake of ⁶⁰Co from the water by sediment increased rapidly as the pH was increased from 5 to 7-7.5 and then slightly decrease. Therefore, pH would be an important factor affecting the migration of cobalt in surface water. Uptake was little affected by changes in liquid-to-solids ratio and ionic strength. ⁶⁰Co is more mobile in anaerobic marine aquatic environments than in freshwater aerobic ones. In seawater sediment systems under anaerobic conditions ⁶⁰Co was 250 times more mobile than ⁶⁰Co in freshwater sediment systems under aerobic conditions. Under anaerobic conditions, 30% of the ⁶⁰Co added to a sediment-freshwater system was "exchangeable" and therefore potentially mobile, while under aerobic conditions, 98% of the ⁶⁰Co was permanently fixed. Most of the mobile ⁶⁰Co produced under anaerobic conditions in seawater consisted of nonionic cobalt associated with low molecular weight organic substances that were stable to changes in pH; the exchangeable ⁶⁰Co appeared to be mostly ionic.

The mobility of cobalt in soil is inversely related to how strongly it is adsorbed by soil constituents. Cobalt may be retained by mineral oxides such as iron and manganese oxide, crystalline materials such as aluminosilicate and goethite, and natural organic substances in soil. Sorption of cobalt to soil occurs rapidly (within 1-2 hours). Soil-derived oxide materials were found to adsorb greater amounts of cobalt than other materials examined, although substantial amounts were also adsorbed by organic materials.

Clay minerals sorbed relatively smaller amounts of cobalt. In addition, little cobalt was desorbed from soil oxides while substantial amounts desorbed from humic acids and montmorillonite. In clay soil, adsorption may be due to ion exchange at the cationic sites on clay with either simple ionic cobalt or hydrolysed ionic species such as CoOH⁺. Adsorption of cobalt onto iron and manganese increases with pH. In addition, as pH increases, insoluble hydroxides or carbonates may form, which would also reduce cobalt mobility. Conversely, sorption onto mobile colloids would enhance its mobility. In most soils, cobalt is more mobile than lead, chromium (II), zinc, and nickel, but less mobile than cadmium. In several studies, the K_d of cobalt in a variety of soils ranged from 0.2 to 3,800. The soil properties showing the highest correlation with K_d were exchangeable calcium, pH, water content, and cation exchange capacity. Organic complexing agents such as ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA), which are used for decontamination operations at nuclear facilities, greatly enhance the mobility of cobalt in soil. Other organic complexing agents, such as those obtained from plant decay, may also increase cobalt mobility in soil. However, both types of complexes decrease cobalt uptake by plants. Addition of sewage sludge to soil also increases the mobility of cobalt, perhaps due to organic complexation of cobalt.

Cobalt may be taken up from soil by plants. Surface deposition of cobalt on leaves of plants from airborne particles may also occur. Elevated levels of cobalt have been found in the roots of sugar beets and potato tubers in soils with high cobalt concentrations (e.g., fly ash-amended soil) due to absorption of cobalt from soil. However, the translocation of cobalt from roots to above-ground parts of plants is not significant in most soils, as indicated by the lack of cobalt in seeds of barley, oats, and wheat grown in high-cobalt soil. However, in highly acidic soil (pH as low as 3.3), significantly higher than normal concentrations of cobalt were found in

rye grass foliage, oats, and barley. For example, cobalt concentrations in rye grass grown in unlimed soil (pH<5.0) was 19.7 mg/kg compared with 1.1 mg/kg in rye grass grown in limed soil (pH>5.0). Soil and plant samples taken in the 30-km zone around Chernobyl indicated that ⁶⁰Co was not accumulated by plants and mushrooms. Studies investigating the uptake of ⁶⁰Co by tomato plants watered with ⁶⁰Co contaminated water showed that tomato plants absorbed <2% of the activity available from the soil.

