



E C O S

Processes & Considerations for Setting State PFAS Standards

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Supported by & in conjunction with the ECOS PFAS Caucus

Executive Summary

In recent years, federal, state, and international authorities have established various health-based regulatory values and evaluation criteria for a number of specific per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS) in response to growing concerns with contamination. At this time, the U.S. has no federally enforceable PFAS standards, leaving individual states to navigate various avenues for addressing PFAS contamination. Some states have established legally enforceable values for certain PFAS in drinking water, groundwater, surface water, soil, or other environmental media (e.g., drinking water Maximum Contaminant Levels [MCLs]). Other states and regulatory agencies have opted for non-enforceable values such as guidance levels, screening numbers, or advisories that may apply to PFAS for which promulgated standards do not exist.

The Environmental Council of the States (ECOS) in 2019 compiled information on state PFAS standards, advisories, and guidance values (hereinafter referred to as “guidelines”¹). Sharing data and regulatory approaches helps federal, state, and international authorities avoid unnecessary duplication of efforts, as well as understand and communicate about differences in guidelines. This paper² outlines ECOS’ findings on state efforts and considerations for future regulatory activities on PFAS.

¹ For the purposes of this white paper, the term “guidelines” will apply to both regulatory (enforceable) standards and non-regulatory (non-enforceable) values.

² The white paper was initially published in February 2020. It has been updated with new information and state participants, and will be updated annually as appropriate.

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List of Acronyms

ACRONYM FULL PHRASE

ACGIH	American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists
ACWA	Association of Clean Water Administrators
AFFF	Aqueous film-forming foam
APFO	Ammonium perfluorooctanoate
ASDWA	Association of State Drinking Water Administrators
ASTM	ASTM International (formerly American Society for Testing and Materials)
ATSDR	Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry
BMDL	Benchmark dose (lower confidence limit)
CERCLA	Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation, and Liability Act
CSF	Cancer slope factor
CWA	Clean Water Act
DOD	U.S. Department of Defense
ECOS	Environmental Council of the States
EPA	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency
ESL	Effect Screening Level
FOSA	Perfluorooctane sulfonamide
FTE	Full-time employee
FTS	Fluorotelomer sulfonate
GAC	Granular activated carbon
HBV	Health-Based Value
HED	Human equivalent dose
HFPO-DA	Hexafluoropropylene oxide dimer acid
HRL	Health Risk Limit
ISO	International Organization for Standardization
ITRC	Interstate Technology and Regulatory Council
ITSL	Interim Threshold Screening Level
kg	Kilogram
L	Liter
LHA	U.S. EPA Lifetime Health Advisory
LOAEL	Lowest Observed Adverse Effect Level
MCL	Maximum Contaminant Level

mg	Milligram
MLA	Multi-linear array (SGS Axys method)
MPART	Michigan PFAS Action Response Team
MRL	Minimal risk level
NDA	National Defense Authorization Act
NEtFOSA	N-ethyl perfluorooctane sulfonamide
NEtFOSAA	N-Ethyl perfluorooctane sulfonamidoacetic acid
NEtFOSE	N-Ethyl perfluorooctane sulfonamidoethanol
NGO	Non-governmental organization
NOAEL	No Observed Adverse Effect Level
NPDES	National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System
NPDWR	National Primary Drinking Water Regulation
NRWQC	National Recommended Water Quality Criteria
PFAS	Per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances
PFBA	Perfluorobutanoic acid
PFBS	Perfluorobutanesulfonic acid
PFDA	Perfluorodecanoic acid
PFHpA	Perfluoroheptanoic acid
PFHxA	Perfluorohexanoic acid
PFHxS	Perfluorohexane sulfonic acid
PFIB	Perfluoroisobutylene
PFNA	Perfluorononanoic acid
PFOA	Perfluorooctanoic acid
PFOS	Perfluorooctane sulfonate
PFOSA	Perfluorooctanesulfonamide
POD	Point of Departure
ppb	Parts per billion
ppm	Parts per million
ppt	Parts per trillion
PWS	Public water system
RCRA	Resource Conservation and Recovery Act
RfD	Reference Dose
RSC	Relative Source Contribution
RSL	Regional Screening Level
RCL	Residual Contaminant Level
SDWA	Safe Drinking Water Act

SOP	Standard operating procedure
SPE	Solid phase extraction
SPLP	Synthetic precipitation leaching procedure
TOF	Total organic fluorine
TOP	Total oxidizable precursor
TSCA	Toxic Substances Control Act
WAX	Weak anion exchange

Introduction

PFAS are a group of synthetic chemicals used in a wide array of consumer and industrial products since the 1940s. Several decades later, publicly available studies on certain PFAS risks indicated potential human health concerns related to these chemicals. In 2000, 3M announced a voluntary phase-out of certain legacy PFAS (e.g., perfluorooctanoic acid [PFOA], perfluorooctane sulfonate [PFOS], perfluorohexane sulfonic acid [PFHxS]). In 2006, the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) initiated the PFOA Stewardship Program, which encouraged eight major chemical manufacturers to eliminate the use of PFOA and similar long-chain³ PFAS in their products and in the emissions from their facilities.⁴ International signatories of the United Nations' Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants treaty voted in 2009 and 2020 to add PFOS and PFOA, respectively, to the list of substances to be eliminated.⁵ In 2020, the EPA issued a rule under the Toxic Substances Control Act (TSCA) prohibiting the manufacturing, processing, and/or importing of products containing certain PFAS without prior agency review and approval. Despite these actions, U.S. manufacturers can with approval still import PFOA, PFOS, and PFHxS for use in consumer goods, and some U.S. sites are legally required to keep PFAS-containing firefighting foams on-site for emergencies.

U.S. manufacturers have developed numerous PFAS to replace long-chain PFAS such as PFOA, PFOS, and perfluorononanoic acid (PFNA). One example is hexafluoropropylene oxide dimer acid (HFPO-DA) and the HFPO-DA ammonium salt, the two chemical substances that are part of the [GenX](#) technology developed by Chemours (formerly DuPont), that were developed as a PFOA replacement. These replacement chemicals are part of the larger suite of nearly 5,000⁶ PFAS, some of which the EPA has approved for manufacture and use in the U.S. This is a problem on many fronts: PFAS do not break down or, in the case of PFAS that are precursors⁷, are converted to terminal PFAS that do not break down, and are very hard to remove and/or destroy with treatment. Therefore, there is a persistent "supply" of PFAS in the environment that maintain their carbon-fluorine chemical structures and potential toxicity, in contrast to many other organic compounds. In addition, regulators currently lack routinely available analytical methods for PFAS detection and measurement across most environmental media and have little, if any, toxicological data for the majority of PFAS (especially the precursors) to define risks to human and ecological receptors.

In 2016, the EPA updated its short-term Provisional Health Advisory values for PFOA (400 parts per trillion [ppt]) and PFOS (200 ppt) to a Lifetime Health Advisory (LHA) of 70 ppt for PFOA and PFOS, individually or in combination, in finished drinking water.⁸ The EPA states that this LHA was calculated "to provide Americans, including the most sensitive populations, with a margin of protection from a lifetime of exposure to PFOA and PFOS

³ Long-chain PFAS are those with carbon chain lengths of 6 or higher for sulfonic acids like PFOS and PFHxS, and carbon chain lengths of 8 or higher for carboxylic acids like PFOA and perfluorononanoic acid (PFNA). In general, perfluoroalkyl acids (sulfonic acids and carboxylates) of all chain lengths do not break down, and long-chain PFAS have been found to bioaccumulate and pose risks to human health and the environment.

⁴ [Fact Sheet](#), History and Use of Per- and Polyfluoroalkyl Substances (PFAS), ITRC (2020).

⁵ For more information on international PFAS regulations, including the European Union's Registration, Evaluation, Authorisation, and Restriction of Chemicals (REACH) regulation, see the [European Chemicals Agency website](#).

⁶ U.S. Food and Drug Administration's [PFAS website](#)

⁷ Precursor, as used here, are PFAS, known or unknown, which have the potential to degrade to terminal PFAS that do not break down in the environment.

⁸ In December 2019, the EPA issued [interim guidance](#) that recommends a screening level of 40 ppt to assess whether the levels of PFOA and/or PFOS present in groundwater at a federal cleanup site may require further investigation. The EPA will use the LHA of 70 ppt as a preliminary remediation goal for contaminated groundwater. While this may be useful to states, many states have their own guidance for PFAS in groundwater.

from drinking water.”⁹ The LHA is a non-regulatory and non-legally enforceable value, and is intended to provide guidance to federal, state, and municipal governments for addressing PFOA and PFOS contamination in public water systems and private potable wells. In February 2019, the EPA released its [PFAS Action Plan](#) in which the agency committed to make a “regulatory determination” for PFOA and PFOS under the Safe Drinking Water Act (SDWA). A regulatory determination is a formal decision on whether the EPA should initiate a process to develop a national primary drinking water regulation for a specific contaminant. The SDWA requires the EPA to make regulatory determinations for at least five contaminants from the most recent drinking water Contaminant Candidate List¹⁰ within five years of the completion of the previous round of regulatory determinations. This determination may initiate the rulemaking process to establish an enforceable National Primary Drinking Water Regulation (i.e., MCL), a process that is likely to take years due to the necessary technical evaluation, public comment, and rulemaking procedures. The EPA sent the regulatory determination for PFOA and PFOS to the Office of Management and Budget in December 2019 for interagency review, and it was released for public comment in February 2020, just after this paper was first published. In January 2021, the EPA announced that it had evaluated more than 11,000 public comments and made a final decision to regulate PFOA and PFOS. This decision was reissued by the new Administration on February 22, 2021. As part of the process of developing a National Primary Drinking Water Regulation (NPDWR) for these PFAS, the EPA will initiate yet another phase of analyses, scientific review, and public comment. The agency also noted that it intends to fast track evaluation of other PFAS for future drinking water regulatory determinations if necessary data and information are available.

In 2018, the U.S. Health and Human Services’ Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR) developed provisional [minimal risk levels](#) (MRLs) for four PFAS: PFOA, PFOS, PFHxS, and PFNA. MRLs are not regulatory values and are not intended to be used as public water or environmental cleanup standards. MRLs are screening tools to identify contaminants of concern at hazardous waste sites. If an exposure is below an MRL, it is not expected to result in adverse health effects, whereas an exposure exceeding an MRL warrants further investigation to determine if the exposure might harm human health. Additionally, MRLs are presented as dosage amounts (a measurement of exposure in units of milligrams/kilogram/day) and not in terms of concentration (the amount of a substance present in a particular media in units of parts per million [ppm], parts per billion [ppb], or ppt). These differences have resulted in public confusion and emphasize the need for improved risk communication, especially in the news media, to explain that MRLs and the EPA’s LHAs are used in different situations and are not/should not be considered “equivalent.”

Historically, many states relied on the promulgated standards from federal agencies to regulate chemicals, while other states have had the authority to develop their own standards for contaminants of concern. If no federal standard exists, states may rely on toxicity values from the [EPA Tier 3 Toxicity Value Workgroup document](#) or similar reference documents. Noting the broad range and complexity of PFAS, the need for cross-media consideration, and the absence of promulgated federal standards, states have taken alternative routes to actively address PFAS across a wide range of programs. At least 20 states¹¹ have developed draft, proposed, or final health-based regulatory and/or guidance values for several PFAS in drinking water, groundwater, and/or surface water.¹² These guidelines may significantly differ from the EPA’s LHA and from state-to-state given various legislative and scientific considerations. For example, states may have different mandates (e.g., regulations, policies) that direct them

⁹ The [EPA Drinking Water Health Advisories for PFOA and PFOS](#)

¹⁰ The EPA’s [Contaminant Candidate List](#) is a list of contaminants that are currently not subject to proposed or promulgated national primary drinking water regulations, but are known or anticipated to occur in public water systems.

¹¹ Several states in addition to those that completed the ECOS survey are known to have drafted, proposed, or finalized health-based regulatory and/or guidance values for PFAS in various environmental media. They are not included in the facts and figures outlined in this report.

¹² See the Interstate Technology and Regulatory Council’s [ITRC] [Sections 4 and 5 Tables](#) in its PFAS regulations fact sheet. The ITRC is a subsidiary of ECOS.

to interpret toxicity data (including considering exposures to sensitive life stages like infants or pregnant women) to develop risk assessments or require them to use the EPA's risk assessments as the basis for their guidelines. Several states have developed drinking water guidelines for PFOA and PFOS that are lower than the EPA's LHA due to considerations of more recent scientific information, more sensitive toxicological endpoints, and/or more stringent exposure parameters. Many of these states have also developed guidelines for various PFAS in addition to PFOA and PFOS. Other states have adopted the EPA's LHA for PFOA and PFOS in drinking water and/or groundwater to guide their efforts upon detection of contamination.¹³

With a growing body of science to inform standard development, an absence of a federally enforceable standard, and pressures from the public and legislative bodies to take regulatory action, it is important to know which states are setting guidelines, understand how the guidelines are developed, and be able to educate legislators on differences between state, federal, and other guidelines. This is essential so that states can make informed decisions when implementing their own regulations and/or risk communication practices.

Overview of States' PFAS Guidelines

ECOS surveyed states on their processes, rulemaking requirements, and other considerations for establishing PFAS guidelines (e.g., occurrence of specific PFAS in drinking water sources or other environmental media). ECOS and its working group of state environmental agency officials (the PFAS Caucus) examined responses from *29 states* (Alabama, Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Oregon, Tennessee, Texas, Vermont, Washington, Wisconsin, Wyoming).¹⁴ Below are findings and conclusions from the 29 states that completed the ECOS survey.

States without PFAS Guidelines

Eight states (Alabama, Arizona, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Wyoming) indicated that they do not have state guidelines.¹⁵

Reasoning for Not Establishing State PFAS Guidelines:

- *Six states* (Arizona, Indiana, Missouri, New Mexico, North Carolina, Oklahoma)¹⁶ have restrictions that prohibit them from setting a drinking water or groundwater guideline more stringent (i.e., more protective) than a federal standard in at least one environmental medium. This could dissuade a state from setting a PFAS standard (at any level), or from setting a PFAS standard lower than the EPA's LHA in anticipation that a federal MCL may be enacted at a similar level, forcing the state to amend its guideline(s) in a way that appears to "weaken" it.

¹³ The health basis for standards for other contaminants of emerging concern may be as low as those for PFAS, but the actual standards for those other contaminants are often higher because they are based on analytical limitations, while the PFAS standards can be set at the health-based levels.

¹⁴ Individual state PFAS websites can be found in the "Overview" section on ECOS' [PFAS Risk Communication Hub](#).

¹⁵ These states may use the EPA's LHA of 70 ppt as guidance, remediation goals, action levels, or for regulatory oversight if PFAS contamination is detected. However, they will likely wait for a federal standard before enacting their own state guidelines.

¹⁶ Indiana, New Mexico, and North Carolina are included in this list because they have such a law governing rule-based standards in at least one environmental medium. However, they have a guideline for at least one PFAS analyte, as indicated below.

- Many states lack the capacity or resources to effectively and individually regulate PFAS. Barriers include lack of technical expertise needed for toxicity interpretation and standard development, labs certified to test for PFAS in the state, interdependence of programs, legislative support, and funding.
- There are still limitations to available toxicity data, approved monitoring or analytical methods, and established federal criteria, all of which may contribute to scientific and regulatory uncertainty. Many states noted the need for more peer-reviewed science to make informed decisions on whether to establish guidance levels for some of the PFAS that have been found in their environmental media.

Without their own state-based guidelines, several of these states are still taking actions to monitor, investigate, and remediate PFAS. Efforts include statewide sampling of Public Water Systems (PWSs) and surface water and groundwater intakes; conducting inventories of facilities that use or have used or produced PFAS; responding to drinking water and fish contamination; notifying local emergency planning committees, fire departments, and industry of the human health and environmental impacts associated with using legacy aqueous film-forming foams (AFFF); and forming interagency task forces to coordinate the messaging for and response to PFAS contamination within the state.

States with PFAS Guidelines

21 states (Alaska, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, Oregon, Texas, Vermont, Washington, Wisconsin) have a guideline for at least one PFAS in at least one environmental medium.¹⁷

State guidelines specified in ECOS' survey have been incorporated into the ITRC's [Sections 4 and 5 Tables](#) in its PFAS regulations fact sheet. The tables define to which environmental medium each standard applies, as well as whether the values are promulgated or advisory. States may have slightly different definitions of each medium. For example, most states consider drinking water standards to be finished water from the PWSs, but a state may also include groundwater used as drinking water from a private residential well or similar source. ECOS compiled responses based on how the state categorized each medium in the survey and how it defines it generally for the public. For more detailed state-specific definitions, see [state PFAS websites](#).

