



BW-316LP FCAW Stainless Steel Wire

Betaweld Welding Products

Part Number: 2114; 2115

Version No: 1.2

Safety Data Sheet according to WHS Regulations (Hazardous Chemicals) Amendment 2020 and ADG requirements

Issue Date: 07/10/2021

Print Date: 07/10/2021

L.GHS.AUS.EN

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

Product Identifier

Product name	BW-316LP FCAW Stainless Steel Wire
Chemical Name	Not Applicable
Synonyms	2114; 2115; E316LT1-1/4
Other means of identification	Not Available

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

Relevant identified uses	A rutile flux cored stainless steel wire for gas shielded welding.
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Details of the supplier of the safety data sheet

Registered company name	Betaweld Welding Products
Address	9 Barrel Way Canning Vale WA 6155 Australia
Telephone	(08) 9456 8000
Fax	Not Available
Website	www.betaweld.com.au
Email	Not Available

Emergency telephone number

Association / Organisation	The Poisons Information Centre
Emergency telephone numbers	13 11 26
Other emergency telephone numbers	Not Available

SECTION 2 Hazards identification


Classification of the substance or mixture

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

Poisons Schedule	Not Applicable
Classification [1]	Serious Eye Damage/Eye Irritation Category 2A, Sensitisation (Skin) Category 1, Specific Target Organ Toxicity - Repeated Exposure Category 1, Carcinogenicity Category 2
Legend:	1. Classification by vendor; 2. Classification drawn from HCIS; 3. Classification drawn from Regulation (EU) No 1272/2008 - Annex VI

Label elements

BW-316LP FCAW Stainless Steel Wire

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

H319	Causes serious eye irritation.
H317	May cause an allergic skin reaction.
H372	Causes damage to organs through prolonged or repeated exposure.
H351	Suspected of causing cancer.

Supplementary statement(s)

Not Applicable

Precautionary statement(s) Prevention

P201	Obtain special instructions before use.
P260	Do not breathe dust/fume.
P280	Wear protective gloves, protective clothing, eye protection and face protection.
P270	Do not eat, drink or smoke when using this product.
P264	Wash all exposed external body areas thoroughly after handling.
P272	Contaminated work clothing should not be allowed out of the workplace.

Precautionary statement(s) Response

P308+P313	IF exposed or concerned: Get medical advice/ attention.
P302+P352	IF ON SKIN: Wash with plenty of water and soap.
P305+P351+P338	IF IN EYES: Rinse cautiously with water for several minutes. Remove contact lenses, if present and easy to do. Continue rinsing.
P314	Get medical advice/attention if you feel unwell.
P333+P313	If skin irritation or rash occurs: Get medical advice/attention.
P337+P313	If eye irritation persists: Get medical advice/attention.
P362+P364	Take off contaminated clothing and wash it before reuse.

Precautionary statement(s) Storage

P405	Store locked up.
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Precautionary statement(s) Disposal

P501	Dispose of contents/container to authorised hazardous or special waste collection point in accordance with any local regulation.
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SECTION 3 Composition / information on ingredients

Substances

See section below for composition of Mixtures

Mixtures

CAS No	%[weight]	Name
Not Available	0.5-2.5	<u>manganese</u>
Not Available	0.05-1	<u>silicon</u>
Not Available	0.01-0.02	<u>phosphorus</u>
Not Available	<0.01	<u>sulfur</u>
Not Available	17-20	<u>chromium</u>
Not Available	11-14	<u>nickel</u>
Not Available	3-6	<u>FN</u>

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

Indication of any immediate medical attention and special treatment needed

Treat symptomatically.

Both dermal and oral toxicity of manganese salts is low because of limited solubility of manganese. No known permanent pulmonary sequelae develop after acute manganese exposure. Treatment is supportive.

[Ellenhorn and Barceloux: Medical Toxicology]

In clinical trials with miners exposed to manganese-containing dusts, L-dopa relieved extrapyramidal symptoms of both hypo kinetic and dystonic patients. For short periods of time symptoms could also be controlled with scopolamine and amphetamine. BAL and calcium EDTA prove ineffective.

[Gosselin et al: Clinical Toxicology of Commercial Products.]

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.

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‡ **DO NOT** use halogenated fire extinguishing agents.

Special hazards arising from the substrate or mixture

Fire Incompatibility	‡ Reacts with acids producing flammable / explosive hydrogen (H2) gas
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Advice for firefighters

Fire Fighting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ‡ Alert Fire Brigade and tell them location and nature of hazard. ‡ Wear breathing apparatus plus protective gloves 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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ‡ 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. <p>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.</p> <p>Metal powders, while generally regarded as non-combustible:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ‡ 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. <p>Note:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ‡ 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. <p>Decomposition may produce toxic fumes of: metal oxides</p> <p>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. May emit poisonous fumes.</p>
HAZCHEM	Not Applicable

SECTION 6 Accidental release measures

Personal precautions, protective equipment and emergency procedures

See section 8

Environmental precautions

See section 12

Methods and material for containment and cleaning up

Minor Spills	<p>Environmental hazard - contain spillage.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ‡ Clean up waste regularly and abnormal spills immediately. ‡ Avoid breathing dust and contact with skin and eyes. ‡ Wear protective clothing, gloves, safety glasses and dust respirator. ‡ Use dry clean up procedures and avoid generating dust. ‡ Vacuum up or sweep up. NOTE: Vacuum cleaner must be fitted with an exhaust micro filter (HEPA type) (consider explosion-proof machines designed to be grounded during storage and use). ‡ Dampen with water to prevent dusting before sweeping. ‡ Place in suitable containers for disposal.
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Major Spills	<p>Environmental hazard - contain spillage.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Do not use compressed air to remove metal dusts from floors, beams or equipment · Vacuum cleaners, of flame-proof design, should be used to minimise dust accumulation. · Use non-sparking handling equipment, tools and natural bristle brushes. · Provide grounding and bonding where necessary to prevent accumulation of static charges during metal dust handling and transfer operations · Cover and reseal partially empty containers. · Do not allow chips, fines or dusts to contact water, particularly in enclosed areas. <p>If molten:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▸ Contain the flow using dry sand or salt flux as a dam. ▸ All tooling (e.g., shovels or hand tools) and containers which come in contact with molten metal must be preheated or specially coated, rust free and approved for such use. ▸ Allow the spill to cool before remelting scrap. <p>Moderate hazard.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▸ CAUTION: Advise personnel in area. ▸ Alert Emergency Services and tell them location and nature of hazard. ▸ Control personal contact by wearing protective clothing. ▸ Prevent, by any means available, spillage from entering drains or water courses. ▸ Recover product wherever possible. ▸ IF DRY: Use dry clean up procedures and avoid generating dust. Collect residues and place in sealed plastic bags or other containers for disposal. IF WET: Vacuum/shovel up and place in labelled containers for disposal. ▸ ALWAYS: Wash area down with large amounts of water and prevent runoff into drains. ▸ If contamination of drains or waterways occurs, advise Emergency Services.
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Personal Protective Equipment advice is contained in Section 8 of the SDS.