⁶⁰Co is taken up by phytoplankton and unicellular algae (*Senenastrium capricornutum*) with concentration factors (dry weight) ranging from 15,000 to 40,000 and 2,300 to 18,000, respectively. Elimination experiments with the algae indicate a two component biological half-life, 1 hour and 11 days, respectively, and suggest that the cobalt might be absorbed not only on the surface, but also intracellularly. Since these organisms are at the bottom of the food chain, they could play an important role in the trophic transfer of ⁶⁰Co released into waterways by nuclear facilities. However, cobalt levels generally diminish with increasing trophic levels in a food chain. The low levels of cobalt in fish may also reflect cobalt's strong binding to particles and sediment. The bioaccumulation factors (dry weight basis) for cobalt in marine and freshwater fish are ~100-4,000 and <10-1,000, respectively; accumulation in the muscle of marine fish is 5- 500.

Cobalt largely accumulates in the viscera and on the skin, as opposed to the edible parts of the fish. In carp, accumulation from water accounted for 75% of ⁶⁰Co accumulated from both water and food; accumulation from water and food was additive. Depuration half-lives were 53 and 87 days for fish contaminated from food and water, respectively. In the case of an accidental release of ⁶⁰Co into waterways, the implication is that effects would manifest themselves rapidly since the primary route of exposure is from water rather than food. Uptake of ⁶⁰Co was very low in whitefish, with concentrations being highest in kidney and undetectable in muscle. Similarly, while accumulation of ⁶⁰Co by carp from food was dependent on food type, the transfer factor was very low, approximately 0.01, and no long-term bioaccumulation of the radionuclide occurred.

Concentration factors have also been reported for various other aquatic organisms. Freshwater mollusks have concentration factors of 100-14,000 (~1-300 in soft tissue). Much of the cobalt taken up by mollusks and crustacea from water or sediment is adsorbed to the shell or exoskeleton; very little cobalt is generally accumulated in the edible parts. A concentration factor for ⁶⁰Co of 265 mL/g (wet weight) was determined for *Daphnia magna* in laboratory studies. The rapid decrease in radioactivity during the depuration phase indicated that adsorption to the surface was the major contamination process. However, the digestive glands of crustaceans, which are sometimes eaten by humans, may accumulate high levels of ⁶⁰Co. The shell accounted for more than half of the body burden. Among the soft tissue, the gills and viscera had the highest concentrations factors and the muscle had the lowest.

In mussels, higher absorption efficiencies and lower efflux rates were obtained for cobalamins than for inorganic cobalt, suggesting that it is a more bioavailable form of cobalt.

Vitamin B12, which contains cobalt, is synthesized by 58 species of seven genera of bacteria as well as blue-green algae and actinomycetes (mold-like bacteria). Consequently, vitamin B12 levels in marine water range from very low levels in some open ocean water to much higher levels in some coastal waters.

Freshwater environments have comparable levels of vitamin B12. The high level of cobalamins in coastal water appears to be related to the occurrence of macrophytes in these areas with their high concentrations of vitamin B12. Cobalamins are released into the water when the organisms die.

Some female birds sequester metals into their eggs under certain conditions, a phenomenon that may jeopardize the developing embryos.

DO NOT discharge into sewer or waterways.

Persistence and degradability

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

Bioaccumulative potential

Ingredient	Bioaccumulation
aluminium	LOW (LogKOW = 0.33)
nickel	LOW (LogKOW = -0.57)

Mobility in soil

Ingredient	Mobility
	No Data available for all ingredients

SECTION 13 Disposal considerations

Waste treatment methods

Product / Packaging disposal	- Containers may still present a chemical hazard/ danger when empty. - Return to supplier for reuse/ recycling if possible. Otherwise: - If container can not be cleaned sufficiently well to ensure that residuals do not remain or if the container cannot be used to store the same product, then puncture containers, to prevent re-use, and bury at an authorised landfill. - Where possible retain label warnings and SDS and observe all notices pertaining to the product. DO NOT allow wash water from cleaning or process equipment to enter drains. - It may be necessary to collect all wash water for treatment before disposal. - In all cases disposal to sewer may be subject to local laws and regulations and these should be considered first. - Where in doubt contact the responsible authority. - Recycle wherever possible or consult manufacturer for recycling options. - Consult State Land Waste Authority for disposal. - Bury or incinerate residue at an approved site. - Recycle containers if possible, or dispose of in an authorised landfill.
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SECTION 14 Transport information

Labels Required

7" Wireless Bidirectional Diagnostic Tablet

	
Marine Pollutant	
HAZCHEM	2Y

Land transport (ADG)