Of the states that responded to ECOS' survey, the following have different types of guidelines:

Regulatory Standards

- Drinking Water¹⁸: *Seven states (Massachusetts, Michigan, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Vermont, Washington [proposed])*
- Groundwater: *10 states (Alaska, Colorado, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, North Carolina, Texas, Vermont)*
- Surface Water: *Three states (Michigan, Minnesota [site-specific criteria], New Mexico)*
- Soil: *Eight states (Alaska, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Hampshire, New Mexico, Texas, Vermont, Wisconsin)*
- Air: *Three states (Michigan, New Hampshire, Washington)*
- Other: *California* added PFOA and PFOS as developmental toxicants to the Proposition 65 list of chemicals known to cause cancer or reproductive toxicity; *Washington* has regulatory standards for PFAS as halogenated organic compounds in state designated hazardous waste, for PFOA and PFOS in children's products, and

¹⁷ These include promulgated rules and advisories (e.g., action and notification levels, cleanup target levels, initiation levels), and may be determined by the state or may be consistent with EPA's LHA of 70 ppt.

¹⁸ See States with a Final or Proposed MCL (Drinking Water Only) designation below.

regulatory requirements for PFAS in Class B firefighting foams, certain consumer products, and certain food packaging

Advisory Guidelines

- Drinking Water: *Nine states (Alaska, California, Connecticut, Indiana, Maine, Minnesota, North Carolina, Vermont, Wisconsin)*
- Groundwater: *Eight states (California, Colorado, Connecticut, Florida, Illinois, Minnesota, New York, Wisconsin)*
- Surface Water: *Three states (Colorado, Florida, Oregon [wastewater])*
- Soil: *Seven states (California, Connecticut, Florida, Indiana, Maine, Minnesota, New York)*
- Air: *One state (Texas)*
- Water Interface: *One state (Alaska)*
- Fish or Wildlife Consumption Advisories¹⁹: *Ten states (California [seafood], Connecticut, Maine [fish, beef, and milk], Michigan [fish and deer], Minnesota, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Washington [in process], Wisconsin [fish and deer])*

States with a Final or Proposed MCL (Drinking Water Only)

- *Massachusetts* (Enacted for six PFAS, Individually and summed)
- *Michigan* (Enacted for seven PFAS, individually)
- *New Hampshire* (Enacted for four PFAS, individually)
- *New Jersey* (Enacted for PFOA, PFOS, and PFNA, individually)
- *New York* (Enacted for PFOA and PFOS, individually)
- *Vermont* (Enacted for five PFAS, individually and summed)
- *Wisconsin* (In process for PFOA and PFOS)

Grouping PFAS

Recently proposed congressional legislation suggested creating a federal MCL for a sum of total PFAS, derived by adding the concentration of each PFAS detected in a sample. This total PFAS concentration depends on which analytical methods are used, as different analytical methods detect different suites of PFAS and have different reporting levels. Given that there are nearly 5,000 PFAS, most of which have little known information about their toxicities, many regulators and subject-matter experts advise against grouping PFAS as an entire class. Some states regulate PFOA, PFOS, and/or other PFAS, individually. Other state guidelines are based on the total concentration of PFOA and PFOS, as the EPA does in its LHA, or on the total concentration of PFOA, PFOS, and several additional long-chain PFAS.

States' approaches for grouping PFAS, and the reasoning provided for grouping PFAS under each method, are as follows:

Individual PFAS

- *17 states*
 - *Alaska*: Soil and groundwater cleanup levels for PFOA, PFOS

¹⁹ Advisories apply to fish only, unless otherwise noted.

- *California*: Non-regulatory notification levels and response levels for PFOA, PFOS, and PFBS in drinking water; Non-regulatory environmental screening levels for PFOA, PFOS in soil, groundwater, aquatic habitat, terrestrial habitat, and leaching to groundwater
- *Florida*: Provisional Soil Cleanup Target Levels for PFOA, PFOS; Provisional Irrigation Water Screening Levels for PFOA, PFOS; Surface Water Screening Levels for fish consumption for PFOA, PFOS
- *Illinois*: Advisory levels for PFOA, PFOS, PFNA, PFBS, PFHxS in groundwater
- *Indiana*: Guidance Remediation Screening Levels for PFBS in drinking water, soil
- *Maine*: Screening levels used as remedial action guidelines for PFOA, PFOS, and PFBS in soil, milk, beef, and fish
- *Michigan*: MCLs for 7 PFAS (PFOA, PFOS, PFNA, PFHxA, PFHxS, PFBS, HFPO-DA); Surface Water Quality Standards for PFOA, PFOS; Groundwater cleanup criteria for PFOA, PFOS (and proposed for PFNA, PFHxA, PFHxS, PFBS, HFPO-DA); Soil criteria for PFOA, PFOS; Consumption advisories for PFOS in fish and deer tissue; Initial Threshold Screening Levels (ITSLs) for PFOA, PFOS, 6:2 fluorotelomer sulfonate (FTS)
- *Minnesota*: Promulgated Health Risk Limits (HRLs) for PFOA, PFOS, PFBA, PFBS in groundwater²⁰; Health-Based Values (HBVs) for PFOS, PFBS, PFHxS in groundwater; Rule-based Intervention Limits for PFOA, PFOS, PFBA, PFBS to protect surface water and groundwater at solid waste facilities; Soil Reference Values for PFOA, PFOS, PFBS, PFBA, PFHxS; Site-Specific Criteria for PFOA, PFOS in surface water; Fish Consumption Advice for PFOS
- *New Hampshire*: MCLs and Ambient Groundwater Quality Standards for PFOA, PFOS, PFHxS, PFNA; Soil contact value for PFOA, PFOS, PFHxS, PFNA for evaluating sites; Ambient air limit for APFO
- *New Jersey*: MCLs and Ground Water Quality Standards for PFOA, PFOS, and PFNA; Fish Consumption Advisories for PFOS in some waterbodies
- *New Mexico*: Groundwater and surface water standards for PFOA, PFOS, PFHxS; soil and tap water screening levels for PFOA, PFOS, PFHxS
- *New York*: MCLs and groundwater, soil, and fish advisories for PFOA, PFOS
- *North Carolina*: Groundwater Interim Maximum Allowable Concentration for PFOA²¹; Non-Regulatory Drinking Water Health Goal for HPFO-DA (GenX)
- *Oregon*: Initiation levels for PFOA, PFOS, PFNA, PFHpA, PFOSA in municipal wastewater effluent
- *Texas*: Health-Based Non-Carcinogenic Toxicity Factors and Cleanup Values for 16 PFAS (including PFOA and PFOS) in soil and groundwater; interim short- and long-term Effects Screening Levels (ESLs) for PFOA, PFOS in air permitting
- *Washington*: Draft action levels for PFOA, PFOS, PFNA, PFHxS, PFBS in drinking water; Fish Consumption Advisory for PFOS; Chrome electroplating PFOS National Emission Standards for Hazardous Air; Regulatory standards for PFOA, PFOS in children's products under the Children's Safe Products Act
- *Wisconsin*: Proposed enforcement standards for 12 PFAS in groundwater; proposed standards for PFOA, PFOS in surface water; Residual Contaminant Levels (RCLs) for PFOA, PFOS, PFBS in Soil, based upon the EPA Regional Screening Levels (RSLs) web calculator; Fish consumption advisories for PFOS in some waterbodies

²⁰ Minnesota's Health Risk Limits and Health-Based Values for groundwater are also used as guidance values for drinking water.

²¹ As of February 2021, North Carolina has proposed groundwater standards for the sum of PFOA and PFOS. If adopted, the groundwater standard(s) will eliminate the current groundwater interim maximum allowable concentration.

- Reasoning:
 - Risk assessors evaluate PFAS analytes individually in the regulatory determination process. Regulations are therefore based on conclusions that human health effects, analytical limitations, and removal of drinking water contaminants vary among PFAS.
 - Regulations vary based on the presence of PFAS in a state, availability of chemical guidelines used for testing, and ability of available labs to test for and measure that analyte. States with more limited contamination potential and evaluations of health effects may be waiting to see whether the EPA develops a technical basis for grouping PFAS before summing or regulating additional analytes.
 - Toxicologists have more data on the perfluoroalkyl acids (carboxylates and sulfonates) that are result of the terminal degradation process of PFAS precursors, and less on the PFAS precursors in the same family.
 - Toxicological studies demonstrate differences in the potency and bioaccumulation (i.e., physiological half-lives) among individual PFAS.

PFOA & PFOS, Summed

- *Seven states*
 - *Alaska*: Drinking water action level for PFOA and PFOS
 - *Colorado*: Site-specific groundwater standard for PFOA and PFOS
 - *Connecticut*: Fish tissue consumption criteria for PFOA and PFOS
 - *Florida*: Provisional Groundwater Cleanup Target Level for PFOA and PFOS, individually or combined
 - *New Mexico*: Groundwater standard for PFOA and PFOS; surface water screening level for PFOA and PFOS implemented through CWA Section 401 conditional certification of NPDES permit
 - *North Carolina*: Proposed groundwater standards for PFOA and PFOS
 - *Wisconsin*: Recommended groundwater enforcement standard and recommended groundwater preventive action limit for PFOA and PFOS (individual and summed)²²
- Reasoning:
 - Regulating PFOA and PFOS aligns with the EPA's LHA. While the EPA has developed draft toxicity factors for a few other PFAS, PFOA and PFOS remain the only analytes with federal health advisories.
 - Regulating PFOA and PFOS together can streamline processes given their similar characteristics and known toxicities. PFOA and PFOS are the most thoroughly studied of the long-chain PFAS, with a large quantity of publicly available toxicity information available, and are considered hazardous substances or listed as a similar toxicant under some states' laws.

More than 2 PFAS, Summed

- *Nine states*
 - *Colorado*: Policy interpreting narrative water quality standards for PFAS sums PFAS constituents based on endpoint toxicity (e.g., PFOA, PFOS, PFNA, and any identified parents are added together based on developmental toxicity; PFHxS and any identified parents are added together based on endocrine toxicity; PFBS and any identified parents are added together based on renal toxicity)

²² This may eventually be superseded by a recommended combined enforcement standard for PFOA, PFOS, and four precursors.

- *Connecticut*: Advisory drinking water action levels, groundwater protection criteria, groundwater pollutant mobility criteria (soil leaching to groundwater), and soil direct exposure criteria for the sum of 5 PFAS (PFOA, PFOS, PFNA, PFHxS, PFHpA)
 - *Maine*: Screening levels used as remedial action guidelines for the sum of 5 PFAS (PFOA, PFOS, PFHxS, PFHpA, PFNA)
 - *Massachusetts*: MCL and groundwater cleanup standard for the sum of 6 PFAS (PFOA, PFOS, PFNA, PFHpA, PFHxS, PFDA)
 - *Minnesota*: MN's [Health Risk Limits Rules for Groundwater](#) require evaluation of exposure to multiple contaminants in groundwater. Hazard ratios are summed across contaminants that affect the same health endpoints. For example, PFOA, PFOS, PFHxS, and PFBA all affect the liver and there are hazard ratios for each of these contaminants and would therefore be added together to calculate a multiple contaminant health risk index.
 - *New Mexico*: Narrative groundwater standard implemented through risk assessment guidance that provides for summation of PFOS, PFOA, PFHxS
 - *Vermont*: MCL and promulgated groundwater standard for the sum of 5 PFAS (PFOA, PFOS, PFNA, PFHpA, PFHxS)
 - *Washington*: Regulatory standard for the sum of all PFAS in state-designated hazardous waste when halogenated organic compounds are present; Regulatory standards for the sum of all PFAS in certain consumer products (i.e., carpeting and upholstery treated with PFAS, aftermarket treatments for carpeting and upholstery) under the Safer Products for Washington Act, Class B firefighting foams, and certain food packaging.
 - *Wisconsin*: Proposed groundwater enforcement standard for the sum of PFOA, PFOS, and four of their precursors (FOSA, NEtFOSA, NEtFOSAA, and NEtFOSE)
- Reasoning: Many of the summed PFAS analytes are similar as indicated below:
 - They are long-chain compounds with similar chemical structures (+/- two carbons in chain length) to PFOA and PFOS.
 - They are often found together in the environment and have characteristically similar bioaccumulative patterns and fate and transport mechanisms.
 - Human exposures to these PFAS often are correlated, making it difficult to differentiate the contributions of the individual PFAS to health effects observed in humans.
 - Their toxicity is assumed to be additive based on a substantial body of publicly available data indicating that they cause similar toxicological effects, have long serum half-lives in humans (long-chain PFAS only), and are associated with similar health effects in humans.²³
 - They have similar limits for lab detection via EPA Method 537.1 (see Analytical Methods on page 21), and there is a minimal cost difference between analyzing a few or 18 compounds, so regulating and requiring testing for more analytes does not increase the cost and lessens the potential for the need to resample in the future.
 - PFOA, PFOS, PFNA, PFHxS, PFHpA, and PFBS were the six PFAS included in the EPA's third round of the Unregulated Contaminant Monitoring Rule (UCMR3). These PFAS have been researched to the extent that they are regulated individually by some states. PFHpA has minimal toxicity data available and PFDA was not included in UCMR3, but some states regulate both of these PFAS with the other long-chain PFAS based on close structural similarity and their inclusion as analytes in the EPA's analytical methods for drinking water.

²³ On the other hand, though similar, these PFAS do still present differences (e.g., different levels at which toxicity occurs, different toxicological effects and modes of action) that a state might acknowledge as a reason *not* to group the chemicals, but rather to regulate them individually.

- Regulating more analytes can provide information on conceptual site model development and the potential for PFAS fingerprinting (forensics on the fate and transport of chemicals over time).

Evaluating Differences among States' PFAS Guidelines

One of the most common questions that states are asked to address when communicating risks to the public and co-regulators is why guidelines vary from state-to-state. Many of the states' derived values typically differ within a factor of two to three, indicating that they are similarly protective; however, this is difficult to communicate with audiences who lack a background in the scientific and regulatory basis for the guidelines. Consequently, communicating the rationale for varying guidelines among state and federal entities remains a challenge.

States report that deviations among PFAS guidelines are driven by several main factors:

- Differences in professional judgments regarding the choice of the critical study and endpoint, the method for animal-to-human extrapolation, the uncertainty factors, and exposure parameters such as the Relative Source Contribution. Differences in any one of these choices (described in more detail in the State Trends for the Basis of Guidelines section on page 14) will result in different numerical values for the PFAS standard being developed.²⁴
- Differences in timing. *When* guidelines are developed and *when* a state looks at the available scientific information affects *what* the guidelines are. While many technically sound guidelines have been developed from older studies, toxicologists continue to conduct new PFAS research that will provide states with more referential data for deriving values. In this fast-paced field, short timeframes can change what studies relevant to PFAS standard development are available.
- Differences in state legislative or rulemaking requirements. The next section of this paper will explore differences in legislative procedures, but it should also be noted that beyond legislatures, state environmental and health agency programs (e.g., drinking water, surface water, and wastewater) have varying priorities or responsibilities in the standard-setting process.
- Differences in state regulatory processes and histories. States have different histories of developing standard methods, enacting regulations, and setting policy, all of which may direct toxicologists to use specific approaches and require protection of certain human life stages/vulnerable populations or other factors. *Minnesota*, for example, is required to evaluate risks to pregnant women and children in its exposure assumptions. *Washington* chose to regulate PFAS as a class in certain consumer products under the Toxic Pollution law, Class B firefighting foams under the Firefighting Agents and Equipment – Toxic Chemical Use law, and certain food packaging under the Packages Containing Metals and Toxics Chemicals law. These factors, coupled with how well a state's standard-setting methods reflect current and evolving science, can greatly affect how guidelines are calculated and what the resulting values are.

Section I. Legislative Considerations

Rulemaking Capacities

ECOS asked states to describe what authorities and processes they had to set PFAS guidelines. Responses indicate that most state guidelines are adopted/enacted through general rulemaking processes outlined in state administrative policies or acts, while some states have bills or statutes specifically targeted to PFAS. For example, the *California* Department of Toxic Substances Control's Safer Consumer Products Program lists PFAS as Candidate

²⁴ An August 2020 [critical review](#) published in the Society of Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry's online journal discusses some of the toxicity and exposure considerations that lead to similarities and differences among state and federal guidelines.