SECTION 7 Handling and storage

Precautions for safe handling

Safe handling	<p>For molten metals:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Molten metal and water can be an explosive combination. The risk is greatest when there is sufficient molten metal to entrap or seal off water. Water and other forms of contamination on or contained in scrap or remelt ingot are known to have caused explosions in melting operations. While the products may have minimal surface roughness and internal voids, there remains the possibility of moisture contamination or entrapment. If confined, even a few drops can lead to violent explosions. · All tooling, containers, molds and ladles, which come in contact with molten metal must be preheated or specially coated, rust free and approved for such use. · Any surfaces that may contact molten metal (e.g. concrete) should be specially coated · Drops of molten metal in water (e.g. from plasma arc cutting), while not normally an explosion hazard, can generate enough flammable hydrogen gas to present an explosion hazard. Vigorous circulation of the water and removal of the particles minimise the hazard. <p>During melting operations, the following minimum guidelines should be observed:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Inspect all materials prior to furnace charging and completely remove surface contamination such as water, ice, snow, deposits of grease and oil or other surface contamination resulting from weather exposure, shipment, or storage. · Store materials in dry, heated areas with any cracks or cavities pointed downwards. · Preheat and dry large objects adequately before charging in to a furnace containing molten metal. This is typically done by the use of a drying oven or homogenising furnace. The dry cycle should bring the metal temperature of the coldest item of the batch to 200 degree C (400 deg F) and then hold at that temperature for 6 hours. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▸ Avoid all personal contact, including inhalation. ▸ Wear protective clothing when risk of exposure occurs. ▸ Use in a well-ventilated area. ▸ Prevent concentration in hollows and sumps. ▸ DO NOT enter confined spaces until atmosphere has been checked. ▸ DO NOT allow material to contact humans, exposed food or food utensils. ▸ Avoid contact with incompatible materials. ▸ When handling, DO NOT eat, drink or smoke. ▸ Keep containers securely sealed when not in use. ▸ Avoid physical damage to containers. ▸ Always wash hands with soap and water after handling. ▸ Work clothes should be laundered separately. Launder contaminated clothing before re-use. ▸ Use good occupational work practice. ▸ Observe manufacturer's storage and handling recommendations contained within this SDS. ▸ Atmosphere should be regularly checked against established exposure standards to ensure safe working conditions are maintained.
Other information	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▸ Store in original containers. ▸ Keep containers securely sealed. ▸ Store in a cool, dry area protected from environmental extremes. ▸ Store away from incompatible materials and foodstuff containers.

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- ▶ Protect containers against physical damage and check regularly for leaks.
 - ▶ Observe manufacturer's storage and handling recommendations contained within this SDS.
- For major quantities:
- ▶ Consider storage in banded areas - ensure storage areas are isolated from sources of community water (including stormwater, ground water, lakes and streams).
 - ▶ Ensure that accidental discharge to air or water is the subject of a contingency disaster management plan; this may require consultation with local authorities.

Conditions for safe storage, including any incompatibilities

Suitable container	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Bulk bags: Reinforced bags required for dense materials. ▶ CARE: Packing of high density product in light weight metal or plastic packages may result in container collapse with product release
Storage incompatibility	<p>The material is described as an electropositive metal.</p> <p>The activity or electromotive series of metals is a listing of the metals in decreasing order of their reactivity with hydrogen-ion sources such as water and acids. In the reaction with a hydrogen-ion source, the metal is oxidised to a metal ion, and the hydrogen ion is reduced to H₂. The ordering of the activity series can be related to the standard reduction potential of a metal cation. The more positive the standard reduction potential of the cation, the more difficult it is to oxidise the metal to a hydrated metal cation and the later that metal falls in the series</p> <p>Three notable groups comprise the series</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ very electropositive metals ▶ electropositive metals ▶ electronegative metals <p>Electropositive metals have electronegativities that fall between 1.4 and 1.9. Cations of these metals generally have standard reduction potentials between 0.0 and -1.6 V</p> <p>They:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ do not react very readily with water to release hydrogen ▶ react with H⁺ (acids) <p>Electropositive metals do not burn in air as readily as do very electropositive metals. The surfaces of these metals will tarnish in the presence of oxygen forming a protective oxide coating. This coating protects the bulk of the metal against further oxidation (the metal is passivated).</p> <p>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:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ 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. ▶ Elemental metals may react with azo/diazo compounds to form explosive products <p>▶ 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.</p> <p>▶ Safe handling is possible in relatively low concentrations of oxygen in an inert gas</p> <p>▶ 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.</p> <p>▶ The reaction residues from various metal syntheses (involving vacuum evaporation and co-deposition with a ligand) are often pyrophoric</p> <p>If the surface of the metal is in contact with both oxygen and water, corrosion can occur. In corrosion, the metal acts as an anode and is oxidised.</p> <p>Many metals may incandesce, react violently, ignite or react explosively upon addition of concentrated nitric acid. Some electropositive metals do not react with nitric acid because they are passivated.</p> <p>http://www.wou.edu/las/physci/ch412/activity.htm</p> <p>The material is described as an electronegative metal.</p> <p>The activity or electromotive series of metals is a listing of the metals in decreasing order of their reactivity with hydrogen-ion sources such as water and acids. In the reaction with a hydrogen-ion source, the metal is oxidised to a metal ion, and the hydrogen ion is reduced to H₂. The ordering of the activity series can be related to the standard reduction potential of a metal cation. The more positive the standard reduction potential of the cation, the more difficult it is to oxidise the metal to a hydrated metal cation and the later that metal falls in the series</p> <p>Three notable groups comprise the series</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ very electropositive metals ▶ electropositive metals ▶ electronegative metals <p>Electronegative metals have electronegativities that fall between 1.9 and 2.5. Cations of these metals generally have positive standard reduction potentials.</p> <p>They:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ are not oxidised by H⁺ (acids) ▶ are good oxidising agents ▶ oxidise H₂ producing H⁺ and depositing the metals from an aqueous solution

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▶ produce cations that will oxidise more active metals to the cation - the less active metal is deposited as the metal

Electronegative metals are not corroded by oxygen. They are called "noble metals" and are used in coinage and jewelry. Some in this group are slowly oxidised. The oxides formed are not very stable and can be decomposed by heating. Metals in this group can be obtained by thermal decomposition of their oxides. Although non-oxidising acids can't attack electronegative metals, oxidising acids (such as nitric acid) often dissolve them.

<http://www.wou.edu/las/phisci/ch412/activity.htm>

For aluminas (aluminium oxide):

Incompatible with hot chlorinated rubber.

In the presence of chlorine trifluoride may react violently and ignite.

-May initiate explosive polymerisation of olefin oxides including ethylene oxide.

-Produces exothermic reaction above 200°C with halocarbons and an exothermic reaction at ambient temperatures with halocarbons in the presence of other metals.

-Produces exothermic reaction with oxygen difluoride.

-May form explosive mixture with oxygen difluoride.

-Forms explosive mixtures with sodium nitrate.

-Reacts vigorously with vinyl acetate.

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.

▶ **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

▶ Metals and their oxides or salts may react violently with chlorine trifluoride and bromine trifluoride.

▶ These trifluorides are hypergolic oxidisers. They ignite on contact (without external source of heat or ignition) with recognised fuels - contact with these materials, following an ambient or slightly elevated temperature, is often violent and may produce ignition.

▶ The state of subdivision may affect the results.

▶ Many metals may incandesce, react violently, ignite or react explosively upon addition of concentrated nitric acid.



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

Not Available

Emergency Limits

Ingredient	TEEL-1	TEEL-2	TEEL-3
BW-316LP FCAW Stainless Steel Wire	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available

Ingredient	Original IDLH	Revised IDLH
BW-316LP FCAW Stainless Steel Wire	Not Available	Not Available

MATERIAL DATA

Ceiling values were recommended for manganese and compounds in earlier publications. As manganese is a chronic toxin a TWA is considered more appropriate. Because workers exposed to fume exhibited manganism at air-borne concentrations below those that affect workers exposed to dust a lower value has been proposed to provide an extra margin of safety. This value is still above that experienced by two workers exposed to manganese fume in the course of one study.