14.1. UN number or ID number	3481	
14.2. UN proper shipping name	LITHIUM ION BATTERIES PACKED WITH EQUIPMENT (including lithium ion polymer batteries); LITHIUM ION BATTERIES CONTAINED IN EQUIPMENT (including lithium ion polymer batteries)	
14.3. Transport hazard class(es)	Class	9
	Subsidiary Hazard	Not Applicable
14.4. Packing group	Not Applicable	
14.5. Environmental hazard	Environmentally hazardous	
14.6. Special precautions for user	Special provisions	188 230 310 348 360 376 377 384 387 390
	Limited quantity	0

Air transport (ICAO-IATA / DGR)

14.1. UN number	3481	
14.2. UN proper shipping name	Lithium ion batteries packed with equipment (including lithium ion polymer batteries); Lithium ion batteries contained in equipment (including lithium ion polymer batteries)	
14.3. Transport hazard class(es)	ICAO/IATA Class	9
	ICAO / IATA Subsidiary Hazard	Not Applicable
	ERG Code	12FZ
14.4. Packing group	Not Applicable	
14.5. Environmental hazard	Environmentally hazardous	
14.6. Special precautions for user	Special provisions	A48 A88 A99 A154 A164 A181 A185 A213 A220; A88 A99 A154 A164 A181 A185 A213 A802
	Cargo Only Packing Instructions	967; 966
	Cargo Only Maximum Qty / Pack	35 kg
	Passenger and Cargo Packing Instructions	967; 966
	Passenger and Cargo Maximum Qty / Pack	5 kg
	Passenger and Cargo Limited Quantity Packing Instructions	Forbidden
	Passenger and Cargo Limited Maximum Qty / Pack	Forbidden

Sea transport (IMDG-Code / GGVSee)

14.1. UN number	3481	
14.2. UN proper shipping name	LITHIUM ION BATTERIES CONTAINED IN EQUIPMENT (including lithium ion polymer batteries); LITHIUM ION BATTERIES PACKED WITH EQUIPMENT (including lithium ion polymer batteries)	
14.3. Transport hazard class(es)	IMDG Class	9
	IMDG Subsidiary Hazard	Not Applicable
14.4. Packing group	Not Applicable	
14.5. Environmental hazard	Marine Pollutant	
14.6. Special precautions for user	EMS Number	F-A, S-I

	Special provisions	188 230 310 348 360 376 377 384 387 390
	Limited Quantities	0

14.7. Maritime transport in bulk according to IMO instruments

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

Not Applicable

14.7.2. Transport in bulk in accordance with MARPOL Annex V and the IMSBC Code

Product name	Group
lithium cobaltate	Not Available
graphite	Not Available
lithium fluorophosphate	Not Available
copper	Not Available
aluminium	Not Available
nickel	Not Available

14.7.3. Transport in bulk in accordance with the IGC Code

Product name	Ship Type
lithium cobaltate	Not Available
graphite	Not Available
lithium fluorophosphate	Not Available
copper	Not Available
aluminium	Not Available
nickel	Not Available

SECTION 15 Regulatory information

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

lithium cobaltate is found on the following regulatory lists

- Australia Hazardous Chemical Information System (HCIS) - Hazardous Chemicals
- Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)
- Chemical Footprint Project - Chemicals of High Concern List
- International WHO List of Proposed Occupational Exposure Limit (OEL) Values for Manufactured Nanomaterials (MNMS)

graphite is found on the following regulatory lists

- Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)
- International WHO List of Proposed Occupational Exposure Limit (OEL) Values for Manufactured Nanomaterials (MNMS)

lithium fluorophosphate is found on the following regulatory lists

- Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)
- International WHO List of Proposed Occupational Exposure Limit (OEL) Values for Manufactured Nanomaterials (MNMS)

copper is found on the following regulatory lists

- Australia Hazardous Chemical Information System (HCIS) - Hazardous Chemicals
- Australia Standard for the Uniform Scheduling of Medicines and Poisons (SUSMP) - Schedule 4
- Australia Standard for the Uniform Scheduling of Medicines and Poisons (SUSMP) - Schedule 5
- Australia Standard for the Uniform Scheduling of Medicines and Poisons (SUSMP) - Schedule 6
- Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)
- International WHO List of Proposed Occupational Exposure Limit (OEL) Values for Manufactured Nanomaterials (MNMS)

aluminium is found on the following regulatory lists

- Australia Hazardous Chemical Information System (HCIS) - Hazardous Chemicals
- Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)
- International WHO List of Proposed Occupational Exposure Limit (OEL) Values for Manufactured Nanomaterials (MNMS)

nickel is found on the following regulatory lists

- Australia Hazardous Chemical Information System (HCIS) - Hazardous Chemicals
- Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals (AIIC)
- Chemical Footprint Project - Chemicals of High Concern List