Chemicals and evaluates PFAS in consumer products like carpets in accordance with its Safer Consumer Products Regulations. The California Department of Resources Recycling and Recovery is also adopting regulations that will establish a threshold of 100 ppm PFAS, as measured by total fluorine, in food service packaging used by certain food service facilities, and California legislation amended the state Health and Safety Code to prohibit AFFF beginning January 1, 2022; ban AFFF training classes; restrict unused foam disposal; and track sales of and require notice of PFAS in personal protective equipment. Since 1997, *New Hampshire's* state air toxics regulation has contained annual and 24-hour inhalation standards for APFO, the ammonium salt of PFOA. Additionally, New Hampshire is required by state statute to write rules and require the installation of best available control technology for PFAS and PFAS precursor compound air emissions that may have contributed to ambient groundwater or surface water quality standards. Several states described their active PFAS bills prohibiting AFFF for firefighting, regulating food packaging, and requiring PFAS sampling, among other actions. States active in PFAS regulation are typically backed by their legislators, Attorneys General, and other leadership entities that provide funding and direct the environmental agencies to take action on contamination. Such actions include forming task forces for improved coordination (see Intra-State PFAS Collaboration on page 16), setting guidelines in different media by certain dates (e.g., *Vermont*), or initiating directives or lawsuits against PFAS manufacturers or the DOD (e.g., *Minnesota, New Jersey, New Mexico*).

Enforcement of state regulations is typically a programmatic issue based on the contaminated medium and is conducted in accordance with rules or policies in effect for each regulatory program (e.g., Superfund and hazardous waste, Resource Conservation and Recovery Act [RCRA], SDWA). Consequently, enforcement efforts for PFAS in drinking water, groundwater, surface water, solid waste, biosolids, and other environmental media are led by the state agency with authority to administer the applicable rules, and would be conducted as directed by program rules, unless specific rules for PFAS have been adopted. A couple states indicated that they may rely on the state Attorney General for broader authorities or look to primacy agreements from the EPA. Enforcement may occur if a regulatory standard is exceeded, the contamination is considered hazardous, or there is a requirement for assessment and remediation. Some states noted that PFAS enforcement is a challenge without having adequate toxicity data necessary to establish the criteria on which a permit limit or enforcement/remediation action is based.

Regulating PFAS as Hazardous

15 states (Alaska, Connecticut, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Maine, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New Hampshire, New Mexico, New York, Vermont, Washington, Wisconsin, and Wyoming) noted that they have emergency rulemaking powers that can be invoked in the event of a PFAS contamination event or if a specific PFAS is declared hazardous at the federal level.

Several states also regulate PFAS as hazardous under certain conditions. For example, *Alaska* includes PFOA and PFOS in a list of hazardous substances for which groundwater and soil cleanup levels are set. *New Jersey* added PFNA to the NJ Hazardous Substance List in 2018, and added PFOA and PFOS to the list in 2020. *New York* regulates PFOA and PFOS as hazardous substances under 6 NYCRR Part 597. Although *New Mexico* cannot adopt rules more stringent than the federal government under its Hazardous Waste Act, it can include PFAS in RCRA corrective action permits and take action in response to a PFAS contamination event of which the quantity, concentration, or other characteristics of the waste threaten human health or the environment. And the *Washington* Department of Ecology's Toxics Cleanup Program and the Washington Attorney General's Office concluded that PFAS are hazardous substances under the state's Model Toxics Control Act, a conclusion they will formally announce in 2021.

In its PFAS Action Plan, the EPA outlined its intent to explore hazardous substance definitions for PFOA and PFOS. Similarly, Congress recently considered a number of PFAS issues in its National Defense Authorization Act (NDAA),

including a bill seeking to designate all PFAS as hazardous substances under the Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation, and Liability Act (CERCLA). While these provisions were ultimately removed from NDAA for Fiscal Year 2020 ([Senate Bill 1790](#), which became law on December 20, 2019), several lawmakers stressed their intent to reconsider it in future rules. In January 2021, the EPA announced an Advance Notice of Proposed Rulemaking for public comment on whether PFOA, PFOS, and/or other PFAS should be designated as CERCLA hazardous substances and/or subject to regulation as hazardous waste under RCRA; however, the new Administration withdrew this activity pending further consideration and it has not yet been posted.

Declaring PFAS (just PFOA and PFOS, or additional analytes) as hazardous under CERCLA would have some, though likely different, impacts on states. *North Carolina* notes that the declaration may provide more information to its rulemaking body, although its environmental agency is unsure if it will speed up the water quality criteria adoption process. Other states note that empowering them to act using existing regulatory CERCLA mechanisms allows for an expedited cleanup process and prevents draining already-strained funds for site investigation and characterization. Kansas said this definition is what it needs to regulate PFAS, as the state's definition of a hazardous substance is based on its inclusion as a CERCLA hazardous substance.

Intra-State PFAS Collaboration

States have varying procedures for designating who regulates PFAS. Many state environmental agencies are coordinating with their health, agriculture, and other state agency counterparts on the state's PFAS response. For example, the *Michigan* PFAS Action Response Team (MPART) was created in 2017 through an executive directive to investigate sources and locations of PFAS and protect drinking water and public health. In 2019, MPART was signed into an executive order as an enduring advisory body of seven state agencies, led by the Michigan Department of Environment, Great Lakes, and Energy. Other states (e.g., *Colorado, Connecticut, Illinois, Maine, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin*) have formed similar task forces and action teams charged with recommending PFAS guidelines and/or conducting other statewide PFAS efforts.

Impacts of Federal Legislative Uncertainty

ECOS asked states that have already established guidelines how they think a federal MCL (as currently being considered by the EPA) or similarly enforceable federal PFAS standard would impact their regulations. A state may be required to modify its guidelines to be "no more stringent than" federal requirements, or a state may be required to "strengthen" its guidelines so that they are as protective as federal standards. *North Carolina* noted that a federal MCL could affect its groundwater programs, and another state noted its concern that a federal MCL may or may not adequately address protection for all populations and impacted communities because MCLs are not strictly risk-based. Numerous states with advisory guidelines expressed their preference for the EPA to have the primary role in setting MCLs, which they argue will facilitate a unified approach to mitigating PFAS contamination in drinking water supplies. These states recognize, however, the timeline associated with setting a nationwide standard and expressed their intentions to move forward with statewide MCLs given the EPA's inaction. Should the EPA enact an enforceable drinking water standard, some states may need to make challenging management decisions regarding how to adjust their existing guidelines and PFAS response efforts.

In the interim, states are pursuing other federal and congressional legislative actions that might make PFAS remediation and regulation more consistent nationwide. In October 2020, a coalition of 20 attorneys general sent a letter to Congress outlining states' PFAS-related priorities for the fiscal year 2021 NDAA. In addition to again encouraging Congress to designate PFAS as hazardous substances under CERCLA, states argued for DOD to meet or exceed the PFOA and/or PFOS standards established in the state in which the military installation is located when

those standards are more stringent than federal standards or health advisory levels. These provisions were not included in the final NDAA bill.

Section II. Risk Assessment

State environmental and public health agencies use quantitative risk assessment to develop health-based criteria for PFAS guidelines. The processes for evaluating exposure and developing these criteria are described across several guidance documents produced by the EPA.²⁵

At its core, risk assessment is used to develop the human health basis for guidance values or standards by considering the following:

$$\textit{Toxicity} \times \textit{Exposure} = \textit{Risk}$$

Risk is a function of the toxicity of a chemical and a person's exposure to that chemical. The higher one's exposure, the greater the risk; similarly, the more toxic a chemical is, the more risk there is at the same level of exposure. Both variables are fundamental to the resulting calculation of risk.

As described in more detail below, differences among state PFAS guidelines may arise from differences in toxicity factors, which include Reference Doses (RfDs) for non-cancer effects and Cancer Slope Factors (CSFs) for carcinogenic effects. These toxicity factors are developed based on animal toxicology and/or human epidemiology studies. Choices in the scientific study and toxicity endpoint used, as well as choices made in developing an RfD or CSF from the selected study and endpoint, will result in differences in the numerical values of these toxicity factors.

Different guidelines may also result from variations in exposure factors, which include parameters relating to daily water ingestion, body weight of an individual, duration of exposure, and fraction of total exposure from the medium of concern (e.g., drinking water). As with toxicity factors, state agencies use evidence-based methods to characterize exposure factors.

Scientific Considerations, Professional Judgment, & Peer Review

In general, states prefer to use peer-reviewed, publicly available toxicity studies that meet risk assessment criteria (e.g., study duration, route of exposure) as the basis for their guidelines. In some cases, states will consider non-peer reviewed reports (e.g., contract lab reports or National Toxicology Program data). Regulators review studies to ensure that they were properly conducted and reported, and consider a study's results coupled with its relevance, degree of rigor, and importance to the question on hand. Some states routinely develop their own guidelines for chemicals of interest to their state; however, if the EPA completes this process first, states can review the agency's conclusions and decide whether to use them, saving the state the effort of doing this on its own. When EPA values are not available, some states refer to ATSDR's provisional MRLs (as they would RfDs) or use health-protective values from other agencies like the American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists (ACGIH).

Toxicity Criteria & Methodology

Regulatory agencies may rely on a chemical-by-chemical approach or grouping approaches for developing PFAS toxicity criteria (e.g., RfDs for non-carcinogens and CSFs for carcinogens). Most states conducting their own

²⁵ Examples of these EPA guidance documents include the [Risk Assessment Guidelines](#), [Water Quality Standards Handbook](#), and [Exposure Factors Handbook](#) (2011).

evaluations do not rely solely on EPA or ATSDR risk assessments, for which there are only published documents supporting the EPA's LHA for PFOA and PFOS, draft toxicity documents and RfDs for PFBS and GenX chemicals, and the ATSDR's draft MRLs for PFOA, PFOS, PFHxS, and PFNA. Performing the scientific analysis needed to effectively regulate PFAS is time consuming, and regulators lack toxicological data needed to develop criteria for some PFAS detected in environmental media.

To develop health-based guidelines, agencies conduct risk assessments, which usually follow this sequence of events:

1. Review available studies (e.g., toxicological, epidemiological) to identify critical endpoints that are sensitive and relevant to humans.

While most scientists prefer human epidemiological information as the basis for guidelines when the data are appropriate, the EPA and states have concluded that currently available human studies are not appropriate to use as the primary basis for PFAS guidelines. As such, all current federal and state PFAS guidelines are based on laboratory animal study data that are then translated.²⁶ For PFOA and PFOS, the EPA and some states have identified developmental effects (e.g., decreased pup body weight, thyroid effects [PFOS]; accelerated puberty; delayed ossification, delayed mammary gland development, neurobehavioral and skeletal effects [PFOA]; hepatic [liver] toxicity, immune system suppression [PFOA, PFOS]) as critical endpoints. Critical endpoints can vary from state-to-state based on scientific judgment.

2. Determine a point of departure (POD), the spot on the dose-response curve from the animal study at which toxicologists begin to apply uncertainty factors (UFs). PODs can be a No Observed Adverse Effect Level (NOAEL), Lowest Observed Adverse Effect Level (LOAEL), or Benchmark Dose (lower confidence limit; BMDL). BMDL is the preferred POD when available, as it is less dependent on dose selection and sample size.

Toxicologists typically adjust the POD to account for the much slower excretion rate of PFAS in humans than animals (i.e., calculating human equivalent doses [HEDs] that will result in an equivalent internal dose [serum level] at the POD in animal studies). This dosimetric adjustment can be performed using estimated human clearance values, or the ratio of estimated serum half-lives in humans and animals.²⁷

3. Apply UFs to the HED to determine the RfD, an estimate of the daily oral dose at which humans are expected to be without risk from repeated²⁸ exposure to a chemical, including PFAS. An RfD is expressed as mass of chemical per day on a body weight basis ($\text{mg}_{\text{chemical}}/\text{kg}_{\text{body weight}}/\text{day}$).

Toxicologists apply UFs of 3 (i.e., the square root of 10, which rounds to 3 if a single such factor is applied; if two such factors are applied, the value equals 10), or 10 to reflect uncertainties associated with the data used.

²⁶ This may not be true internationally, as the European Food Safety Authority has used [epidemiological studies](#) to develop acceptable intake rates of PFOA, PFOS, PFNA, and PFHxS in humans.

²⁷ The dosimetric adjustment is used to determine the human serum PFAS level expected from a given external (oral) dose, and is how toxicologists account for PFAS bioaccumulation in risk assessment. It can be applied to the POD to develop the HED as described, or applied to the ratio of the POD and Total UFs as shown in the RfD equation below. Both methods are mathematically equivalent and the order of operations does not affect the final result.

²⁸ The length of exposure to which the toxicity factor is intended to apply can vary depending on the chemical and regulatory agency. For example, in its draft toxicity values for [PFBS and GenX chemicals](#), the EPA characterizes exposure over a lifetime (chronic RfD) or less (subchronic RfD). For the EPA's LHA for [PFOA and PFOS](#), the RfD is defined by a lifetime of exposure and is intended to apply to short-term (weeks to months) exposure. The ATSDR uses the term MRL instead of RfD to describe the daily dose of a chemical that is not expected to pose a risk to human health. Its PFAS [MRLs](#) are derived for intermediate (14-364 days) exposure.

Uncertainties include potentially higher sensitivity of some people (intraspecies), extrapolation from animals to humans (interspecies), shorter duration of exposure than the intended timeframe for the RfD in the study used, use of a LOAEL as the POD, and gaps (i.e., potentially more sensitive effects that have not been studied) in the toxicological database. The UFs are applied selectively for each chemical as appropriate for the toxicity data being used as the basis for the RfD.

Toxicologists multiply the UFs together to obtain the total UF, and then divide the selected (NOAEL, LOAEL, or BMDL) POD (or as adjusted, the HED) by the total UF. A dosimetric adjustment is then performed to determine the RfD (as shown in the equation below).²⁹

$$\frac{POD}{Total\ UFs} \times dosimetric\ adjustment\ factor = RfD$$

4. Combine the RfD with selected exposure parameters to establish a concentration (i.e., standard or guidance value) for PFAS in a specific medium (e.g., drinking water) that is intended to be protective of human health. Exposure assumptions vary among states and can result in different guidelines despite similar RfDs.

Some states select exposure parameters for subgroups such as pregnant women or children if they are more sensitive for the toxicological effect of concern. Exposure parameters for health-based guidelines include the exposure rate (e.g., amount of drinking water, fish, or soil assumed to be ingested each day) and representative body weights for the target population. For drinking water guidelines (and groundwater guidelines based on drinking water exposure parameters), states consider the Relative Source Contribution (RSC), which is the percentage of the RfD allocated or allowed to come from drinking water. The default value for the RSC is 20 percent, but states can use chemical specific values from 20 to 80 percent if available data support them. For example, the EPA's LHA allows drinking water to contribute only 20 percent of the RfD and other sources can contribute 80 percent, so the RSC is 20 percent. Furthermore, scientists are still learning about PFAS sources and extents/impacts of exposure levels; as such, states' assumptions about the RSC may change in the future and affect PFAS guidelines.

State Trends on the Basis of Guidelines

ECOS examined states' calculations and factors applied to oral routes of exposure to PFAS that contributed to their standard setting processes.

Appendices A-F of this report include tables of state toxicological information and exposure assumptions for setting guidelines in drinking water, groundwater, surface water, soil, air, and fish and wildlife. Some of the trends in the data are summarized below:

Critical Studies and Endpoints. This is a critical first step in the process, as it indicates the most sensitive health effect identified for which toxicologists are protecting (e.g., fetal/infant growth delays, thyroid dysfunction, infertility, alterations in liver function, and/or impaired immune function). *Eight states* indicated that they use the EPA's preferred critical studies (e.g., Lau et al. [2006] for the PFOA LHA and Luebker et al. [2005] for the PFOS LHA) and pharmacokinetic model for developing a toxicity factor (i.e., modeled average animal serum levels at the POD). *Twelve states* use a variety of critical studies and endpoints based on which PFAS they are evaluating. As discussed in the Human-to-Animal Extrapolation Methods section on page 16, state approaches may differ from the EPA

²⁹ As stated in Footnote 27, the dosimetric adjustment can alternatively be made on the POD to determine a HED, to which the UFs are applied, yielding the same result for the calculated RfD.

methodology in that the POD is based on serum PFAS levels measured at the end of the animal study rather than serum levels predicted using the EPA pharmacokinetic model.