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An increased incidence of non-specific symptoms including headache, weakness, fatigue, anorexia and joint and muscle weakness has been reported to occur in mining and metallurgy workers exposed to 60-600 mg (as Mo). Some investigators have attributed gout and elevated uric acid concentration found in some Armenians to result from exposures to Armenian soils rich in molybdenum, whilst exposure has been implicated as a cause of bone disease amongst Indians. "These involvements are speculative". [US National Research Council]. As far as it is known, the recommended TLV-TWA incorporates a large margin of safety against potential pulmonary or systemic effects.

For silicon

CEL TWA: 5 mg/m³

(CEL = Chemwatch Exposure Limit)

NOTE: The CEL TWA is consistent with the value recommended in the Norwegian ferro-alloy industry (furnace room dust/mixed dust).

Silicon dust appears to have little adverse effect on the lungs and is not implicated in the genesis of organic disease or in the production of toxic effects. The TLV-TWA is thought to be protective against physical irritation and possible chronic respiratory effects encountered at higher levels.

For aluminium oxide:


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

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

Exposure controls

Appropriate engineering controls	<p>Metal dusts must be collected at the source of generation as they are potentially explosive.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Avoid ignition sources. ▶ Good housekeeping practices must be maintained. ▶ Dust accumulation on the floor, ledges and beams can present a risk of ignition, flame propagation and secondary explosions. ▶ Do not use compressed air to remove settled materials from floors, beams or equipment ▶ Vacuum cleaners, of flame-proof design, should be used to minimise dust accumulation. ▶ Use non-sparking handling equipment, tools and natural bristle brushes. Cover and reseal partially empty containers. Provide grounding and bonding where necessary to prevent accumulation of static charges during metal dust handling and transfer operations. ▶ Do not allow chips, fines or dusts to contact water, particularly in enclosed areas. ▶ Metal spraying and blasting should, where possible, be conducted in separate rooms. This minimises the risk of supplying oxygen, in the form of metal oxides, to potentially reactive finely divided metals such as aluminium, zinc, magnesium or titanium. ▶ Work-shops designed for metal spraying should possess smooth walls and a minimum of obstructions, such as ledges, on which dust accumulation is possible. ▶ Wet scrubbers are preferable to dry dust collectors. ▶ Bag or filter-type collectors should be sited outside the workrooms and be fitted with explosion relief doors. ▶ Cyclones should be protected against entry of moisture as reactive metal dusts are capable of spontaneous combustion in humid or partially wetted states. ▶ Local exhaust systems must be designed to provide a minimum capture velocity at the fume source, away from the worker, of 0.5 metre/sec. ▶ Local ventilation and vacuum systems must be designed to handle explosive dusts. Dry vacuum and electrostatic precipitators must not be used, unless specifically approved for use with flammable/ explosive dusts. 										
	<p>Air contaminants generated in the workplace possess varying "escape" velocities which, in turn, determine the "capture velocities" of fresh circulating air required to effectively remove the contaminant.</p>										
	<table border="1" style="width: 100%;"> <tr> <td style="width: 70%;">Type of Contaminant:</td> <td style="width: 30%;">Air Speed:</td> </tr> <tr> <td>welding, brazing fumes (released at relatively low velocity into moderately still air)</td> <td>0.5-1.0 m/s (100-200 f/min.)</td> </tr> </table>	Type of Contaminant:	Air Speed:	welding, brazing fumes (released at relatively low velocity into moderately still air)	0.5-1.0 m/s (100-200 f/min.)						
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	welding, brazing fumes (released at relatively low velocity into moderately still air)	0.5-1.0 m/s (100-200 f/min.)									
	<p>Within each range the appropriate value depends on:</p>										
	<table border="1" style="width: 100%;"> <thead> <tr> <th style="width: 50%;">Lower end of the range</th> <th style="width: 50%;">Upper end of the range</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>1: Room air currents minimal or favourable to capture</td> <td>1: Disturbing room air currents</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2: Contaminants of low toxicity or of nuisance value only.</td> <td>2: Contaminants of high toxicity</td> </tr> <tr> <td>3: Intermittent, low production.</td> <td>3: High production, heavy use</td> </tr> <tr> <td>4: Large hood or large air mass in motion</td> <td>4: Small hood-local control only</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Lower end of the range	Upper end of the range	1: Room air currents minimal or favourable to capture	1: Disturbing room air currents	2: Contaminants of low toxicity or of nuisance value only.	2: Contaminants of high toxicity	3: Intermittent, low production.	3: High production, heavy use	4: Large hood or large air mass in motion	4: Small hood-local control only
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<p>Simple theory shows that air velocity falls rapidly with distance away from the opening of a simple extraction pipe. Velocity generally decreases with the square of distance from the extraction point (in simple cases). Therefore the air speed at the extraction point should be adjusted, accordingly, after reference to distance from the contaminating source. The air velocity at the extraction fan, for example, should be a minimum of 1-2.5 m/s (200-500 f/min.) for extraction of gases discharged 2 meters distant from the extraction point. Other mechanical considerations, producing performance deficits within the extraction apparatus, make it essential that theoretical air velocities are multiplied by factors of 10 or more when extraction systems are installed or used.</p>											

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<p>Personal protection</p>	
<p>Eye and face protection</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▸ Safety glasses with side shields ▸ Chemical goggles. ▸ Contact lenses may pose a special hazard; soft contact lenses may absorb and concentrate irritants. A written policy document, describing the wearing of lenses or restrictions on use, should be created for each workplace or task. This should include a review of lens absorption and adsorption for the class of chemicals in use and an account of injury experience. Medical and first-aid personnel should be trained in their removal and suitable equipment should be readily available. In the event of chemical exposure, begin eye irrigation immediately and remove contact lens as soon as practicable. Lens should be removed at the first signs of eye redness or irritation - lens should be removed in a clean environment only after workers have washed hands thoroughly. [CDC NIOSH Current Intelligence Bulletin 59], [AS/NZS 1336 or national equivalent]
<p>Skin protection</p>	<p>See Hand protection below</p>
<p>Hands/feet protection</p>	<p>The selection of suitable gloves does not only depend on the material, but also on further marks of quality which vary from manufacturer to manufacturer. Where the chemical is a preparation of several substances, the resistance of the glove material can not be calculated in advance and has therefore to be checked prior to the application.</p> <p>The exact break through time for substances has to be obtained from the manufacturer of the protective gloves and has to be observed when making a final choice.</p> <p>Personal hygiene is a key element of effective hand care. Gloves must only be worn on clean hands. After using gloves, hands should be washed and dried thoroughly. Application of a non-perfumed moisturiser is recommended.</p> <p>Suitability and durability of glove type is dependent on usage. Important factors in the selection of gloves include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · frequency and duration of contact, · chemical resistance of glove material, · glove thickness and · dexterity <p>Select gloves tested to a relevant standard (e.g. Europe EN 374, US F739, AS/NZS 2161.1 or national equivalent).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · When prolonged or frequently repeated contact may occur, a glove with a protection class of 5 or higher (breakthrough time greater than 240 minutes according to EN 374, AS/NZS 2161.10.1 or national equivalent) is recommended. · When only brief contact is expected, a glove with a protection class of 3 or higher (breakthrough time greater than 60 minutes according to EN 374, AS/NZS 2161.10.1 or national equivalent) is recommended. · Some glove polymer types are less affected by movement and this should be taken into account when considering gloves for long-term use. · Contaminated gloves should be replaced. <p>As defined in ASTM F-739-96 in any application, gloves are rated as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Excellent when breakthrough time > 480 min · Good when breakthrough time > 20 min · Fair when breakthrough time < 20 min · Poor when glove material degrades <p>For general applications, gloves with a thickness typically greater than 0.35 mm, are recommended.</p> <p>It should be emphasised that glove thickness is not necessarily a good predictor of glove resistance to a specific chemical, as the permeation efficiency of the glove will be dependent on the exact composition of the glove material. Therefore, glove selection should also be based on consideration of the task requirements and knowledge of breakthrough times.</p> <p>Glove thickness may also vary depending on the glove manufacturer, the glove type and the glove model. Therefore, the manufacturers' technical data should always be taken into account to ensure selection of the most appropriate glove for the task.</p> <p>Note: Depending on the activity being conducted, gloves of varying thickness may be required for specific tasks. For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Thinner gloves (down to 0.1 mm or less) may be required where a high degree of manual dexterity is needed. However, these gloves are only likely to give short duration protection and would normally be just for single use applications, then disposed of. · Thicker gloves (up to 3 mm or more) may be required where there is a mechanical (as well as a chemical) risk i.e. where there is abrasion or puncture potential <p>Gloves must only be worn on clean hands. After using gloves, hands should be washed and dried thoroughly. Application of a non-perfumed moisturiser is recommended.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▸ Protective gloves eg. Leather gloves or gloves with Leather facing <p>Experience indicates that the following polymers are suitable as glove materials for protection against undissolved, dry solids, where abrasive particles are not present.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▸ polychloroprene. ▸ nitrile rubber. ▸ butyl rubber. ▸ fluorocautchouc. ▸ polyvinyl chloride. <p>Gloves should be examined for wear and/ or degradation constantly.</p>
<p>Body protection</p>	<p>See Other protection below</p>
<p>Other protection</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▸ Overalls. ▸ P.V.C apron. ▸ Barrier cream. ▸ Skin cleansing cream. ▸ Eye wash unit.