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

International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) - Agents Classified by the IARC Monographs - Group 2B: Possibly carcinogenic to humans

International WHO List of Proposed Occupational Exposure Limit (OEL) Values for Manufactured Nanomaterials (MNMS)

Additional Regulatory Information

Not Applicable

National Inventory Status

National Inventory	Status
Australia - AIIC / Australia Non-Industrial Use	Yes
Canada - DSL	No (lithium fluorophosphate)
Canada - NDSL	No (lithium cobaltate; graphite; copper; aluminium; nickel)
China - IECSC	Yes
Europe - EINEC / ELINCS / NLP	Yes
Japan - ENCS	No (graphite; copper; aluminium; nickel)
Korea - KECI	Yes
New Zealand - NZIoC	No (lithium fluorophosphate)
Philippines - PICCS	No (lithium cobaltate)
USA - TSCA	All chemical substances in this product have been designated as TSCA Inventory 'Active'
Taiwan - TCSI	Yes
Mexico - INSQ	No (lithium cobaltate; lithium fluorophosphate)
Vietnam - NCI	Yes
Russia - FBEPH	No (lithium cobaltate; lithium fluorophosphate)
UAE - Control List (Banned/Restricted Substances)	No (lithium cobaltate; lithium fluorophosphate; copper)
Legend:	Yes = All CAS declared ingredients are on the inventory No = One or more of the CAS listed ingredients are not on the inventory. These ingredients may be exempt or will require registration.

SECTION 16 Other information

Revision Date	24/09/2025
Initial Date	24/09/2025

Other information

Ingredients with multiple cas numbers

Name	CAS No
lithium cobaltate	12190-79-3, 473894-38-1
graphite	7782-42-5, 115344-49-5, 1215114-94-5, 12424-49-6, 12751-41-6, 1397692-45-3, 1399-57-1, 155660-93-8, 156854-02-3, 159251-18-0, 164973-65-3, 1811526-35-8, 182761-22-4, 2093098-71-4, 2179292-22-7, 2183464-49-3, 37265-44-4, 37265-48-8, 50814-81-8, 72840-52-9, 82696-74-0, 82696-75-1, 82701-02-8, 82701-03-9, 82701-04-0, 82701-05-1, 82701-06-2, 82709-42-0, 83797-07-3, 84739-05-9, 857167-12-5, 87934-03-0
copper	7440-50-8, 133353-46-5, 133353-47-6, 195161-80-9, 65555-90-0, 72514-83-1, 1441640-38-5, 1993435-25-8, 2056901-56-3
aluminium	7429-90-5, 91728-14-2

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
- ES: Exposure Standard
- 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
- DNEL: Derived No-Effect Level
- PNEC: Predicted no-effect concentration
- MARPOL: International Convention for the Prevention of Pollution from Ships
- IMSBC: International Maritime Solid Bulk Cargoes Code
- IGC: International Gas Carrier Code
- IBC: International Bulk Chemical Code

- AIIC: Australian Inventory of Industrial Chemicals
- DSL: Domestic Substances List
- NDSL: Non-Domestic Substances List
- IECSC: Inventory of Existing Chemical Substance in China
- EINECS: European INventory of Existing Commercial chemical Substances
- ELINCS: European List of Notified Chemical Substances
- NLP: No-Longer Polymers
- ENCS: Existing and New Chemical Substances Inventory
- KECI: Korea Existing Chemicals Inventory
- NZIoC: New Zealand Inventory of Chemicals
- PICCS: Philippine Inventory of Chemicals and Chemical Substances
- TSCA: Toxic Substances Control Act
- TCSI: Taiwan Chemical Substance Inventory
- INSQ: Inventario Nacional de Sustancias Químicas
- NCI: National Chemical Inventory
- FBEPH: Russian Register of Potentially Hazardous Chemical and Biological Substances