Points of Departure: The choice of POD depends on the dose response data for the critical endpoint being used as the basis for risk assessment. As previously mentioned, BMDL is the preferred POD when available as it is less dependent on the dose selection and sample size than the NOAEL or LOAEL. If a BMDL cannot be derived, the NOAEL is preferred. If there is no NOAEL in the study (i.e., effects occur at all doses), the LOAEL is used. *Seven states* and the EPA use the LOAEL and NOAEL PODs for PFOA and PFOS in drinking water. Other states indicated that they use a combination of PODs depending on which PFAS they are examining, with LOAEL the most commonly used for PFOA and NOAEL the most commonly used for PFOS. *Five states* reported using a BMDL for various PFAS in drinking water.

Uncertainty Factors: States use a variety of combinations for UFs that differ based on the study used. Some states reported applying a total UF of 300 for PFOA (with a UF of 3 for interspecies; 10 for intraspecies; and other UFs for extrapolation from LOAEL to NOAEL, database limitations, duration of exposure [i.e., subchronic to chronic extrapolation], and/or sensitive developmental endpoints), and a total UF of 30 (with a UF of 3 for interspecies and 10 for intraspecies) for PFOS. Some states have applied higher UFs depending on their interpretations of the relevant scientific data. UFs selected for other PFAS compounds vary.

Exposure Parameters:

- **Populations at Risk:** States including *Michigan, Minnesota, and New Hampshire* use Minnesota's model (Goeden et al. [2019]) to predict fetal and infant exposure from transplacental transfer, breastmilk, and prepared formula. This model applies the upper-percentile age-adjusted drinking water ingestion rates in the 95th percentile for pregnant women and formula-fed infants, and the upper-percentile ingestion rate for breast-fed infants. Other states account for populations that may be at increased risk by considering their higher intake rates, with infants and lactating women consuming more than typical adults when adjusted for body weight. Examples include, but are not limited to, a 0-1 year old body weight-adjusted drinking water intake rate of 0.175 L/kg/day (*Vermont*), a 10 kg body weight adjusted drinking water intake rate of 0.1 L/kg/day (*Wisconsin*), or a lifetime average drinking water intake rate of 0.053 L/kg/day that accounts for increased water consumption relative to body weight at young ages (*California*), as compared to the default adult water consumption rate (0.029 L/kg/day) (*New Jersey*). The EPA's LHA assumed the drinking water ingestion rate of the 90th percentile of lactating women to be 0.053 L/kg/day. Several states look at fish consumption rates as well when developing surface water quality criteria and fish consumption advisories; these advisories are more stringent for high risk populations (e.g., infants, children, pregnant and lactating women, women of childbearing age) in some states (e.g., *Connecticut, New Jersey*). Overall, target populations and RSCs differed among states, even if those states used the same critical endpoint or a similar RfD. The different exposure parameters resulted in different final guidelines.³⁰
- **Relative Source Contribution:** *Ten states* reported using the default value for the RSC of 20 percent (as the EPA does in its LHAs for PFOA and PFOS) for various PFAS in drinking water, indicating that they allow 20 percent of the RfD to come from drinking water and 80 percent to come from other sources of exposure. *Three states* use a chemical-specific RSC of 50 percent in drinking water. No states reported using a less conservative RSC of 80 percent, which would allow 80 percent of the RfD to come from drinking water, allocating only 20 percent to exposure to all other sources like diet or consumer products. While *Wisconsin* uses an RSC of 80 percent in surface water, both *Alaska and Wisconsin* do not use an RSC (i.e., an RSC of 100 percent) in groundwater; at

³⁰ Some states develop groundwater standards based on the assumption that groundwater is used as drinking water, so the ingestion rates/exposure assumptions used for drinking water standards are applied to the groundwater standards.

that guideline, exposures from other sources would raise the intake above the RfD. Several states reported that the [EPA Decision Tree](#) (2000) is helpful in establishing an RSC.

Human Epidemiological Data: Ten states (*California, Connecticut, Florida, Illinois, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Hampshire, New Jersey, North Carolina, Wisconsin*) reported considering both animal and human epidemiological data to support their selections of critical endpoints from animal toxicity studies and guide their risk assessments.³¹

Human-to-Animal Extrapolation Methods: Human toxicity values for PFAS are primarily based on laboratory animal studies and rely on various approaches to account for the much longer half-lives in humans than in animals. Toxicologists consider the interspecies half-life difference in most PFAS risk assessments because the same daily dose of a PFAS results in a higher internal dose (blood serum PFAS level) in humans because of their slower excretion rate. In general, the serum PFAS levels from animal studies are converted to HEDs by applying a chemical-specific clearance factor (based on human half-life and volume of distribution) that relates serum levels to human-administered doses. The interspecies UF is reduced from the default value of 10 to 3 when these approaches are used since interspecies pharmacokinetic differences have already been accounted for.

Seven states (*Alaska, Colorado, Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, Vermont, Wisconsin*) reported using the EPA approach (used in its derivation of the LHA for PFOA and PFOS), which estimates the HED using modeled serum concentrations at the POD in the animal study as the internal dose metric. A few other states, including *New Jersey, New Hampshire, and California*, use measured serum concentrations at the end of the dosing period in the animal study as the POD.

Carcinogenicity: 13 states (*Alaska, California, Connecticut, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New Hampshire, New Jersey, North Carolina, Vermont, Wisconsin*) reported that they consider carcinogenicity as well as non-cancer endpoints in their evaluations. Eight of those states (*Alaska, California, Connecticut, Florida, Illinois, New Jersey, Vermont, Wisconsin [PFOA only]*) quantify cancer risk with a slope factor and a cancer risk level of 1 in 100,000 (1×10^{-5}) or 1 in 1,000,000 (1×10^{-6}).³² *California* uses cancer as the critical endpoint for PFOA (pancreatic and liver cancer in male rats) and PFOS (liver cancer in male rats), as does *Illinois* for PFOA.

Section III. Risk Management

Once their toxicologists assess potential health or ecological risks, states take steps to manage those risks and protect public health. This includes analyzing PFAS samples, establishing guidelines, and addressing resource issues. This could also include deciding whether to address PFAS individually or as a group (see Grouping PFAS on page 10), deciding not to act based on their conclusions of the assessed risks, or looking at broader impacts of managing PFAS such as issuing discharge permits and availability of treatment removal technologies.

Analytical Methods & Limitations

States use a variety of methods to test for PFAS in different media. The most widely used are [EPA Method 537](#) (2009, applies to 14 PFAS in drinking water) and [EPA Method 537.1](#) (2018/2020, applies to 18 PFAS in drinking water). Two states (*Florida, New Hampshire*) use EPA Method 537 and nine states (*California, Illinois, Michigan,*

³¹ As with any risk assessment, human epidemiology is considered, at a minimum, to support using an animal study. No state has relied on the human epidemiological data as the quantitative basis of an RfD derivation.

³² Cancer risk levels used in risk assessments are policy choices that vary among states and may be specified in a state's legislation or regulation.

Minnesota, Nebraska, North Carolina, Texas, Vermont, Wisconsin) use EPA Method 537.1 in drinking water. *Eight states (Alaska, Connecticut, Indiana, Maine, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York)* reported using both.³³ EPA Method 537.1 analyzes the same 14 PFAS as EPA Method 537, which was used for analysis during UCMR3, and adds four other replacement PFAS, including HFPO-DA. Both methods are designed for drinking water with low total suspended or dissolved solids. Samples are prepared by using a solid phase extraction technique.

Some labs perform modifications to these methods such as using isotope dilution, using a weak anion exchange (WAX) solid-phase extraction (SPE) cartridge, or not evaporating samples to dryness. These changes allow labs to analyze a greater number of analytes in additional matrices and may also allow for lower reporting limits, increased recovery, or greater accuracy. For example, *nine states (Alaska, Connecticut, Indiana, Maine, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, Texas, Vermont)* reported that they use modifications to EPA Method 537.1 for non-drinking water media.

Other methods and criteria for PFAS analysis include:

- **EPA Solid Waste (SW)-846 Method 8321:** *Washington* has used for fish tissue.
- **DEP SOP LC-001-3:** *Florida* this year moved to its own Department of Environmental Protection standard operating procedure (SOP) method for PFAS in surface water, groundwater, wastewater, soil, and other solids. The DEP SOP LC-001-3 method references the EPA method 8321 and incorporates isotope dilution mass spectrometry to report 30 PFAS analytes, whereas the EPA method does not specifically mention PFAS or isotope dilution, but allows for the addition of non-listed analytes as long as all quality control measures are achieved.
- **EPA SW-846 Method 8327:** *Florida and Illinois* use for surface water, groundwater, and wastewater. This direct injection method for non-drinking water aqueous samples was developed in 2019 for 24 target analytes, 14 of which are also found in EPA Method 537.1. While sensitivity was found in multi-laboratory validation to measure PFOA and PFOS below federal LHA levels for drinking water, this method does not yet provide low-level detection (i.e., single ng/L) and is only intended for testing of non-potable waters. The U.S. Department of Defense (DOD) published a memo stating that this method does not meet its needs to support decision-making and advises its use for screening purposes only. The EPA's Office of Resource Conservation and Recovery anticipates publishing the final version of this method and the associated aqueous sample preparation method 3512 by spring 2021.
- **EPA Method 533:** *Alaska, Maine, and Minnesota* allow labs to use this method. Published in 2019, this isotope dilution method uses a WAX SPE cartridge to improve recoveries of 25 short-chain³⁴ and long-chain PFAS in drinking water. The method targets 25 PFAS, including all 14 PFAS from EPA Method 537 and 11 PFAS unique to this method. Additional stable labeled isotopes are added into this method.
- **DOD Quality Systems Manual** Version 5.1 or later (i.e., 5.2, 5.3): *California, Colorado, Maine, and North Carolina* use for consideration as additional guidance and quality control requirements. *Washington* specifies that labs must use their preferred isotopic dilution method that is compliant with the DOD Quality Systems Manual PFAS criteria when analyzing groundwater, surface water, and sediments.
- **Total Oxidizable Precursor (TOP) Assay:** *Connecticut* uses for groundwater, surface water, AFFF, and fluorine-free foam; *Maine* uses for all matrices; *New York* uses for soil; *Vermont* uses for soil and groundwater; *Washington* has used for surface water and sediments.
- **EPA SW-846 Method 1312, Synthetic Precipitation Leaching Procedure (SPLP):** *New York* uses for soil; *Vermont* uses for soil and sludge.

³³ Methods can be applied to analyze one, some, or all applicable PFAS for which the methods apply, depending on which PFAS a state considers.

³⁴ Short-chain PFAS are those with carbon chain lengths of 5 or lower for sulfonic acids like PFBS, and carbon chain lengths of 7 or lower for carboxylic acids like PFHxA.

- SGS Axys Analytical, SOP [MLA 110](#): *Connecticut* uses for fish tissue; *Maine* uses for all matrices; *Minnesota* uses for water/effluent, soil/sediment, biosolids, and tissue; *New York* uses for biota; *Vermont* uses for sludge; *Washington* has used for surface water and sediments.
- [ASTM D7979-17](#): *Florida* uses for surface water and sludge.
- [ASTM D7968-17a](#): *Florida* uses for soil.
- [ISO 25101](#): *New York* uses for drinking water.
- As long as the method meets program requirements and project objectives, some states defer to each lab's preferred methods³⁵: *six states (Maine [all matrices except drinking water, requires use of isotope dilution], Minnesota [drinking water], New Jersey, New York, Wisconsin, Texas [remediation])*.

Several methods were not final when ECOS conducted the survey³⁶, so it is unknown if or which states may already use them:

- EPA Clean Water Act and SW-846 Isotope Dilution Methods: In collaboration with the DOD, the EPA is developing test methods for PFAS in wastewater, groundwater, surface water, leachate, soil, sediment, biosolids, and fish tissue. These methods are currently undergoing single-lab validation, and planning is underway for a multi-lab validation study. A [list of PFAS](#) are being evaluated for potential inclusion in the methods. This method has undergone single-lab validation and will now undergo validation in ten labs. If its final version is approved, this method will encompass [40 PFAS](#). The EPA's goal is to publish a 1600 series Clean Water Act method and SW-846 guidance methods for preparation, cleanup, and analysis using the same validation study. The methods will be similar, but Clean Water Act methods are written in a more prescriptive manner than the SW-846 guidance methods. A state noted that isotope dilution is the gold standard for quantitation and is the only method that corrects results for potential matrix effects.
- [EPA Other Test Method-45](#): This method will be used to test for 50 specific PFAS at stationary sources, as well as identify other PFAS that may be present in the air sample, which will help improve emissions characterizations and inform the need for further testing.
- The EPA is developing a number of source emission methods for measurements from industrial and combustion/incineration sources. The EPA will apply what they learn in the source sampling (stack testing) efforts to ambient measurement techniques anticipated in 2022-2024.
- Some states and the EPA are considering validating supplemental analysis (e.g., Total Organic Fluorine (TOF) and TOP assays) to more completely characterize total PFAS in various media including consumer and industrial products.

Challenges that confound PFAS analysis include:

- There are no low-level detection methods that are applicable to most PFAS in complex media.
- Sample collection and analytical interference/contamination due to the presence of PFAS in common consumer products, sampling equipment, and lab materials can create challenges concerning quality control procedures in the laboratories.
- Matrix effects can interfere with accurate PFAS quantitation, as natural biological components and coexisting chemicals are often present in environmental samples but not in the solvent standards, leading to a difference in instrument response for equal concentration standards and samples.
- There are new challenges associated with emerging PFAS. For example there is a lack of availability for analytical standards and the stable isotope-labeled internal standards, which help optimize method accuracy, for

³⁵ State agencies have method performance expectations that they use to approve labs and determine whether or not the lab's own method is considered suitable by state program standards.

³⁶ The EPA in 2020 created a PFAS Innovative Treatment Team that is working to develop and validate new methods, many of which are expected to be completed by mid-2021.

emerging PFAS. Several emerging PFAS have also been found to be diprotic (meaning the molecule contains two acid functional groups can cause varying charge states) or to be early eluting PFAS (meaning the compounds elute off of the high performance liquid chromatography columns too quickly), and many require lower mass spectrometer source temperatures and capillary voltage for ionization for optimum instrument signal and enhanced analytical accuracy. In addition, trifluoroacetic acid (TFA, a common environmental contaminant) interferes in the analysis of early eluters by suppressing the ionization of other coeluting PFAS. Lastly, several PFAS have been found to contain isomer forms (with more isomer forms present with increasing PFAS chain length), complicating analysis.

- There are financial and time constraints for existing lab methods. The Minnesota Department of Health reports that the turnaround time for their samples is 45 days and each water sample costs more than \$300.
- There are different and sometimes inconsistent laboratory procedures for non-EPA approved methods. Not every state has a state lab, and some labs are government contracted or private. Each could result in different costs, time constraints, and sampling procedures. State agencies verify labs for use based on their own criteria.

ECOS recommends conferring with other states and using resources like the ITRC's [Sampling and Analytical Methods fact sheet](#), or the Association of State Drinking Water Administrators' (ASDWA) [PFAS Laboratory Testing Primer](#) for guidance on selecting an analytical method, finding a qualified laboratory, specifying PFAS analytes and reporting limits, understanding sample collection procedures, and interpreting testing results and variability.

Establishing Guidelines

States consider the health-based criteria from risk assessment and other technical factors in the establishment of their guidelines. Some states' risk assessment approaches and conclusions have resulted in the development and adoption of PFAS guidelines that are lower than guidelines for most other contaminants. Scientific considerations that may contribute to these values include:

- PFAS cause toxicological effects at very low doses.
- Risk assessments account for the higher bioaccumulation of certain PFAS in humans than in animals. The same dose given to a human will result in a much higher blood serum level than in a lab animal.
- Low levels of certain PFAS in blood serum are associated with human health effects, and some states will consider how much a certain level in drinking water will increase blood serum PFAS levels. Even low levels of PFAS in drinking water can cause considerable increases in blood serum PFAS levels.
- As mentioned in footnote 9, the health basis for standards for other contaminants of emerging concern may be as low as those for PFAS, but the final guideline is set at the analytical quantitation levels, which may be up to several orders of magnitude higher than the health-based levels. For PFAS, analytical quantitation levels are very low, such that the final standard or guidance can be set at the health-based criterion.

Additionally, some states are required to perform a cost-benefit analysis in setting their final standards.