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Respiratory protection

Particulate. (AS/NZS 1716 & 1715, EN 143:2000 & 149:001, ANSI Z88 or national equivalent)

Selection of the Class and Type of respirator will depend upon the level of breathing zone contaminant and the chemical nature of the contaminant. Protection Factors (defined as the ratio of contaminant outside and inside the mask) may also be important.

Required minimum protection factor	Maximum gas/vapour concentration present in air p.p.m. (by volume)	Half-face Respirator	Full-Face Respirator
up to 10	1000	-AUS / Class1 P2	-
up to 50	1000	-	-AUS / Class 1 P2
up to 50	5000	Airline *	-
up to 100	5000	-	-2 P2
up to 100	10000	-	-3 P2
100+			Airline**

* - Continuous Flow ** - Continuous-flow or positive pressure demand

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

- Respirators may be necessary when engineering and administrative controls do not adequately prevent exposures.
- The decision to use respiratory protection should be based on professional judgment that takes into account toxicity information, exposure measurement data, and frequency and likelihood of the worker's exposure - ensure users are not subject to high thermal loads which may result in heat stress or distress due to personal protective equipment (powered, positive flow, full face apparatus may be an option).
- Published occupational exposure limits, where they exist, will assist in determining the adequacy of the selected respiratory protection. These may be government mandated or vendor recommended.
- Certified respirators will be useful for protecting workers from inhalation of particulates when properly selected and fit tested as part of a complete respiratory protection program.
- 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.

SECTION 9 Physical and chemical properties

Information on basic physical and chemical properties

Appearance	Silver		
Physical state	Solid	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	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 Available	Oxidising properties	Not Available
Upper Explosive Limit (%)	Not Available	Surface Tension (dyn/cm or mN/m)	Not Applicable
Lower Explosive Limit (%)	Not Available	Volatile Component (%vol)	Not Available
Vapour pressure (kPa)	Not Available	Gas group	Not Available
Solubility in water	Immiscible	pH as a solution (%)	Not Available

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Vapour density (Air = 1)	Not Available	VOC g/L	Not Available
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SECTION 10 Stability and reactivity

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

SECTION 11 Toxicological information

Information on toxicological effects

Inhaled	<p>The material is not thought to produce adverse health effects or irritation of the respiratory tract (as classified by EC Directives using animal models). Nevertheless, good hygiene practice requires that exposure be kept to a minimum and that suitable control measures be used in an occupational setting.</p> <p>Strong evidence exists that exposure to the material may produce serious irreversible damage (other than carcinogenesis, mutagenesis and teratogenesis) following a single exposure by inhalation. Not normally a hazard due to non-volatile nature of product Bronchial and alveolar exudate are apparent in animals exposed to molybdenum by inhalation. Molybdenum fume may produce bronchial irritation and moderate fatty changes in liver and kidney. Manganese fume is toxic and produces nervous system effects characterised by tiredness. Acute poisoning is rare although acute inflammation of the lungs may occur. A chemical pneumonia may also result from frequent exposure. Inhalation of freshly formed metal oxide particles sized below 1.5 microns and generally between 0.02 to 0.05 microns may result in "metal fume fever". Symptoms may be delayed for up to 12 hours and begin with the sudden onset of thirst, and a sweet, metallic or foul taste in the mouth. Other symptoms include upper respiratory tract irritation accompanied by coughing and a dryness of the mucous membranes, lassitude and a generalised feeling of malaise. Mild to severe headache, nausea, occasional vomiting, fever or chills, exaggerated mental activity, profuse sweating, diarrhoea, excessive urination and prostration may also occur. Tolerance to the fumes develops rapidly, but is quickly lost. All symptoms usually subside within 24-36 hours following removal from exposure.</p> <p>Strong evidence exists that exposure to the material may produce serious irreversible damage (other than carcinogenesis, mutagenesis and teratogenesis) following a single exposure by skin contact.</p>
Ingestion	<p>Strong evidence exists that exposure to the material may produce serious irreversible damage (other than carcinogenesis, mutagenesis and teratogenesis) following a single exposure by swallowing.</p> <p>The material has NOT been classified by EC Directives or other classification systems as "harmful by ingestion". This is because of the lack of corroborating animal or human evidence. The material may still be damaging to the health of the individual, following ingestion, especially where pre-existing organ (e.g liver, kidney) damage is evident. Present definitions of harmful or toxic substances are generally based on doses producing mortality rather than those producing morbidity (disease, ill-health). Gastrointestinal tract discomfort may produce nausea and vomiting. In an occupational setting however, ingestion of insignificant quantities is not thought to be cause for concern.</p> <p>Ingestion of large doses may result in severe distress, cramping, vomiting and hypertension. Molybdenum is rapidly excreted from the body as the molybdate and does not accumulate in mammals. The biological half-life is of the order of hours in experimental animals and weeks in humans.</p> <p>Molybdenum is of biological importance as an essential trace element in the Mo-flavoprotein enzyme, xanthine oxidase. It is also necessary for nitrogen-fixation by soil bacteria; livestock poisoning has been recorded in animals feeding on herbage containing high levels of molybdenum. Signs of molybdenum poisoning include loss of appetite, listlessness, diarrhoea and reduced growth rate. Anaemia is characteristic of molybdenum toxicity with low haemoglobin concentration and reduced red blood cell count. Livers and kidneys of severely poisoned animals show fatty degeneration. Other symptoms include achromotrichia (loss of hair pigment), testicular degeneration, poor conception and deficient lactation, dyspnoea, incoordination and irritation of the mucous membranes.</p> <p>Molybdenum depresses liver sulfide oxidase activity and the resulting sulfide accumulation leads to the formation of highly insoluble cupric sulfide and the subsequent appearance of copper deficiency. Symptoms of molybdenosis described above are similar to those of hypocuprosis.</p> <p>Poisonings rarely occur after oral administration of manganese salts as they are generally poorly absorbed from the gut (generally less than 4%) and seems to be dependent, in part, on levels of dietary iron and may increase following the consumption of alcohol. A side-effect of oral manganese administration is an increase in losses of calcium in the faeces and a subsequent lowering of calcium blood levels. Absorbed manganese tends to be slowly excreted in the bile. Divalent manganese appears to be 2.5-3 times more toxic than the trivalent form.</p>