PFAS Resource (Cost) Issues

13 states (Alaska, California, Illinois, Indiana, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, Washington, Wisconsin) have conducted, are required by a state or federal law to conduct, or plan to consider costs or conduct cost-benefit analyses to define the economic impact of establishing guidelines for certain PFAS. Some states (e.g., New Mexico, North Carolina) require a cost-benefit analysis as part of their administrative procedures for developing MCLs or water quality criteria, or release compliance costs through rulemaking (New York). Other states are not required to conduct a cost-benefit analysis prior to adopting guidelines into state

regulation but plan to factor costs into decision-making. One state noted that the operations and management costs for treatment (e.g., Granular Activated Carbon [GAC]) are detrimental to its and others' budgets, especially for small public water systems that perform carbon changeouts regularly to ensure no arsenic MCL exceedances or other background factors when undergoing PFAS treatment procedures.³⁷

Seven states (California, Connecticut, Maine, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, New Mexico) have conducted cost estimates for some PFAS efforts. Some actions may fall under a state's normal agency programmatic activity; others require more staff and time. For example, in 2019, *Michigan* had allocated \$3 million for testing its PWSs and three full-time employees (FTEs) for oversight of the testing and rulemaking, and estimated rulemaking costs to exceed \$250,000. Michigan's overall costs for the investigation and response exceed \$100 million since 2018. *New Mexico* estimated 2020 and 2021 drinking water sampling efforts to total \$1.2 million, and the state legislature has authorized \$4 million for communities in two counties to plan, design, and construct improvements to water systems with PFAS contamination. *Maine* expended approximately \$0.5 million through the end of 2020 on personnel and other (mainly laboratory) expenses, not including for senior manager FTEs. The state has a significant PFAS investigation underway at several sites it notes will add significantly to this total. *New Jersey* utilizes five FTEs for PFAS standard-setting efforts. *California* has FTEs dedicated to enforcement of the regulation but does not consider FTEs for rule development in its cost estimates. In 2020, *Connecticut* estimated it needed \$5 million to implement a 5-year statewide monitoring plan to study surface water and fish tissue (not including staff time); \$75,000 to evaluate influent and effluent PFAS values at approximately 30 publicly-owned treatment works for 1 year; and \$90,000 to support the development of a geographic information system for risk assessment of groundwater, surface water, and drinking water. A couple of states noted that PFAS has required a somewhat swift and significant rebalancing of staff member projects; for example, a state may have difficulty hiring new employees to fill the previous positions of those now assigned to work on PFAS, or a state's other projects may fall by the wayside due to the demand of this issue.

Incurring costs extend beyond regulating PFAS and should factor in: expenditures for states to initially investigate whether and to what degree there are PFAS releases or contaminated media; removal methods for contaminated media; disposal or long-term storage of AFFF; lab certification process development and equipment acquisition; chemical analysis; liabilities and legal fees; risk communication; and tracking the fate and transport of PFAS once released from an active source to the environment, requiring (re)sampling and treatment. For example, *Minnesota* is still calculating its costs (the total for past, ongoing, and potential future PFAS efforts will be estimated in its pending PFAS report), but noted that an industrial facility in the state allocated about \$750,000 to retrofit its operations where PFAS were used and had contaminated a nearby waterbody. *New Jersey* estimates that the average cost for lab analysis is \$300 per PFAS sample at each point of entry, and that this cost is expected to decrease as additional laboratories are certified for PFAS analysis and as market competition increases. The state also estimates that the cost of installing PFAS-specific GAC treatment for a PWS treating one million gallons per day (serving about 10,000 people) ranges from \$500,000 to \$1,000,000, with estimated operating costs of approximately \$80,000 per year. *New Jersey* notes that operating costs could increase depending on the number of wells requiring treatment and the level of contamination. Given PFAS ubiquity, the ability for precursors (e.g., fluorotelomers) to transform to perfluoroalkyl compounds and complicate site models, and complex transport mechanisms, especially at the air-water interface, states will need to use more resources to test process-based conceptual site models and fully understand the size and source of PFAS plumes.

States identified several cost implications of regulating PFAS:

³⁷ Small public water systems usually contain contaminants other than PFAS, including arsenic, manganese, nitrate, or bacteria that present health risks and are naturally occurring or originate from nearby land uses. Effectiveness of PFAS treatment will depend on how often filters are replaced and what levels of these other contaminants are present in the system. See more [here](#).

- Resource availability is driven by dedicated government appropriations. For most states, resources to investigate and address PFAS come from existing program budgets (i.e., no new funds). Some states like *Colorado* and *Michigan* have received funding from bills signed by their Governors, and *Connecticut* received \$2 million in bond funding to support the development and implementation of an AFFF take-back program, limited private well sampling, and treatment where needed. But these exemplify state-specific resources based on legislative priorities. Other states have received funding from settlements with PFAS manufacturers to use on regulation and/or restoration of contaminated sites.
- Resource disparity exists – States with the fewest resources to address PFAS may be more significantly impacted by PFAS than others. Similarly, they may only have resources to address PFAS-related risks that are most studied in existing science and most salient among the public, rather than addressing risks unique to that state. The complexities of PFAS scientific information also create a barrier to understanding risk in a public forum.
- Data gaps prevent confident decision-making on how resources are used to address PFAS. States want to develop regulations based on a sound understanding of the problem in their state and to be able to communicate that understanding to their constituents. However, various factors – the lack of information on the sources and fates of PFAS, how they can be removed from drinking water and aquifers, and resulting waste management issues – create barriers to state time and financial investment.

A few states identified the need for water quality-based effluent limits, as well as the need for a cost conversation through national MCL or National Recommended Water Quality Criteria (NRWQC) processes, as many states do not have the resources to regulate PFAS on their own. These are SDWA and CWA processes driven by the EPA and involving states as co-regulators, and are one example of how the EPA is assessing potential changes to its regulatory processes to better respond to contaminants of emerging concern and be more inclusive of state priorities.³⁸

Conclusion

ECOS asked states to list considerations and unanswered questions that will affect their PFAS guidelines in the future. States noted that the greatest impacts on state PFAS regulations will be:

- How can regulators apply or develop guidelines to PFAS in less-explored media (e.g., food and agriculture, biosolids, landfills, foam, and air emissions), if at all? For example, a few states (e.g., *Minnesota*, *Michigan*, *New Jersey*) have guidelines or consumption advisories for fish tissue or deer meat.
- How can labs detect lower concentrations of PFAS for media other than drinking water?
- What new information on sensitive human subpopulations, bioaccumulation in fish and shellfish, etc. will affect PFAS regulation?
- How will shifting use and chemistries of PFAS that have yet to be addressed complicate the responses? How many PFAS exist but are unknown to regulators due to confidentiality from manufacturers, etc.?
- How will developing information about PFAS migration from soil into animal feed, food crops, etc. affect the need for guidance values and state actions in response?
- What analytical approaches and health effects data will be available to develop guidelines for replacement PFAS?
- What will happen to current and pending state guidelines if federally enforceable standards (MCLs, NRWQCs) are enacted?
- What kinds of new science are needed to more effectively regulate PFAS?

³⁸ For more information on states' recommendations for contaminants of emerging concern, see the Association of Clean Water Administrators (ACWA) and ASDWA joint [Recommendations Report for Contaminants of Emerging Concern](#).

- How will guidelines affect PFAS management/cleanup liability, disposal, and other considerations? For example, what will be the impact of designating PFAS as hazardous substances or regulating discharges through the National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System (NPDES) and remediation programs? Who will pay for mitigation or remediation? What role does pollution prevention play in prohibiting PFAS in consumer goods from passing through regulated facilities and entering the environment?

PFAS pose complex challenges that are new (e.g., drinking water contamination is not a major issue for other persistent, bioaccumulative, and toxic chemicals) and especially daunting. Their unique characteristics include mobility; persistence in the environment and the human body; animal and health effects at low doses; a lack of toxicological data for most PFAS detected in the environment and used in commerce; ubiquitous detection in human blood; and technical obstacles for remediation. These challenges are compounded by regulatory and policy developments that vary by state and are uncertain at the federal level. There is also heightened public pressure for swift risk management, encouraged through social media and news reports. For example, there have been large settlements of high-profile lawsuits (e.g., \$850 million from 3M to Minnesota in 2018, \$671 million from DuPont to plaintiffs in West Virginia and Ohio in 2017). Advocacy groups have convened community events and produced films inspired by PFAS contamination in cities like Parchment, Michigan; Decatur, Alabama; and Parkersburg, West Virginia. And public data from the UCMR3 reported that PFAS were detected in water supplies serving 16.5 million people in the U.S. and that more than six million people consumed water with PFAS concentrations above the EPA's LHA in 2015.³⁹

A few states followed the emerging scientific information on, evaluated occurrence of, and developed guidelines for PFAS for many years before they were widely known to the public. Some states are actively responding to the recent events mentioned above by establishing programs and guidelines to regulate PFAS-contaminated sites. Other states are aware of PFAS as a contaminant of emerging concern and addressing it as they can. Given these circumstances, risk communication is going to be an increasingly important function. Regulators need more transparency about the uses of existing PFAS, the ongoing development of new PFAS by industry, and PFAS approval by the EPA under statutes like TSCA. As states seek to independently regulate PFAS, it is critical to coordinate with and learn from other states that have established and are establishing their own guidelines.

This compilation of state-developed PFAS guidelines is a moving target, as regulators are acting quickly to develop and/or update guidelines for PFAS in various environmental media. Some states are waiting to set guidelines in the hopes that the EPA will establish a federally-enforceable MCL, and other states are establishing guidance at levels below the EPA's LHA and/or for PFAS other than PFOA and PFOS, indicating that some regulators and toxicologists view the federal approach⁴⁰ as insufficiently protective. As not all states completed the survey (including some states known to have developed guidelines) and there will likely continue to be state standard setting at concentrations below the EPA's LHA and for PFAS other than PFOA and PFOS, ECOS hopes to compile additional information in the future.

This white paper is not intended to be a comprehensive compendium of state PFAS regulations. Rather, it aims to lay the foundation for states to dig deeper into the issue. ECOS hopes this paper will serve as a basis for future conversations, and encourages state-to-state, state-federal, and state-NGO partnerships and collaboration. In June 2020, the ASDWA published a [toolkit](#) of modules on assessing state resources, characterizing health impacts, identifying treatment, analyzing costs and benefits, and other considerations surrounding PFAS in source water. ECOS is also compiling a spreadsheet of PFAS that states monitor for, including those for which the state does not have guidelines. The spreadsheet will be available on ECOS' [PFAS webpage](#) and will be updated as often as states

³⁹ Hu et al., 2016. "Detection of Poly- and Perfluoroalkyl Substances (PFASs) in U.S. Drinking Water Linked to Industrial Sites, Military Fire Training Areas, and Wastewater Treatment Plants." *Environmental Science & Technology Letters*, vol. 3, no. 10, 2016, pp. 344-350. ACS Publications, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.estlett.6b00260>.

⁴⁰ I.e., its process as a whole, or in its choice of critical studies or factors for calculation.

submit new data. ECOS encourages states to use this white paper in combination with its additional PFAS resources, the ASDWA's numerous reports, the ITRC [fact sheets](#) and [Technical/Regulatory Guidance document](#), and other relevant documents to fully understand the current status on PFAS regulation.

State Agency Reports on PFAS Guidelines

These reports/resources were provided by state environmental and health agencies that responded to the ECOS survey. For a full list of individual state PFAS websites with information on how they developed their guidelines and on other PFAS efforts, see the "Overview" section of ECOS' [PFAS Risk Communication Hub](#).

- [California](#)
- [Colorado](#)
- [Connecticut](#)
- [Florida](#)
- [Illinois](#)
- [Indiana](#)
- [Maine](#)
- [Massachusetts](#)
- [Michigan](#)
- [Minnesota](#)
- [New Hampshire](#)
- [New Jersey](#)
- [New York](#)
- [Texas](#)
- [Vermont](#)
- [Washington](#)

Appendix A: State Drinking Water PFAS Guideline Criteria

State	PFAS Analyte(s)	Guideline Level (ug/L)	Toxicity Data	Critical Effect Study	Endpoint	RSC (%)	POD	HED (mg/kg/day)	UFs						RfD (mg/kg/day)	Drinking Water Intake Rate (L/day unless otherwise specified)	Exposure assumptions	Target Populations	Resources		
									Total	Interspecies	Intraspecies	LOAEL to NOAEL	Database Limitation	Duration of Exposure (i.e., Subchronic to Chronic)						Sensitive Developmental Endpoints	
CA	PFOA	0.0051 (based on health-based reference level of 0.1 ppt for cancer effects, 2 ppt for non-cancer effects [liver])	Animals (mice/liver, rats/cancer)	Li et al., 2017; NTP, 2018	Hepatotoxicity in female mice; Cancer (pancreatic and liver) in male rats	20	LOAEL (0.97 mg/L)		300	3	10	3				3	Lifetime average of 0.053 L/kg/day	Oral ingestion as significant route of exposure	https://www.waterboards.ca.gov/pfas/ https://oehha.ca.gov/water/notification-level/notification-level-recommendations-perfluorooctanoic-acid-pfoa https://www.waterboards.ca.gov/drinking_water/certlic/drinkingwater/PFOA_PFOS.html		
	PFOS	0.0065 (based on health-based reference level of 0.4 ppt for cancer effects, 7 ppt for non-cancer effects [immune system])	Animals (mice/liver, rats/cancer)	Dong et al., 2009 Butenhoff et al., 2012	Immunotoxicity in male mice; Cancer (liver, structural similarity to PFOA) in male rats	20	NOAEL (0.674 mg/L)		30	3	10						Lifetime average of 0.053 L/kg/day				
	PFBS	0.5	Animals	Feng et al., 2017	Reduction of thyroid hormone, pregnant mice	20	6 mg/kg/day	0.06	100	3	10	3			0.0006	0.237 L/kg/day	0-6 month infant drinking water intake rate		https://oehha.ca.gov/media/downloads/water/chemicals/nl/pfbsnl011321.pdf		
CT	PFOA, PFOS, PFHxS, PFHpA, PFNA	0.07*	Animals (mice)	EPA (2016)	EPA (2016)	20	EPA (2016)		EPA (2016)												
IN	PFBS	140	Animals (mice)	EPA RSL Tables					400												
MA	PFOS, PFOA, PFNA, PFHxS, PFDA	0.020*	Animals	Multiple	Based on multiple endpoints and evidence of effects below EPA PODs for PFOA and PFOS; including: immunotoxicity, hepatotoxicity, thyroid effects, developmental effects.	20; to account for dietary and other exposures to PFAS subgroup addressed as well as potentially higher infant exposures.	NOAEL for PFOS, LOAEL for PFOA, equivalent to EPA values.	Equivalent to EPA values for PFOA and PFOS	1000 for PFOA, 100 for PFOS	3		10	10 for PFOA	3 for both PFOA and PFOS			5x10 ⁻⁶ based on PFOS and PFOA value, which is applied to subgroup based on similarity in chemical structures, toxicities, long serum half-lives.	0.054 L/kg/day (same as EPA value used in LHA derivation)	Body weight and water intake of lactating women (same as EPA value used in LHA derivation)	Lactating and pregnant women; fetus; nursing infants	https://www.mass.gov/lists/development-of-a-pfas-drinking-water-standard-mcl