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<p>Skin Contact</p>	<p>Strong evidence exists that exposure to the material may produce serious irreversible damage (other than carcinogenesis, mutagenesis and teratogenesis) following a single exposure by skin contact.</p> <p>The material is not thought to produce adverse health effects or skin irritation following contact (as classified by EC Directives using animal models). Nevertheless, good hygiene practice requires that exposure be kept to a minimum and that suitable gloves be used in an occupational setting.</p> <p>Contact with aluminas (aluminium oxides) may produce a form of irritant dermatitis accompanied by pruritus.</p> <p>Though considered non-harmful, slight irritation may result from contact because of the abrasive nature of the aluminium oxide particles.</p> <p>Chrome fume, as the chrome VI oxide, is corrosive to the skin and may aggravate pre-existing skin conditions such as dermatitis and eczema. As a potential skin sensitiser, the fume may cause dermatoses to appear suddenly and without warning. Absorption of chrome VI compounds through the skin can cause systemic poisoning affecting the kidneys and liver.</p> <p>Open cuts, abraded or irritated skin should not be exposed to this material</p> <p>Entry into the blood-stream through, for example, cuts, abrasions, puncture wounds or lesions, may produce systemic injury with harmful effects. Examine the skin prior to the use of the material and ensure that any external damage is suitably protected.</p>
<p>Eye</p>	<p>Although the material is not thought to be an irritant (as classified by EC Directives), direct contact with the eye may cause transient discomfort characterised by tearing or conjunctival redness (as with windburn). Slight abrasive damage may also result. The material may produce foreign body irritation in certain individuals.</p>
<p>Chronic</p>	<p>Practical 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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>There is sufficient evidence to provide a strong presumption that human exposure to the material may result in impaired fertility on the basis of: - clear evidence in animal studies of impaired fertility in the absence of toxic effects, or evidence of impaired fertility occurring at around the same dose levels as other toxic effects but which is not a secondary non-specific consequence of other toxic effects.</p> <p>Chronic exposure to aluminas (aluminium oxides) of particle size 1.2 microns did not produce significant systemic or respiratory system effects in workers. Epidemiologic surveys have indicated an excess of nonmalignant respiratory disease in workers exposed to aluminum oxide during abrasives production.</p> <p>Very fine Al₂O₃ powder was not fibrogenic in rats, guinea pigs, or hamsters when inhaled for 6 to 12 months and sacrificed at periods up to 12 months following the last exposure.</p> <p>When hydrated aluminas were injected intratracheally, they produced dense and numerous nodules of advanced fibrosis in rats, a reticulin network with occasional collagen fibres in mice and guinea pigs, and only a slight reticulin network in rabbits. Shaver's disease, a rapidly progressive and often fatal interstitial fibrosis of the lungs, is associated with a process involving the fusion of bauxite (aluminium oxide) with iron, coke and silica at 2000 deg. C.</p> <p>The weight of evidence suggests that catalytically active alumina and the large surface area aluminas can induce lung fibrosis(aluminosis) in experimental animals, but only when given by the intra-tracheal route. The pertinence of such experiments in relation to workplace exposure is doubtful especially since it has been demonstrated that the most reactive of the aluminas (i.e. the chi and gamma forms), when given by inhalation, are non-fibrogenic in experimental animals. However rats exposed by inhalation to refractory aluminium fibre showed mild fibrosis and possibly carcinogenic effects indicating that fibrous aluminas might exhibit different toxicology to non-fibrous forms. Aluminium oxide fibres administered by the intrapleural route produce clear evidence of carcinogenicity.</p> <p>Saffil fibre an artificially produced form alumina fibre used as refractories, consists of over 95% alumina, 3-4 % silica. Animal tests for fibrogenic, carcinogenic potential and oral toxicity have included in-vitro, intraperitoneal injection, intrapleural injection, inhalation, and feeding. The fibre has generally been inactive in animal studies. Also studies of Saffil dust clouds show very low respirable fraction.</p> <p>There is general agreement that particle size determines that the degree of pathogenicity (the ability of a micro-organism to produce infectious disease) of elementary aluminium, or its oxides or hydroxides when they occur as dusts, fumes or vapours. Only those particles small enough to enter the alveoli (sub 5 um) are able to produce pathogenic effects in the lungs.</p> <p>Repeated or prolonged exposure may also damage the liver and may cause a decrease in the heart rate. Systemic poisoning may result from inhalation or chronic ingestion of manganese containing substances. Progressive and permanent disability can occur from chronic manganese poisoning if it is not treated, but it is not fatal.</p> <p>Chronic exposure has been associated with two major effects; bronchitis/pneumonitis following inhalation of manganese dusts and "manganism", a neuropsychiatric disorder that may also arise from inhalation exposures. Chronic exposure to low levels may result in the accumulation of toxic concentrations in critical organs. The brain in particular appears to sustain cellular damage to the ganglion. Symptoms appear before any pathology is evident and may include a mask-like facial expression, spastic gait, tremors, slurred speech, sometimes dystonia (disordered muscle tone), fatigue, anorexia, asthenia (loss of strength and energy), apathy and the inability to concentrate. Insomnia may be an early finding. Chronic poisoning may occur over a 6-24 month period depending on exposure levels.</p> <p>The onset of chronic manganese poisoning is insidious, with apathy, anorexia weakness, headache and spasms. Manganese psychosis follows with certain definitive features: unaccountable laughter, euphoria, impulsive acts, absentmindedness, mental confusion, aggressiveness and hallucinations. The final stage is characterised by speech difficulties, muscular twitching, spastic gait and other nervous system effects. Symptoms resemble those of Parkinson's disease. Rat studies indicate the gradual accumulation of brain manganese to produce lesions mimicking those found in Parkinsonism. If the disease is diagnosed whilst still in the early stages and the patient is removed from exposure, the course may be reversed.</p> <p>Inhalation of manganese fumes may cause 'metal fume fever' characterised by flu-like symptoms: fever, chill, nausea, weakness and body aches. Manganese dust is no longer believed to be a causative factor in pneumonia. If there is any relationship at all, it appears to be as an aggravating factor to a preexisting condition.</p>

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Prolonged or repeated eye contact may result in conjunctivitis.

Manganese is an essential trace element in all living organisms with the level of tissue manganese remaining remarkably constant throughout life.

Persons, exposed for long periods to molybdenum oxides, suffer from anaemia. Animals exposed to certain insoluble molybdenum compounds show anorexia, diarrhoea, weight loss, listlessness, and liver and kidney damage. Molybdenum disturbs bone metabolism, giving rise to lameness, bone joint abnormalities, osteoporosis and high serum phosphatase levels. Cattle, rabbits, and chicks on high dietary levels of molybdenum exhibited deformities of joints of the extremities. Low molybdenum intake has been attributed to the high incidence of oesophageal cancer in South Africa among the Bantu of Transkei, in China and in Russia.