State	PFAS Analyte(s)	Guideline Level (ug/L)	Toxicity Data	Critical Effect Study	Endpoint	RSC (%)	POD	HED (mg/kg/day)	UFs						RfD (mg/kg/day)	Drinking Water Intake Rate (L/day unless otherwise specified)	Exposure assumptions	Target Populations	Resources
									Total	Interspecies	Intraspecies	LOAEL to NOAEL	Database Limitation	Duration of Exposure (i.e., Subchronic to Chronic)					
ME	PFOA, PFOS, PFHxS, PFHpA, PFNA	0.07*	Animals (mice)	EPA (2016)	EPA (2016)	20	EPA (2016)												
MI	PFOA	0.008	Animals (mice)	Onishchenko et al., 2011 and Koskela et al., 2016	Neurobehavioral effects and skeletal alterations	50	LOAEL	300	3	10	3	3	1		95th percentile, 50% RSC			https://dtmb.state.mi.us/ARS_Public/Transaction/RFRTtransaction?TransactionID=29	
	PFOS	0.016	Animals (mice)	Dong et al., 2009	Immunotoxicity and Hepatotoxicity	50	NOAEL	30	3	10	1	1	1		95th percentile, 50% RSC				
	PFNA	0.006	Animals (mice)	Das et al., 2015	Reduced pup body weight	50	NOAEL	300	3	10	1	10	1		95th percentile, 50% RSC				
	PFHxA	400	Animals (rats)	Klaunig et al., 2015	Renal effects	20	BMDL	300	3	10	1	10	1		95th percentile, 20% RSC				
	PFHxS	0.051	Animals (rats)	NTP 2018 Tox-96 Report	Thyroid effects	50	BMDL	300	3	10	1	10	1		95th percentile, 50% RSC				
	PFBS	0.42	Animals (mice)	Feng et al., 2017	Thyroid effects	20	BMDL	300	3	10	1	10	1		95th percentile, 20% RSC				
	Gen X	0.37	Animals (mice)	DuPont 18405-1037, 2010	Reduced pup body weight, Hepatotoxicity	20	BMDL	300	3	10	1	3	3		95th percentile, 20% RSC				
MN	PFOA (Short-term, Subchronic and chronic)	0.035	Animals (mice)	Lau et al., 2006	Developmental and liver effects, kidney effects, Immunotoxicity	50	38 mg/L serum concentration	0.0053	300	3	10	3	3		1.8x10 ⁻⁵	95th percentile	Half-life 840 days; placental transfer 87%, 5.2% breastmilk transfer	Fetus and Breastfeeding Infants	https://www.health.state.mn.us/communities/environment/risk/docs/guidance/gw/pfoa.pdf
	PFOS (Short-term, Subchronic and chronic)	0.015	Animals (mice)	Dong et al., 2011	Immunotoxicity, adrenal, developmental effects, liver effects, thyroid effects	20 for older children and adults, 50 for infants/ young children	2.36 mg/L serum concentration	0.000307	100	3	10		3		3.1x10 ⁻⁶	95th percentile	Half-life 1241 days; placental transfer 40%; 1.7% breastmilk transfer	Fetus and Breastfeeding Infants	https://www.health.state.mn.us/communities/environment/risk/docs/guidance/gw/pfos.pdf
	PFBA (Short-term, Subchronic and chronic)	7	Animals (rats)	NOTOX, 2007 and Butenhoff, 2007	Liver effects, Thyroid effects	50	3.01 mg/kg/day	0.38	100	3	10		3		3.8x10 ⁻³	95th percentile	Half-life 72 hrs; placental transfer ND; breastmilk transfer ND	Infants and Adults	https://www.health.state.mn.us/communities/environment/risk/docs/guidance/gw/pfba2summ.pdf
	PFBS (Short-term and Subchronic)	3	Animals (mice)	Feng, 2017	Developmental effects, Thyroid effects, Reproduction	50	50 mg/kg/day	0.158	100	3	10		3		1.6x10 ⁻³	95th percentile	Half-life 665 hrs; placental transfer ND; breastmilk transfer ND	Infants and Adults	https://www.health.state.mn.us/communities/environment/risk/docs/guidance/gw/pfbsummary.pdf
	PFBS (Chronic)	2	Animals (rats)	Lieder, 2009 and York, 2003	Kidney	20	45 mg/kg/day	0.129	300	3	10		3	3	4.3x10 ⁻⁴	95th percentile	Half-life 665 hrs; placental transfer ND; breastmilk transfer ND	General Population	https://www.health.state.mn.us/communities/environment/risk/docs/guidance/gw/pfbsummary.pdf

State	PFAS Analyte(s)	Guideline Level (ug/L)	Toxicity Data	Critical Effect Study	Endpoint	RSC (%)	POD	HED (mg/kg/day)	UFs						RfD (mg/kg/day)	Drinking Water Intake Rate (L/day unless otherwise specified)	Exposure assumptions	Target Populations	Resources		
									Total	Interspecies	Intraspecies	LOAEL to NOAEL	Database Limitation	Duration of Exposure (i.e., Subchronic to Chronic)						Sensitive Developmental Endpoints	
MN	PFHxS (Short-term, Subchronic and chronic)	0.047	Animals (rats)	NTP, 2018	Thyroid effects, Liver effects	20 for older children and adults, 50 for infants/ young children	32.4 mg/L	0.00292	300	3	10		10				9.7x10 ⁻⁶	95th percentile	Half-life 1935 days; placental transfer 70%; breastmilk transfer 1.4%	Fetus and Breastfeeding Infants	https://www.health.state.mn.us/communities/environment/risk/docs/guidance/gw/pfhxs.pdf
NC	GenX	0.14	Animals (mice)	DuPont-24459, 2008; DuPont-18405-1037, 2010	Hepatotoxicity		0.1 mg/kg/day (NOAEL)		1000	10	10						0.0001	1.1 L/day (95th percentile infant)	Bottle-fed infants of median weight	Infants	https://epi.dph.ncdhs.gov/oeef/pfas/NC%20DHS%20Health%20Goal%20Q&A.pdf
NH	PFOA	0.012	Animals (mice)	Loveless et al., 2007	Hepatotoxicity		BMDL10		100	3	10		3					95th percentile	MDH Model	Fetus and Breastfeeding Infants	
	PFOS	0.015	Animals (mice)	Dong et al., 2011	Immunosuppression		NOAEL		100	3	10		3					95th percentile	MDH Model	Fetus and Breastfeeding Infants	
	PFNA	0.011	Animals (mice)	Das et al., 2015	Hepatotoxicity		BMDL10		100	3	10		3					95th percentile	MDH Model	Fetus and Breastfeeding Infants	
	PFHxS	0.018	Animals (mice)	Chang et al., 2018 and Ali et al.	Infertility		BMDLSD		300	3	10		10					95th percentile	MDH Model	Fetus and Breastfeeding Infants	https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31487490/
NJ	PFOA	0.014	Animals (mice)	Loveless et al., 2006	Hepatotoxicity		BMDL		30	3	10							2 (70 kg body wt)		Infants	https://www.state.nj.us/dep/watersupply/pdf/pfoa-appendix-a.pdf
	PFOS	0.013	Animals (mice)	Dong et al., 2009	Immunotoxicity		NOAEL		30	3	10							2 (70 kg body wt)		Infants	https://www.state.nj.us/dep/watersupply/pdf/pfos-recommendation-appendix-a.pdf
	PFNA	0.013	Animals (mice)	Das et al., 2015	Hepatotoxicity		BMDL		1000	3	10		3	10	3				200:1 serum: drinking water ratio		https://www.state.nj.us/dep/watersupply/pdf/pfna-health-effects.pdf
NY	PFOA	0.01																			
	PFOS	0.01																			
VT	PFOA, PFOS, PFHxS, PFHpA, PFNA	0.02*	Animals (mice)	EPA (2016)	EPA (2016)	20	EPA (2016)		EPA (2016)									0.175 L/kg/day		0-1 year old	

*= Advisory level is based on the total of more than one PFAS

Appendix B: State Groundwater PFAS Guideline Criteria

State	PFAS Analyte(s)	Guideline Level (ug/L)	Toxicity Data	Critical Effect Study	Endpoint	RSC (%)	POD	HED (mg/kg/day)	UFs						RfD (mg/kg/day)	Drinking Water Intake Rate (L/day unless otherwise specified)	Exposure assumptions	Target Populations	Resources & Notes	
									Total	Interspecies	Intraspecies	LOAEL to NOAEL	Database Limitation	Duration of Exposure (i.e., Subchronic to Chronic)						Sensitive Developmental Endpoints/ Subpopulations
AK	PFOA	0.4	Animals (mice)	Lau et al., 2006	Decreased ossification of pup proximal phalanges, accelerated preputial separation	None (but does not include an RSC in cleanup level calculations, so essentially use an RSC of 100)	EPA (2016)		EPA (2016)						EPA (2016)	0.78	Residential exposure for 6 yrs old child receptor	Child	http://dec.alaska.gov/media/7543/20180201_pccl.pdf	
	PFOS	0.4	Animals (mice)	Luebker et al., 2005	Reduced pup body weight	None (but does not include an RSC in cleanup level calculations, so essentially use an RSC of 100)	EPA (2016)		EPA (2016)						EPA (2016)	0.78	Residential exposure for 6 yrs old child receptor	Child	http://dec.alaska.gov/media/7543/20180201_pccl.pdf	
CO	PFOA, PFOS	0.07*	Animals (mice)	EPA (2016)	EPA (2016)	20	EPA (2016)		EPA (2016)						EPA (2016)	EPA (2016)	EPA (2016)	EPA (2016)		
	PFBS	400	Animals (mice)	EPA RSL	EPA RSL	EPA RSL	EPA RSL		EPA RSL						EPA RSL	EPA RSL	EPA RSL	EPA RSL		
	PFHxS	0.7	Animals (mice)																	
CT	PFOA, PFOS, PFHxS, PFHpA, PFNA	0.07*																		
FL	PFOA	0.07	Animals (mice)	Lau et al., 2006	Decreased ossification of pup proximal phalanges, accelerated preputial separation	20	EPA (2016)		300	3		10			10		2x10 ⁻⁵	0.054 L/kg/day	Pregnant/lactating women	
	PFOS	0.07	Animals (mice)	Luebker et al., 2005	Decreased offspring body weight	20	EPA (2016)		30	3					10		2x10 ⁻⁵	0.054 L/kg/day	Pregnant/lactating women	
IL	PFOA	0.002 (MRL)	Animals (Rats/Cancer)	NTP 2018. TR-598	Liver/Pancreatic Tumors		Slope Factor 143 mg/kg/day	0.00035									143 (SF)	2	Duration: 30 years. Frequency: 350 days/year	Average adult
	PFOS	0.014	Animals (Rats/Developmental)	Luebker et al., 2005	Decreased bodyweight/delayed eye opening	20	NOAEL 0.1 mg/kg/day	0.000515	300	3	10	1			1100		0.000002	2	Oral ingestion as significant route of exposure	Average adult
	PFBS	140	Animals (Rats/Kidney)	Lieder et al. 2009	Hyperplasia	20	BMDL ₁₀ 78.7 mg/kg/day	18.9	1000	3	10	1	3	10			0.02	2	Oral ingestion as significant route of exposure	Average adult
	PFHxS	0.14	Animals (Rats/Thyroid)	Butenhoff et al. 2009	Thyroid follicular damage	20	NOAEL 1 mg/kg/day	0.0047	300	3	10	1					0.00002	2	Oral ingestion as significant route of exposure	Average adult
	PFNA	0.021	Animals (Mice/Developmental)	Das et al. 2015	Decreased bodyweight/developmental delays	20	NOAEL 1 mg/kg/day	0.001	300	3	10	1					0.000003	2	Oral ingestion as significant route of exposure	Average adult

<https://www2qa.illinois.gov/epa/topics/water-quality/pfas/Pages/pfas-statewide-investigation-network.aspx>

State	PFAS Analyte(s)	Guideline Level (ug/L)	Toxicity Data	Critical Effect Study	Endpoint	RSC (%)	POD	HED (mg/kg/day)	UFs						RfD (mg/kg/day)	Drinking Water Intake Rate (L/day unless otherwise specified)	Exposure assumptions	Target Populations	Resources & Notes					
									Total	Interspecies	Intraspecies	LOAEL to NOAEL	Database Limitation	Duration of Exposure (i.e., Subchronic to Chronic)						Sensitive Developmental Endpoints/ Subpopulations	Modifying Factor			
MA	PFOS, PFOA, PFNA, PFHpA, PFHxS, PFDA	0.020*	Animals	Multiple	Based on multiple endpoints and evidence of effects below EPA PODs for PFOA and PFOS; including: immunotoxicity, hepatotoxicity, thyroid effects, developmental effects.	20; to account for dietary and other exposures to PFAS subgroup addressed as well as potentially higher infant exposures.	NOAEL for PFOS, LOAEL for PFOA, equivalent to EPA values.	Equivalent to EPA values for PFOA and PFOS	1000 for PFOA, 100 for PFOS	3		10			10 for PFOA	3 for both PFOA and PFOS				5x10 ⁻⁶ based on PFOS and PFOA value, which is applied to subgroup based on similarity in chemical structures, toxicities, long serum half-lives.	0.054 L/kg/day (same as EPA value used in LHA derivation)	Body weight and water intake of lactating women (same as EPA value used in LHA derivation)	Lactating and pregnant women; fetus; nursing infants	https://www.mass.gov/lists/development-of-a-pfas-drinking-water-standard-mcl
MI	PFOA	0.008	Animals (mice)	Onishchenko et al., 2011 and Koskela et al., 2016	Neurobehavioral effects and skeletal alterations	50	LOAEL		300	3	10	3	3	1					95th percentile, 50% RSC				https://dtmb.state.mi.us/AR_S_Public/Transaction/RFRTransaction?TransactionID=29	
	PFOS	0.016	Animals (mice)	Dong et al., 2009	Immunotoxicity and Hepatotoxicity	50	NOAEL		30	3	10	1	1	1					95th percentile, 50% RSC					
	PFNA	0.006	Animals (mice)	Das et al., 2015	Reduced pup body weight	50	NOAEL		300	3	10	1	10	1					95th percentile, 50% RSC					
	PFHxA	400	Animals (rats)	Klaunig et al., 2015	Renal effects	20	BMDL		300	3	10	1	10	1					95th percentile, 20% RSC					
	PFHxS	0.051	Animals (rats)	NTP 2018 Tox-96 Report	Thyroid effects	50	BMDL		300	3	10	1	10	1					95th percentile, 50% RSC					
	PFBS	0.42	Animals (mice)	Feng et al., 2017	Thyroid effects	20	BMDL		300	3	10	1	10	1					95th percentile, 20% RSC					
	Gen X	0.37	Animals (mice)	DuPont 18405-1037, 2010	Reduced pup body weight, Hepatotoxicity	20	BMDL		300	3	10	1	3	3					95th percentile, 20% RSC					
	PFOA (GSI for drinking water source)	0.42	Animals (primates)	Butenhoff et al., 2002	Hepatotoxicity	n/a	LOAEL		3000	3	10	10		10					1.53x10 ⁻⁵	2			https://www.michigan.gov/egle/0,9429,7-135-3311_4109-251790--,00.html	
	PFOA (GSI)	12	Animals (primates)	Butenhoff et al., 2002	Hepatotoxicity	n/a	LOAEL		3000	3	10	10		10					1.53x10 ⁻⁵	0.01				
	PFOS (GSI for drinking water source)	0.011	Animals (primates)	Seacat et al., 2002	Decreased body weight, hepatotoxicity, thyroid toxicity	n/a	NOAEL		30	3	10								1.3667x10 ⁻⁵	2				
	PFOS (GSI)	0.012	Animals (primates)	Seacat et al., 2002	Decreased body weight, hepatotoxicity, thyroid toxicity	n/a	NOAEL		30	3	10								1.3367x10 ⁻⁵	0.01				
MN	PFOA (Short-term, Subchronic and chronic)	0.035	Animals (mice)	Lau et al., 2006	Developmental and liver effects, kidney effects, Immunotoxicity	50	38 mg/L serum concentration	0.0053	300	3	10	3	3						1.8x10 ⁻⁵	95th percentile	Half-life 840 days; placental transfer 87%, 5.2% breastmilk transfer	Fetus and Breastfeeding Infants	https://www.health.state.mn.us/communities/environment/risk/docs/guidance/gw/pfoa.pdf	
	PFOS (Short-term, Subchronic and chronic)	0.015	Animals (mice)	Dong et al., 2011	Immunotoxicity, adrenal, developmental effects, liver effects, thyroid effects	20 for older children and adults, 50 for infants/ young children	2.36 mg/L serum concentration	0.000307	100	3	10		3						3.1x10 ⁻⁶	95th percentile	Half-life 1241 days; placental transfer 40%; 1.7% breastmilk transfer	Fetus and Breastfeeding Infants	https://www.health.state.mn.us/communities/environment/risk/docs/guidance/gw/pfos.pdf	