Chronic exposure of workers in Russian molybdenum-copper plant resulted in a fall in the albumin/globulin ratio owing to a rise in globulins (particularly alpha-globulins) which is interpreted as evidence of liver dysfunction with hyperbilirubinaemia. Hepatotoxic effects are also found in animals given molybdenum salts with a rise in alpha-globulin levels, hypoalbuminaemia and increased serum bilirubin reported. Other reported biochemical effects include an early depletive effect on tissue nicotinamide nucleotides, hyperaminoaciduria, reduction in red blood cell life-span and hyper-thyroidism. Industrial exposure to some insoluble molybdenum compounds is thought to have resulted in an increased incidence of weakness, fatigue, anorexia, headache and joint and muscular pain. Under the conditions of a 2-year inhalation study* there was equivocal evidence of carcinogenic activity of molybdenum trioxide in male rats, male mice and female mice based on a marginally significant positive trend of alveolar/bronchiolar adenoma or carcinoma. There was no evidence of carcinogenic activity in female rats exposed to 10, 30 and 100 mg/m³. Exposure of male and female rats to molybdenum trioxide by inhalation resulted in increased incidences of chronic alveolar inflammation, hyaline degeneration of the olfactory epithelium (females), hyaline degeneration of the respiratory epithelium and squamous metaplasia of the epiglottis. Exposure of female and male mice to molybdenum trioxide resulted in an increased incidence of metaplasia of the alveolar epithelium, histiocyte cellular inflammation (males), hyaline degeneration of the respiratory epithelium, hyaline degeneration of the olfactory epithelium (females), squamous metaplasia of the epiglottis, and hyperplasia of the larynx.

Guinea pigs exposed to molybdenum trioxide dust for 1 hour daily at 250 mg/m³ showed extreme irritation. Symptoms include loss of appetite, weight loss, diarrhoea, muscular incoordination and loss of hair. Of the 51 animals exposed, 26 died after the tenth exposure. Exposure to freshly generated MoO₂ fume under about the same exposure conditions proved unexpectedly less toxic, with only 8.3% mortality compared with 51% mortality with the dust, and no mortality when the exposure level was reduced to about one-third (57 mg Mo/m³). Explanation for this unexpected finding was felt to reside in the more rapid solution and elimination of the large surface area fume particle. [Patty's]

Exposure of male and female rats to molybdenum trioxide resulted in the development of respiratory system lesions. In the lung, the incidence and severity of chronic alveolar inflammation increased with increasing exposure concentration in male and female rats. In some male rats, exposure to the material resulted in alveolar/ bronchiolar adenomas or carcinomas. Lesions in the nose (hyaline degeneration) and larynx (squamous metaplasia) were considered to be a non-specific defensive or adaptive response to chronic inhalation exposure. Inhalation exposure of mice to molybdenum trioxide was associated with the development of lung neoplasms and an increased incidence of alveolar/ bronchiolar carcinoma or adenoma in both sexes. Chronic inflammatory lesions were not present in the lungs. Lesions of the nose and larynx were similar to those observed in rats.

Molybdenum trioxide was not mutagenic in any of five strains of *Salmonella typhimurium* and did not induce sister chromatid exchanges or chromosomal aberrations in cultured Chinese hamster ovary cells in vitro. All tests were conducted with or without S9 metabolic activation enzymes.

Pneumoconiosis has been described in experimental animals exposed sub-chronically to molybdenum trioxide.

The mechanism of molybdenum trioxide action in lung carcinogenicity is not known; the material is not mutagenic.

Non-neoplastic lesions of the nose and larynx of rats and in the nose, larynx and lungs of mice were apparently due to the development of a more durable epithelium in response to chronic exposure.

The US Department of Health and Human Services (1) concluded that there was equivocal evidence of carcinogenic activity in male F344/N rats based on a marginally significant positive trend of alveolar/ bronchiolar adenoma or carcinoma; that there was no evidence of carcinogenic activity in female F344/N rats; that there was some evidence of carcinogenic activity in male B6C3F1 mice and that there was evidence of carcinogenic activity in female B6C3F1 mice

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Chromium(III) is considered an essential trace nutrient serving as a component of the "glucose tolerance factor" and a cofactor for insulin action. High concentrations of chromium are also found in RNA. Trivalent chromium is the most common form found in nature.

Chronic inhalation of trivalent chromium compounds produces irritation of the bronchus and lungs, dystrophic changes to the liver and kidney, pulmonary oedema, and adverse effects on macrophages. Intratracheal administration of chromium(III) oxide, in rats, increased the incidence of sarcomas, and tumors and reticulum cell sarcomas of the lung. There is inadequate evidence of carcinogenicity of chromium(III) compounds in experimental animals and humans (IARC).

Chronic exposure to hexavalent chromium compounds reportedly produces skin, eye and respiratory tract irritation, yellowing of the eyes and skin, allergic skin and respiratory reactions, diminished sense of smell and taste, blood disorders, liver and kidney damage, digestive disorders and lung damage. There is sufficient evidence of carcinogenicity of chromium(VI) compounds in experimental animals and humans to confirm these as Class 1 carcinogens (IARC).

Exposure to chromium during chrome production and in the chrome pigment industry is associated with cancer of the respiratory tract. A slight increase in gastrointestinal cancer following exposure to chromium compounds has also been reported. The greatest risk is attributed to exposure to acid-soluble, water-insoluble hexavalent chromium which occurs in roasting and refining processes. Animal studies support the idea that the most potent carcinogenic compounds are the slightly soluble hexavalent compounds. The cells are more active in the uptake of the hexavalent forms compared to trivalent forms and this may explain the difference in occupational effect. It is the trivalent form, however, which is metabolically active and binds with nucleic acid within the cell suggesting that chromium mutagenesis first requires biotransformation of the hexavalent form by reduction.

Hexavalent chromes produce chronic ulceration of skin surfaces (quite independent of other hypersensitivity reactions exhibited by the skin). Water-soluble chromium(VI) compounds come close to the top of any published "hit list" of contact allergens (eczematogens) producing positive results in 4 to 10% of tested individuals. On the other hand only chromium(III) compounds can bind to high molecular weight carriers such as proteins to form a complete allergen (such as a hapten). Chromium(VI)

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	<p>compounds cannot. It is assumed that reduction must take place for such compounds to manifest any contact sensitivity. The apparent contradiction that chromium(VI) salts cause allergies to chromium(III) compounds but that allergy to chromium(III) compounds is difficult to demonstrate is accounted for by the different solubilities and skin penetration of these compounds. Water-soluble chromium(VI) salts penetrate the horny layer of the skin more readily than chromium(III) compounds which are bound by cross-linking in the horny layer ("tanning", as for leather) and therefore do not reach the cells involved in antigen processing.</p> <p>On the basis, primarily, of animal experiments, concern has been expressed that the material may produce carcinogenic or mutagenic effects; in respect of the available information, however, there presently exists inadequate data for making a satisfactory assessment.</p>	
BW-316LP FCAW Stainless Steel Wire	TOXICITY	IRRITATION
	Not Available	Not Available
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	

BW-316LP FCAW Stainless Steel Wire	<p>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.</p>
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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

BW-316LP FCAW Stainless Steel Wire	Endpoint	Test Duration (hr)	Species	Value	Source
	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
Legend:	Extracted from 1. IUCLID Toxicity Data 2. Europe ECHA Registered Substances - Ecotoxicological Information - Aquatic Toxicity 3. EPIWIN Suite V3.12 (QSAR) - Aquatic Toxicity Data (Estimated) 4. US EPA, Ecotox database - Aquatic Toxicity Data 5. ECETOC Aquatic Hazard Assessment Data 6. NITE (Japan) - Bioconcentration Data 7. METI (Japan) - Bioconcentration Data 8. Vendor Data				

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.

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

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

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

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

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

The counter-ion may also create health and environmental concerns once isolated from the metal. Under normal physiological conditions the counter-ion may be

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essentially insoluble and may not be bioavailable.

Environmental processes may enhance bioavailability.

For manganese and its compounds:

Environmental fate:

It has been established that while lower organisms (e.g., plankton, aquatic plants, and some fish) can significantly bioconcentrate manganese, higher organisms (including humans) tend to maintain manganese homeostasis. This indicates that the potential for biomagnification of manganese from lower trophic levels to higher ones is low.