State	PFAS Analyte(s)	Guideline Level (ug/L)	Toxicity Data	Critical Effect Study	Endpoint	RSC (%)	POD	HED (mg/kg/day)	UFs							RfD (mg/kg/day)	Drinking Water Intake Rate (L/day unless otherwise specified)	Exposure assumptions	Target Populations	Resources & Notes			
									Total	Interspecies	Intraspecies	LOAEL to NOAEL	Database Limitation	Duration of Exposure (i.e., Subchronic to Chronic)	Sensitive Developmental Endpoints/ Subpopulations						Modifying Factor		
MN	PFBA (Short-term, Subchronic and chronic)	7	Animals (rats)	NOTOX, 2007 and Butenhoff, 2007	Liver effects, Thyroid effects	50	3.01 mg/kg/day	0.38	100	3	10		3						3.8x10 ⁻³	95th percentile	Half-life 72 hrs; placental transfer ND; breastmilk transfer ND	Infants and Adults	https://www.health.state.mn.us/communities/environment/risk/docs/guidance/gw/pfba2summ.pdf
	PFBS (Short-term and Subchronic)	3	Animals (mice)	Feng, 2017	Developmental effects, Thyroid effects, Reproduction	50	50 mg/kg/day	0.158	100	3	10		3						1.6x10 ⁻³	95th percentile	Half-life 665 hrs; placental transfer ND; breastmilk transfer ND	Infants and Adults	https://www.health.state.mn.us/communities/environment/risk/docs/guidance/gw/pfbssummary.pdf
	PFBS (Chronic)	2	Animals (rats)	Lieder, 2009 and York, 2003	Kidney	20	45 mg/kg/day	0.129	300	3	10		3	3					4.3x10 ⁻⁴	95th percentile	Half-life 665 hrs; placental transfer ND; breastmilk transfer ND	General Population	https://www.health.state.mn.us/communities/environment/risk/docs/guidance/gw/pfbssummary.pdf
	PFHxS (Short-term, Subchronic and chronic)	0.047	Animals (rats)	NTP, 2018	Thyroid effects, Liver effects	20 for older children and adults, 50 for infants/ young children	32.4 mg/L	0.00292	300	3	10		10						9.7x10 ⁻⁶	95th percentile	Half-life 1935 days; placental transfer 70%; breastmilk transfer 1.4%	Fetus and Breastfeeding Infants	https://www.health.state.mn.us/communities/environment/risk/docs/guidance/gw/pfhs.pdf
NC	PFOA	2	Animals (rats)	York et al., 2002, Butenhoff et al., 2004	Reduced pup body weight	20	LOAEL		3000	10	10	10	3	1						Assumed body weight and water consumption of adult	Daily exposure to human population	Adults	
NH	PFOA	0.012	Animal (mice)	Loveless et al., 2007	Hepatotoxicity	50	BMDL10		100	3	10		3						95th percentile	MDH Model	Fetus and Breastfeeding Infants		
	PFOS	0.015	Animal (mice)	Dong et al., 2011	Immunosuppression	50	NOAEL		100	3	10		3						95th percentile	MDH Model	Fetus and Breastfeeding Infants		
	PFNA	0.011	Animal (mice)	Das et al., 2015	Hepatotoxicity	50	BMDL10		100	3	10		3						95th percentile	MDH Model	Fetus and Breastfeeding Infants		
	PFHxS	0.018	Animal (mice)	Chang et al., 2018 and Ali et al.	Infertility	50	BMDLSD (under peer review)		300	3	10		3	3					95th percentile	MDH Model	Fetus and Breastfeeding Infants		
NJ	PFOA	0.014	Animals (mice)	Loveless et al., 2006	Hepatotoxicity	20	BMDL		30	3	10									2 (70 kg body wt)		Infants	Note: MCLs for PFOA, PFOS, and PFNA are also used as Groundwater Quality Standards.
	PFOS	0.013	Animals (mice)	Dong et al., 2009	Immunotoxicity	20	NOAEL		30	3	10									2 (70 kg body wt)		Infants	Note: MCLs for PFOA, PFOS, and PFNA are also used as Groundwater Quality Standards.
	PFNA	0.013	Animals (mice)	Das et al., 2015	Hepatotoxicity	50	BMDL		1000	3	10		3	10	3					200:1 serum: drinking water ratio			Note: MCLs for PFOA, PFOS, and PFNA are also used as Groundwater Quality Standards.

State	PFAS Analyte(s)	Guideline Level (ug/L)	Toxicity Data	Critical Effect Study	Endpoint	RSC (%)	POD	HED (mg/kg/day)	UFs							RfD (mg/kg/day)	Drinking Water Intake Rate (L/day unless otherwise specified)	Exposure assumptions	Target Populations	Resources & Notes
									Total	Interspecies	Intraspecies	LOAEL to NOAEL	Database Limitation	Duration of Exposure (i.e., Subchronic to Chronic)	Sensitive Developmental Endpoints/ Subpopulations					
NM	PFOA	0.07*																		
	PFOS	0.07*																		
	PFHxS	0.07*																		
NY	PFOA	0.01																		
	PFOS	0.01																		
TX	PFBA	71	Animals (mice)	MDH	Hepatotoxicity		NOAEL (6.9 mg/kg/d)	2400	1	10		10	3			2.9x10 ⁻³				Note: oral dose, 0.5 acre source area) (Res GWGWing PCLs) https://www.tceq.texas.gov/assets/public/implementation/tox/evaluations/pfcs.pdf
	PFBuS	34	Animals (mice)	Leider et al., 2009, York et al., 2002	Systemic Toxicity		NOAEL (60 mg/kg/d)	42600	1	10		10	3			1.4x10 ⁻³				
	PFPeA	0.093	Animals (mice)	Surrogate: PFHxS	Hematotoxicity		NOAEL (0.3 mg/kg/d)	78900	1	10	3	10				3.8x10 ⁻⁶				
	PFHxS	0.093	Animals (mice)	Hoberman and York, 2003	Hematotoxicity		NOAEL (0.3 mg/kg/d)	78900	1	10	3	10				3.8x10 ⁻⁶				
	PFHxA	0.093	Animals (mice)	Surrogate: PFHxS	Hematotoxicity		NOAEL (0.3 mg/kg/d)	78900	1	10	3	10				3.8x10 ⁻⁶				
	PFHpA	0.56	Animals (mice)	Surrogate: PFOS	Neurodevelopment		NOAEL (0.6 mg/kg/d)	26300	1	10	10	1				2.3x10 ⁻⁵				
	PFOS	0.56	Animals (mice)	Zeng et al., 2011	Neurodevelopment		NOAEL (0.6 mg/kg/d)	26300	1	10	10	1				2.3x10 ⁻⁵				
	PFOA	0.29	Animals (mice)	Macon et al., 2011	Mammary gland development		NOAEL (0.3 mg/kg/d)	24300	1	10	30	1				1.2x10 ⁻⁵				
	PFOSA	0.29	Animals (mice)	Surrogate: PFOA	Mammary gland development		NOAEL (0.3 mg/kg/d)	24300	1	10	30	1				1.2x10 ⁻⁵				
	PFNA	0.29	Animals (mice)	Fang et al., 2010	Spleen Cell Death		NOAEL (1 mg/kg/d)	81000	1	10		10	10			1.2x10 ⁻⁵				
	PFDeA	0.37	Animals (mice)	Kawashima et al., 1995	Hepatotoxicity		NOAEL (1.2 mg/kg/d)	81000	1	10		10	10			1.5x10 ⁻⁵				
	PFDS	0.29	Animals (mice)	Surrogate: PFDoA	Reduced Body Weight		NOAEL (1 mg/kg/d)	81000	1	10		10	10			1.2x10 ⁻⁵				
	PFUA	0.29	Animals (mice)	Surrogate: PFDoA	Reduced Body Weight		NOAEL (1 mg/kg/d)	81000	1	10		10	10			1.2x10 ⁻⁵				
	PFDoA	0.29	Animals (mice)	Shi et al., 2007	Reduced Body Weight		NOAEL (1 mg/kg/d)	81000	1	10		10	10			1.2x10 ⁻⁵				
	PFTrDA	0.29	Animals (mice)	Surrogate: PFDoA	Reduced Body Weight		NOAEL (1 mg/kg/d)	81000	1	10		10	10			1.2x10 ⁻⁵				
PFTeDA	0.29	Animals (mice)	Surrogate: PFDoA	Reduced Body Weight		NOAEL (1 mg/kg/d)	81000	1	10		10	10			1.2x10 ⁻⁵					
VT	PFOA, PFOS, PFHxS, PFHpA, PFNA	0.02*	Animals (mice)	EPA (2016)	EPA (2016)	20	EPA (2016)	EPA (2016)								0.175 L/kg/day		0-1 year old		

State	PFAS Analyte(s)	Guideline Level (ug/L)	Toxicity Data	Critical Effect Study	Endpoint	RSC (%)	POD	HED (mg/kg/day)	UFs							RfD (mg/kg/day)	Drinking Water Intake Rate (L/day unless otherwise specified)	Exposure assumptions	Target Populations	Resources & Notes
									Total	Interspecies	Intraspecies	LOAEL to NOAEL	Database Limitation	Duration of Exposure (i.e., Subchronic to Chronic)	Sensitive Developmental Endpoints/ Subpopulations					
WI	PFOA	0.02 (combined)*	Animals (mice)	Lau et al., 2006	Developmental (reduced ossification)	100	LOAEL		300	10	3	10							https://www.dhs.wisconsin.gov/water/gws.htm	
	PFOS	0.02 (combined)*	Animals (mice)	Luebker et al., 2005	Reduced pup body weight	100	NOAEL		30	3	10						1 (10 kg body wt)	Gestation and infancy (including breastfeeding)		
	FOSA, NETFOSA, NETFOSAA, NETFOSE	0.02 (combined)*	PFOA and PFOS Precursor		Combined standard for PFOS, PFOA, FOSA, NETFOSE, NETFOSA, and NETFOSAA	100											Combined		https://www.dhs.wisconsin.gov/water/gws-cycle11.htm	
	PFTeA	10	Animals (rats)	Hirata-Koizumi et al., 2015	Body weight	100	NOAEL (1 mg/kg/day)		1000	10	10	1	10	1	1		0.001	1	https://www.dhs.wisconsin.gov/water/gws-cycle11.htm	
	PFHxA	150	Animals (rats)	Klaunig, 2015	Clinical effects	100	NOAEL (15 mg/kg/day)		1000	10	10	1	10	1	1		0.015	1	https://www.dhs.wisconsin.gov/water/gws-cycle11.htm	
	PFUnA	3	Animals (rats)	Takahashi et al., 2014	Body weight	100	NOAEL (0.3 mg/kg/day)		1000	10	10	1	10	1	1		0.0003	1	https://www.dhs.wisconsin.gov/water/gws-cycle11.htm	
	PFDoA	0.5	Animals (rats)	Shi, 2009	Body weight and testosterone levels	100	NOAEL (0.05 mg/kg/day)		1000	10	10	1	10	1	1		5x10 ⁻⁵	1	https://www.dhs.wisconsin.gov/water/gws-cycle11.htm	
	PFBA	10	Animals (rats)	van Otterdyk, Buttenhof 2012b	Hemotoxicity, hepatotoxicity, and thyroid toxicity	100	BMDL (MN) (3 mg/kg/day)		3000	10	10	1	10	3	1		0.001	1	https://www.dhs.wisconsin.gov/water/gws-cycle11.htm	
	PFBS	450	Animals (rats)	Lieder, 2009b	Nephrotoxicity	100	BMDL (MN) (45 mg/kg/day)		1000	10	10	1	10	1	1		0.045	1	https://www.dhs.wisconsin.gov/water/gws-cycle11.htm	
	PFNA	0.03	Animals (mice)	Das, 2015	Reproductive toxicity	100	NOAEL (1 mg/kg/day)	0.0011	300	3	10	1	1	1	10		3x10 ⁻⁶	1	https://www.dhs.wisconsin.gov/water/gws-cycle11.htm	
	PFDA	0.3	Animals (mice)	Harris and Birnbaum 1989	Developmental (Fetal growth)	100	NOAEL (0.03 mg/kg/day)		1000	10	10	1	10	1	1		3x10 ⁻⁵	1	https://www.dhs.wisconsin.gov/water/gws-cycle11.htm	
	PFHxS	0.04	Animals (rats)	Cheng, 2018	Developmental and reproductive toxicity (Maternal and fetal growth)	100	NOAEL (0.3 mg/kg/day)		300	3	10	1	10	1	1		4x10 ⁻⁶	1	https://www.dhs.wisconsin.gov/water/gws-cycle11.htm	
	PFODA	0.4	Animals (rats)	Hirata-Koizumi, 2012	Body weight	100	NOAEL (40 mg/kg/day)		1000	10	10	1	10	1	1		0.04	1	https://www.dhs.wisconsin.gov/water/gws-cycle11.htm	
	Gen X	0.3	Animals (mice)	Dupont, 2010b	Nephrotoxicity and hepatotoxicity	100	NOAEL (0.1 mg/kg/day)		3000	10	10	1	10	3	1		3x10 ⁻⁵	1	https://www.dhs.wisconsin.gov/water/gws-cycle11.htm	
	DONA	3	Animals (rats)	Gordon, 2011	Hemotoxicity and hepatotoxicity	100	NOAEL (1 mg/kg/day)		3000	10	10	1	10	3	1		0.0003	1	https://www.dhs.wisconsin.gov/water/gws-cycle11.htm	

*= Advisory level is based on the total of more than one PFAS

Appendix C: State Surface Water PFAS Guideline Criteria

State	PFAS Analyte(s)	Guideline Level (ug/L)	Toxicity Data	Critical Effect Study	Endpoint	POD	UFs					RfD (mg/kg/day)	Drinking Water Intake Rate (L/day)	Resources & Notes	
							Total	Interspecies	Intraspecies	LOAEL to NOAEL	Duration of Exposure (i.e., Subchronic to Chronic)				
CO	PFBS	400	Animals (mice)	EPA RSL	EPA RSL	EPA RSL	EPA RSL					EPA RSL	EPA RSL		
	PFHxS	0.7	Animals (mice)												
FL	PFOA	0.5										2×10^{-5}		Screening levels derived through a Probabilistic Risk Assessment https://floridadep.gov/sites/default/files/PFOA_PFOS_Human_Health_Surface_Water_Prob_Risk_Assessment.pdf	
	PFOS	0.01										2×10^{-5}		Screening levels derived through a Probabilistic Risk Assessment https://floridadep.gov/sites/default/files/PFOA_PFOS_Human_Health_Surface_Water_Prob_Risk_Assessment.pdf	
MI	PFOA (drinking water source)	0.42	Animals (primates)	Butenhoff et al., 2002	Hepatotoxicity	LOAEL	3000	3	10	10	10	2×10^{-5}	2	https://www.michigan.gov/egle/0,9429,7-135-3313_3681_3686_3728-11383--,00.html	
	PFOA	12	Animals (primates)	Butenhoff et al., 2002	Hepatotoxicity	LOAEL	3000	3	10	10	10	2×10^{-5}	0.01		
	PFOS (drinking water source)	0.011	Animals (primates)	Seacat et al., 2002	Decreased body weight, hepatotoxicity, thyroid toxicity	NOAEL	30	3	10			1.3667×10^{-5}	2		
	PFOS	0.012	Animals (primates)	Seacat et al., 2002	Decreased body weight, hepatotoxicity, thyroid toxicity	NOAEL	30	3	10			1.3667×10^{-5} mg/kg/day	0.01		
MN	PFOS (in fish tissue and surface water)	0.37 nanograms per gram (fish tissue), 0.00005 ug/L	Animals (mice)	Dong et al., 2011	Immunotoxicity, adrenal, developmental effects, liver effects, thyroid effects	2.36 mg/L serum concentration	100		3	10			3.1×10^{-6}	95th percentile	For this standard, MN used a relative source contribution of 0.2, a fish consumption rate of 66 grams/70 kilograms, and a bioaccumulation factor of 7210 liters/kilogram for the water based standard. For more info: MPCA Water Quality Standards/ site-specific Water Quality Criteria: https://www.pca.state.mn.us/water/site-specific-water-quality-criteria
	PFOA, PFHxS, PFBA, and PFBS (in development - see notes).													MN is updating its surface water criteria for PFOA; the existing value is outdated and should not be used. MN is also developing new criteria PFHxS, PFBA, and PFBS. These criteria are expected to be available in mid- to late 2021. Note that these are site-specific criteria for the protection of human health (fish consumption and recreation).	