There were two mechanisms involved in explaining the retention of manganese and other metals in the environment by soil. First, through cation exchange reactions, manganese ions and the charged surface of soil particles form manganese oxides, hydroxides, and oxyhydroxides which in turn form absorption sites for other metals. Secondly, manganese can be adsorbed to other oxides, hydroxides, and oxyhydroxides through ligand exchange reactions. When the soil solution becomes saturated, these manganese oxides, hydroxides, and oxyhydroxides can precipitate into a new mineral phase and act as a new surface to which other substances can adsorb. The tendency of soluble manganese compounds to adsorb to soils and sediments depends mainly on the cation exchange capacity and the organic composition of the soil. The soil adsorption constants (the ratio of the concentration in soil to the concentration in water) for Mn(II) span five orders of magnitude, ranging from 0.2 to 10,000 mL/g, increasing as a function of the organic content and the ion exchange capacity of the soil; thus, adsorption may be highly variable. In some cases, adsorption of manganese to soils may not be a readily reversible process. At low concentrations, manganese may be "fixed" by clays and will not be released into solution readily. At higher concentrations, manganese may be desorbed by ion exchange mechanisms with other ions in solution. For example, the discharge of waste water effluent into estuarine environments resulted in the mobilization of manganese from the bottom sediments.

The metals in the effluent may have been preferentially adsorbed resulting in the release of manganese. The oxidation state of manganese in soil and sediments may be altered by microbial activity; oxidation may lead to the precipitation of manganese. Bacteria and microflora can increase the mobility of manganese.

The transport and partitioning of manganese in water is controlled by the solubility of the specific chemical form present, which in turn is determined by pH, Eh (oxidation-reduction potential), and the characteristics of the available anions. The metal may exist in water in any of four oxidation states.

Manganese(II) predominates in most waters (pH 4-7) but may become oxidized at a pH >8 or 9. The principal anion associated with Mn(II) in water is usually carbonate (CO₃²⁻), and the concentration of manganese is limited by the relatively low solubility (65 mg/L) of MnCO₃. In relatively oxidized water, the solubility of Mn(II) may be controlled by manganese oxide equilibria, with manganese being converted to the Mn(II) or Mn(IV) oxidation states. In extremely reduced water, the fate of manganese tends to be controlled by formation of a poorly soluble sulfide. Manganese in water may undergo oxidation at high pH or Eh and is also subject to microbial activity. For example, Mn(II) in a lake was oxidized during the summer months, but this was inhibited by a microbial poison, indicating that the oxidation was mediated by bacteria. The microbial metabolism of manganese is presumed to be a function of pH, temperature, and other factors.

Manganese in water may be significantly bioconcentrated at lower trophic levels. A bioconcentration factor (BCF) relates the concentration of a chemical in plant and animal tissues to the concentration of the chemical in the water in which they live. The BCF of manganese was estimated as 2,500 - 6,300 for phytoplankton, 300 - 5,500 for marine algae, 80 - 830 for intertidal mussels, and 35 - 930 for coastal fish. Similarly, the BCF of manganese was estimated to be 10,000 - 20,000 for marine and freshwater plants, 10,000 - 40,000 for invertebrates, and 10 - 600 for fish. In general, these data indicate that lower organisms such as algae have larger BCFs than higher organisms. In order to protect consumers from the risk of manganese bioaccumulation in marine mollusks, the U.S. EPA has set a criterion for manganese at 0.1 mg/L for marine waters.

Elemental manganese and inorganic manganese compounds have negligible vapor pressures but may exist in air as suspended particulate matter derived from industrial emissions or the erosion of soils. Manganese-containing particles are mainly removed from the atmosphere by gravitational settling, with large particles tending to fall out faster than small particles. The half-life of airborne particles is usually on the order of days, depending on the size of the particle and atmospheric conditions. Some removal by washout mechanisms such as rain may also occur, although it is of minor significance in comparison to dry deposition.

Ecotoxicity:

Manganese ion is toxic to aqueous organisms

Fish LC50 (28 d): orfe 2490 mg/l, trout 2.91 mg/l

Daphnia magna LC50: 50 mg/l

Pseudomonas putida LC50: 10.6 mg/l

Photobacterium phosphoreum LC50: 14.7 mg/l

Turbellarian worms (EC0): Polycelis nigra 660 mg/l (interference threshold); microregma 31 mg/l

Based on the high concentration of molybdenum in all analysed waste types, the exposure of the environment to molybdenum is regarded as significant. The limited amount of data regarding its toxicity makes it impossible to evaluate the potential for adverse environmental and health effects from molybdenum exposure. Molybdenum cause adverse effects in ruminant animals. Livestock have been injured by forage grown on soils with excessive geochemically-derived molybdenum. Soil molybdenum is a potentially toxic element, but no cases have been reported of molybdenum toxicity to animals from consumption of forage grown on sludge-amended soils. In pot studies, where clover was grown on alkaline soils containing up to 16 kg of molybdenum per ha, concentrations in the plant tissue reached levels that could be harmful to animals if the clover were to make up a substantial portion of the diet for an extended period of time.

Molybdenum is generally found in two oxidation states in nature, Mo(IV) and Mo(VI). In oxidising environments Mo(VI) dominates and it is commonly present as the oxyanion molybdate (MoO₄²⁻)

In a laboratory experiment it was found that Mo was lost from solution under reducing conditions and remobilised under oxidizing conditions, and hypothesised that MoS₂, a low-solubility mineral, formed in the system.

In this study it was also found that Fe minerals were important sinks for Mo accumulation in reducing sediments. It has been proposed that under reducing conditions and with the reduction of sulfate, molybdate is converted to thiomolybdate (MoS₄²⁻) which then binds to Fe, Al, and organic matter phases via sulfur bridges. This mechanism could also account for decreased Mo solubility under reducing conditions.

Another study in wetland found that Mo accumulated in the sediments with most of the accumulation occurring in the top 2 cm and decreasing with depth. It appears that Mo accumulation (as well as As and V accumulation) or retention in the surface sediments is dependent on the depth of the overlying water column and correspondingly on redox status.

Chromium in the oxidation state +3 (the trivalent form) is poorly absorbed by cells found in microorganisms, plants and animals. Chromate anions (CrO₄²⁻, oxidation state +6, the hexavalent form) are readily transported into cells and toxicity is closely linked to the higher oxidation state.

Chromium Ecotoxicology:

Toxicity in Aquatic Organisms:

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

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

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

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

* from Environmental Health Criteria 61: WHO Publication.

Toxicity in Microorganisms:

In general, toxicity for most microorganisms occurs in the range of 0.05-5 mg chromium/kg of medium. Trivalent chromium is less toxic than the hexavalent form. The main signs of toxicity are inhibition of growth and the inhibition of various metabolic processes such as photosynthesis or protein synthesis. Gram-negative soil bacteria are generally more sensitive to hexavalent chromium (1-12 mg/kg) than the gram-positive types. Toxicity to trivalent chromium is not observed at similar levels. The toxicity of low levels of hexavalent chromium (1 mg/kg) indicates that soil microbial transformation, such as nitrification, may be affected. Chromium should not be introduced to municipal sewage treatment facilities.

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

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

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

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

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

The bioconcentration factor (BCF) for chromium(VI) in rainbow trout (*Salmo gairdneri*) is 1. In bottom feeder bivalves, such as the oyster (*Crassostrea virginica*), blue mussel (*Mytilus edulis*), and soft shell clam (*Mya arenaria*), the BCF values for chromium(III) and chromium(VI) may range from 86 to 192.

The bioavailability of chromium(III) to freshwater invertebrates (*Daphnia pulex*) decreased with the addition of humic acid. This decrease in bioavailability was attributed to lower availability of the free form of the metal due to its complexation with humic acid. Based on this information, chromium is not expected to biomagnify in the aquatic food chain. Although higher concentrations of chromium have been reported in plants growing in high chromium-containing soils (e.g., soil near ore deposits or chromium-emitting industries and soil fertilized by sewage sludge) compared with plants growing in normal soils, most of the increased uptake in plants is retained in roots, and only a small fraction is translocated in the aboveground part of edible plants. Therefore, bioaccumulation of chromium from soil

to above-ground parts of plants is unlikely. There is no indication of biomagnification of chromium along the terrestrial food chain (soil-plant-animal).

The fate of chromium in soil is greatly dependent upon the speciation of chromium, which is a function of redox potential and the pH of the soil. In most soils, chromium will be present predominantly in the chromium(III) state. This form has very low solubility and low reactivity resulting in low mobility in the environment and low toxicity in living organisms. Under oxidizing conditions chromium(VI) may be present in soil as CrO₄²⁻ and HCrO₄⁻. In this form, chromium is relatively soluble, mobile, and toxic to living organisms. In deeper soil where anaerobic conditions exist, chromium(VI) will be reduced to chromium(III) by S⁻² and Fe⁺² present in soil. The reduction of chromium(VI) to chromium(III) is possible in aerobic soils that contain appropriate organic energy sources to carry out the redox reaction. The reduction of chromium(VI) to chromium(III) is facilitated by low pH. From thermodynamic considerations, chromium(VI) may exist in the aerobic zone of some natural soil. The oxidation of chromium(III) to chromium(VI) in soil is facilitated by the presence of low oxidisable organic substances, oxygen, manganese dioxide, and moisture. Organic forms of chromium(III) (e.g., humic acid complexes) are more easily oxidised than insoluble oxides. Because most chromium(III) in soil is immobilized due to adsorption and complexation with soil materials, the barrier to this oxidation process is the lack of availability of mobile chromium(III) to immobile manganese dioxide in soil surfaces. Due to this lack of availability of mobile chromium(III) to manganese dioxide surfaces, a large portion of chromium in soil will not be oxidized to chromium(VI), even in the presence of manganese dioxide and favorable pH conditions.

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

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Chromium in soil is present mainly as insoluble oxide Cr₂O₃. nH₂O, and is not very mobile in soil. A leachability study was conducted to study the mobility of chromium in soil. Due to different pH values, a complicated adsorption process was observed and chromium moved only slightly in soil. Chromium was not found in the leachate from soil, possibly because it formed complexes with organic matter. These results support previous data finding that chromium is not very mobile in soil. These results are supported by leachability investigation in which chromium mobility was studied for a period of 4 years in a sandy loam. The vertical migration pattern of chromium in this soil indicated that after an initial period of mobility, chromium forms insoluble complexes and little leaching is observed. Flooding of soils and the subsequent anaerobic decomposition of plant detritus matters may increase the mobilization of chromium(III) in soils due to formation of soluble complexes. This complexation may be facilitated by a lower soil pH. A smaller percentage of total chromium in soil exists as soluble chromium(VI) and chromium(III), which are more mobile in soil. The mobility of soluble chromium in soil will depend on the sorption characteristics of the soil. The relative retention of metals by soil is in the order of lead > antimony > copper > chromium > zinc > nickel > cobalt > cadmium. The sorption of chromium to soil depends primarily on the clay content of the soil and, to a lesser extent, on Fe₂O₃ and the organic content of soil. Chromium that is irreversibly sorbed onto soil, for example, in the interstitial lattice of goethite, FeOOH, will not be bioavailable to plants and animals under any condition. Organic matter in soil is expected to convert soluble chromate, chromium(VI), to insoluble chromium(III) oxide, Cr₂O₃. Chromium in soil may be transported to the atmosphere as an aerosol. Surface runoff from soil can transport both soluble and bulk precipitate of chromium to surface water. Soluble and unadsorbed chromium(VI) and chromium(III) complexes in soil may leach into groundwater. The leachability of chromium(VI) in the soil increases as the pH of the soil increases. On the other hand, lower pH present in acid rain may facilitate leaching of acid-soluble chromium(III) and chromium(VI) compounds in soil. Chromium has a low mobility for translocation from roots to aboveground parts of plants. However, depending on the geographical areas where the plants are grown, the concentration of chromium in aerial parts of certain plants may differ by a factor of 2-3. In the atmosphere, chromium(VI) may be reduced to chromium(III) at a significant rate by vanadium (V²⁺, V³⁺, and VO₂⁺), Fe²⁺, HSO₃⁻, and As³⁺. Conversely, chromium(III), if present as a salt other than Cr₂O₃, may be oxidized to chromium(VI) in the atmosphere in the presence of at least 1% manganese oxide. However, this reaction is unlikely under most environmental conditions. The estimated atmospheric half-life for chromium(VI) reduction to chromium(III) was reported in the range of 16 hours to about 5 days

DO NOT discharge into sewer or waterways.

Persistence and degradability

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

Bioaccumulative potential

Ingredient	Bioaccumulation
	No Data available for all ingredients

Mobility in soil

Ingredient	Mobility
	No Data available for all ingredients

SECTION 13 Disposal considerations

Waste treatment methods

Product / Packaging disposal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Containers may still present a chemical hazard/ danger when empty. ▶ Return to supplier for reuse/ recycling if possible. <p>Otherwise:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ If container can not be cleaned sufficiently well to ensure that residuals do not remain or if the container cannot be used to store the same product, then puncture containers, to prevent re-use, and bury at an authorised landfill. ▶ Where possible retain label warnings and SDS and observe all notices pertaining to the product. ▶ Recycle wherever possible or consult manufacturer for recycling options. ▶ Consult State Land Waste Management Authority for disposal. ▶ Bury residue in an authorised landfill. ▶ Recycle containers if possible, or dispose of in an authorised landfill.
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SECTION 14 Transport information

Labels Required

Marine Pollutant	NO
HAZCHEM	Not Applicable

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

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

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

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

Not Applicable

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

Product name	Group
manganese	Not Available
silicon	Not Available
phosphorus	Not Available
sulfur	Not Available
chromium	Not Available
nickel	Not Available
FN	Not Available

Transport in bulk in accordance with the ICG Code

Product name	Ship Type
manganese	Not Available
silicon	Not Available
phosphorus	Not Available
sulfur	Not Available
chromium	Not Available
nickel	Not Available
FN	Not Available

SECTION 15 Regulatory information**Safety, health and environmental regulations / legislation specific for the substance or mixture****National Inventory Status**

National Inventory	Status
Australia - AIIC / Australia Non-Industrial Use	No (FN)
Canada - DSL	No (FN)
Canada - NDSL	No (manganese; silicon; phosphorus; sulfur; chromium; nickel; FN)
China - IECSC	No (FN)
Europe - EINEC / ELINCS / NLP	No (FN)
Japan - ENCS	No (manganese; silicon; phosphorus; sulfur; chromium; nickel; FN)
Korea - KECI	No (FN)
New Zealand - NZIoC	Yes
Philippines - PICCS	No (FN)
USA - TSCA	No (FN)
Taiwan - TCSI	No (FN)
Mexico - INSQ	No (FN)
Vietnam - NCI	No (FN)
Russia - FBEPH	No (FN)
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	07/10/2021
Initial Date	07/10/2021

BW-316LP FCAW Stainless Steel Wire**Other information**

Classification of the preparation and its individual components has drawn on official and authoritative sources using available literature references.

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

Definitions and abbreviations

PC—TWA: Permissible Concentration-Time Weighted Average

PC—STEL: Permissible Concentration-Short Term Exposure Limit

IARC: International Agency for Research on Cancer

ACGIH: American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists

STEL: Short Term Exposure Limit

TEEL: Temporary Emergency Exposure Limit.

IDLH: Immediately Dangerous to Life or Health Concentrations

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

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