State	PFAS Analyte(s)	Guideline Level (ug/L)	Toxicity Data	Critical Effect Study	Endpoint	POD	UFs					RfD (mg/kg/day)	Drinking Water Intake Rate (L/day)	Resources & Notes
							Total	Interspecies	Intraspecies	LOAEL to NOAEL	Duration of Exposure (i.e., Subchronic to Chronic)			
NM	PFOA, PFOS	0.07*												
	HFPO-DA, NEtFOSAA, NMeFOSAA, PFBS, PFDA, PFDoA, PFHpA, PFHxS, PFHxA, PFNA, PFTA, PFTTrDA, PFUnA, 11 C1-PF3OUdS, 9C1-PF3ONS, ADONA													Coverage under EPA's 2021 MSGP in NM requires monitoring and analyzing for 18 PFAS compounds using modified EPA Method 537.1. Only PFOA + PFOS are used for screening.
OR	PFOA	24												Note: The Oregon wastewater initiation levels were adopted into rule (OAR 340-045-0100, Table A) in 2011. The PFAS are 5 chemicals on a list of 118 persistent priority pollutants for water that Oregon DEQ developed in response to state legislation. Municipal wastewater
	PFOS	300												
	PFNA	1												
	PFOSA	0.2												
	PFHpA	300												

*= Advisory level is based on the total of more than one PFAS

State	PFAS Analyte(s)	Guideline Level (mg/kg, unless otherwise specified)	Toxicity Data	Critical Effect Study	Endpoint	RSC (%)	POD	UFs						RfD (mg/kg/day)	Drinking Water Intake Rate (L/day unless otherwise specified)	Exposure assumptions	Target Populations	Resources & Notes
								Total	Interspecies	Intraspecies	LOAEL to NOAEL	Database Limitation	Duration of Exposure (i.e., Subchronic to Chronic)					
MI	PFOA	10	Animals (primates)	Butenhoff et al., 2002	Hepatotoxicity		LOAEL (3 mg/kg/day)	3000	3	10	10		10		2x10 ⁻⁵	0.01		https://www.michigan.gov/egle/0,9429,7-135-3311_4109-251790--,00.html
	PFOA (drinking water source)	0.35	Animals (primates)	Butenhoff et al., 2002	Hepatotoxicity		LOAEL (3 mg/kg/day)	3000	3	10	10		10		2x10 ⁻⁵	2		https://www.michigan.gov/egle/0,9429,7-135-3311_4109-251790--,00.html
	PFOS	0.00024	Animals (primates)	Seacat et al., 2002	Decreased body weight, hepatotoxicity, thyroid toxicity		NOAEL (0.03 mg/kg/day)	30	3	10					1.3667x10 ⁻⁵	0.01		https://www.michigan.gov/egle/0,9429,7-135-3311_4109-251790--,00.html
	PFOS (drinking water source)	0.00022	Animals (primates)	Seacat et al., 2002	Decreased body weight, hepatotoxicity, thyroid toxicity		NOAEL (0.03 mg/kg/day)	30	3	10					1.3667x10 ⁻⁵	2		https://www.michigan.gov/egle/0,9429,7-135-3311_4109-251790--,00.html
MN	PFOA	0.24, 3.2 (ug/kg)	Animals (mice)	Numerous	Hepatotoxicity, Kidney Effects, Immunotoxicity, Developmental Effects	0.2 (combined HQ/ RSC)	38 mg/L serum concentration	300	3	10	3	3			1.8x10 ⁻⁵		Resident, Industrial	Children, adults https://www.pca.state.mn.us/waste/risk-based-site-evaluation-guidance
	PFOS	0.041, 0.56 (ug/kg)	Animals (mice)	Numerous	Hepatotoxicity, Thyroid effects, Immunotoxicity, Developmental Effects	0.2 (combined HQ/ RSC)	2.36 ug/L serum concentration	100	3	10		3			3.1x10 ⁻⁶		Resident, Industrial	Children, adults https://www.pca.state.mn.us/waste/risk-based-site-evaluation-guidance
	PFBA	38, 520 (ug/kg)	Animals (rats)	Numerous	Hepatotoxicity, Thyroid Effects	0.2 (combined HQ/ RSC)	6.9 mg/kg/day	300	3	10		10			2.9x10 ⁻³		Resident, Industrial	Children, adults https://www.pca.state.mn.us/waste/risk-based-site-evaluation-guidance
	PFBS	5.7, 77 (ug/kg)	Animals (mice)	Numerous	Developmental effects, Thyroid effects, Reproduction	0.2 (combined HQ/ RSC)	60 mg/kg/day	300	3	10		3	3		1.4x10 ⁻³		Resident, Industrial	Children, adults https://www.pca.state.mn.us/waste/risk-based-site-evaluation-guidance
	PFHxS	0.13, 1.7 (ug/kg)	Animals (rats)	Numerous	Hepatotoxicity, Thyroid Effects	0.2 (combined HQ/ RSC)	32.4 ug/mL	300	3	10		10			9.7x10 ⁻⁶		Resident, Industrial	Children, adults https://www.pca.state.mn.us/waste/risk-based-site-evaluation-guidance
NH	PFOA	0.2 (residential), 1.3 (maintenance worker)				0.2									6.1x10 ⁻⁶		Residential (young child), Maintenance worker (outdoor)	https://www4.des.state.nh.us/nh-pfas-investigation/wp-content/uploads/PFAS-DCRB-value-121119.pdf
	PFOS	0.1 (residential), 0.6 (maintenance worker)				0.2									3x10 ⁻⁶		Residential (young child), Maintenance worker (outdoor)	https://www4.des.state.nh.us/nh-pfas-investigation/wp-content/uploads/PFAS-DCRB-value-121119.pdf

State	PFAS Analyte(s)	Guideline Level (mg/kg, unless otherwise specified)	Toxicity Data	Critical Effect Study	Endpoint	RSC (%)	POD	UFs						RfD (mg/kg/day)	Drinking Water Intake Rate (L/day unless otherwise specified)	Exposure assumptions	Target Populations	Resources & Notes
								Total	Interspecies	Intraspecies	LOAEL to NOAEL	Database Limitation	Duration of Exposure (i.e., Subchronic to Chronic)					
NH	PFHxS	0.1 (residential), 0.9 (maintenance worker)				0.2								4x10 ⁻⁶		Residential (young child), Maintenance worker (outdoor)	https://www4.des.state.nh.us/nh-pfas-investigation/wp-content/uploads/PFAS-DCRB-value-121119.pdf	
	PFNA	0.1 (residential), 0.9 (maintenance worker)				0.2								4.3x10 ⁻⁶		Residential (young child), Maintenance worker (outdoor)	https://www4.des.state.nh.us/nh-pfas-investigation/wp-content/uploads/PFAS-DCRB-value-121119.pdf	
NM	PFOS	1.56 (residential) 26.0 (industrial) 7.08 (construction)															20.6.2.4103.A of the New Mexico Administrative Code, implemented in conjunction with NMED's 2019 Risk Assessment Guidance	
	PFOA	1.56 (residential) 26.0 (industrial) 7.08 (construction)																
	PFHxS	1.56 (residential) 26.0 (industrial) 7.08 (construction)																
NY	PFOA	0.66 ug/kg (unrestricted), 6.6 ug/kg (residential), 33 ug/kg (restricted residential), 500 ug/kg (commercial), 600 ug/kg (industrial), 1.1 ug/kg (protection of groundwater)																
	PFOS	0.88 ug/kg (unrestricted), 8.8 ug/kg (residential), 44 ug/kg (restricted residential), 440 ug/kg (commercial), 440 ug/kg (industrial), 3.7 ug/kg (protection of groundwater)																
TX	PFBA	0.2	Animals (mice)	MDH	Hepatotoxicity		NOAEL (6.9 mg/kg/d)	2400	1	10				2.9x10 ⁻³			Note: oral dose, 0.5 acre source area) (Res GWSoiling PCLs) https://www.tceq.texas.gov/assets/public/implementation/tox/evaluations/pfcs.pdf	

State	PFAS Analyte(s)	Guideline Level (mg/kg, unless otherwise specified)	Toxicity Data	Critical Effect Study	Endpoint	RSC (%)	POD	UFs						RfD (mg/kg/day)	Drinking Water Intake Rate (L/day unless otherwise specified)	Exposure assumptions	Target Populations	Resources & Notes
								Total	Interspecies	Intraspecies	LOEL to NOAEL	Database Limitation	Duration of Exposure (i.e., Subchronic to Chronic)					
TX	PFBuS	0.11	Animals (mice)	Leider et al., 2009, York et al., 2002	Systemic Toxicity		NOAEL (60 mg/kg/d)	42600	1	10		10	3		1.4x10 ⁻³			
	PFPeA	0.00032	Animals (mice)	Surrogate: PFHxS	Hematotoxicity		NOAEL (0.3 mg/kg/d)	78900	1	10	3	10			3.8x10 ⁻⁶			
	PFHxS	0.002	Animals (mice)	Hoberman and York, 2003	Hematotoxicity		NOAEL (0.3 mg/kg/d)	78900	1	10	3	10			3.8x10 ⁻⁶			
	PFHxA	0.00048	Animals (mice)	Surrogate: PFHxS	Hematotoxicity		NOAEL (0.3 mg/kg/d)	78900	1	10	3	10			3.8x10 ⁻⁶			
	PFHpA	0.0046	Animals (mice)	Surrogate: PFOS	Neurodevelopment		NOAEL (0.6 mg/kg/d)	26300	1	10	10	1			2.3x10 ⁻⁵			
	PFOS	0.05	Animals (mice)	Zeng et al., 2011	Neurodevelopment		NOAEL (0.6 mg/kg/d)	26300	1	10	10	1			2.3x10 ⁻⁵			
	PFOA	0.003	Animals (mice)	Macon et al., 2011	Mammary gland development		NOAEL (0.3 mg/kg/d)	24300	1	10	30	1			1.2x10 ⁻⁵			
	PFOSA	0.92	Animals (mice)	Surrogate: PFOA	Mammary gland development		NOAEL (0.3 mg/kg/d)	24300	1	10	30	1			1.2x10 ⁻⁵			
	PFNA	0.0031	Animals (mice)	Fang et al., 2010	Spleen Cell Death		NOAEL (1 mg/kg/d)	81000	1	10		10	10		1.2x10 ⁻⁵			
	PFDeA	0.022	Animals (mice)	Kawashima et al., 1995	Hepatotoxicity		NOAEL (1.2 mg/kg/d)	81000	1	10		10	10		1.5x10 ⁻⁵			
	PFDS	0.04	Animals (mice)	Surrogate: PFDoA	Reduced Body Weight		NOAEL (1 mg/kg/d)	81000	1	10		10	10		1.2x10 ⁻⁵			
	PFUA	0.018	Animals (mice)	Surrogate: PFDoA	Reduced Body Weight		NOAEL (1 mg/kg/d)	81000	1	10		10	10		1.2x10 ⁻⁵			
	PFDoA	0.034	Animals (mice)	Shi et al., 2007	Reduced Body Weight		NOAEL (1 mg/kg/d)	81000	1	10		10	10		1.2x10 ⁻⁵			
	PFTTrDA	0.061	Animals (mice)	Surrogate: PFDoA	Reduced Body Weight		NOAEL (1 mg/kg/d)	81000	1	10		10	10		1.2x10 ⁻⁵			
	PFTeDA	0.11	Animals (mice)	Surrogate: PFDoA	Reduced Body Weight		NOAEL (1 mg/kg/d)	81000	1	10		10	10		1.2x10 ⁻⁵			
VT	PFOA, PFOS, PFHxS, PFHpA, PFNA	1.22*	Animals (mice)	EPA (2016)	EPA (2016)	20	EPA (2016)	EPA (2016)							0.175 L/kg/day			

State	PFAS Analyte(s)	Guideline Level (mg/kg, unless otherwise specified)	Toxicity Data	Critical Effect Study	Endpoint	RSC (%)	POD	UFs					RfD (mg/kg/day)	Drinking Water Intake Rate (L/day unless otherwise specified)	Exposure assumptions	Target Populations	Resources & Notes
								Total	Interspecies	Intraspecies	LOEL to NOAEL	Database Limitation					
WI	PFOA	1.26 (residential), 16.4 (composite [industrial] worker)		EPA RSL Tables									2x10 ⁻⁵		Vary through life (residential), 80 kg wt, 100 mg/day intake (composite worker) THQ=1, cancer risk 1x10 ⁻⁶ , other default assumptions	Residential, Composite Worker	EPA RSL calculator
	PFOS	1.26 (residential), 16.4 (composite [industrial] worker)		EPA RSL Tables									2x10 ⁻⁵		Vary through life (residential), 80 kg wt, 100 mg/day intake (composite worker) THQ=1, cancer risk 1x10 ⁻⁶ , other default assumptions	Residential, Composite Worker	EPA RSL calculator
	PFBS	1260 (residential), 16400 (composite [industrial] worker)		EPA RSL Tables									2x10 ⁻²		Vary through life (residential), 80 kg wt, 100 mg/day intake (composite worker) THQ=1, cancer risk 1x10 ⁻⁶ , other default assumptions	Residential, Composite Worker	EPA RSL calculator

*= Advisory level is based on the total of more than one PFAS

Appendix E: State Air PFAS Guideline Criteria

State	PFAS Analyte(s)	Guideline Level ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	Toxicity Data	Critical Effect Study	Endpoint	POD	HED (mg/kg/day)	UFs					RfD (mg/kg/day)	Route-to-Route Extrapolation	Exposure Parameters	Target Populations	Resources		
								Total	Interspecies	Intraspecies	LOEL to NOAEL	Database Limitation						Duration of Exposure (i.e., Subchronic to Chronic)	
MI	PFOA (initial threshold screening level; ITSL)	0.07	Animals (mice)	EPA, 2016; Butenhoff et al., 2004; Lau, 2006	Acute, Reproductive/Developmental		0.0053; 0.0064	300	3	10	10			2 generations +developmental	2×10^{-5}	Air Value (ITSL) = RfD x 70kg/20m ³	Continuous over time period= 24 hours	Sensitive individuals	http://www.deq.state.mi.us/aps/downloads/ATSL/335-67-1/335-67-1_24hr_ITSL.pdf
	PFOS (initial threshold screening level; ITSL)	0.07	Animals (rats)	EPA, 2016; Luebker et al., 2005	Acute, Reproductive/Developmental		0.00051	30	10	3				2 generations +developmental	2×10^{-5}	Air Value (ITSL) = RfD x 70kg/20m ³	Continuous over time period= 24 hours	Sensitive individuals	http://www.deq.state.mi.us/aps/downloads/ATSL/1763-23-1/1763-23-1_24hr_ITSL.pdf
	6:2 FTS	1	Animals (rats)	ECHA, 2020; Rat, subchronic, oral	Cardiac	NOAEL 5 mg/kg	1.18	3000	3	10		10	10	0.00039	Air Value (ITSL) = RfD x 70kg/20m ³	Continuous over time period= annual (chronic)	Sensitive individuals	http://www.deq.state.mi.us/aps/downloads/ATSL/27619-97-2/	
NH	APFO (CAS #3825-26-1; 24-hr Ambient Air Limit)	Regulatory Level 0.05	Animals (rats)	ACGIH TLV	Acute, Reproductive/Developmental														
	APFO (CAS #3825-26-1; Annual Ambient Air Limit)	Regulatory Level 0.024	Animals (rats)	ACGIH TLV	Acute, Reproductive/Developmental														
TX	PFOA (ESL) (CAS #335-67-1; based on annual average)	0.005		Republic of Germany DFG Maximum Concentration at the Workplace				1000									Occupational Exposure Limit		
	PFOS (ESL) (CAS #1763-23-1; based on annual average)	0.01		Republic of Germany DFG Maximum Concentration at the Workplace				100									Occupational Exposure Limit		

*= Advisory level is based on the total of more than one PFAS

Appendix F: State Fish and Wildlife Consumption PFAS Guideline Criteria

State	Media	PFAS Analyte(s)	Guideline Level (unit specified)	Frequency	Target Populations	Resources & Notes
CT	Fish	PFOA, PFOS	<20 ppb	No consumption advice	General Population	
	Fish	PFOA, PFOS	20 to <40 ppb	1 meal per week	General Population	
	Fish	PFOA, PFOS	40 to <159 ppb	1 meal per month	General Population	
	Fish	PFOA, PFOS	≥159 ppb	Do Not Eat	General Population	
ME	Fish	PFOA	0.052 mg/kg			
	Fish	PFOS	0.052 mg/kg			
	Fish	PFBS	52 mg/kg			
	Milk	PFOS	210 ug/L			
	Beef	PFOS	3.4 ng/g			
MI	Fish	PFOS	≤9 ppb	16 meals per month	All Populations	
	Fish	PFOS	>9-13 ppb	12 meals per month	All Populations	
	Fish	PFOS	>13-19 ppb	8 meals per month	All Populations	
	Fish	PFOS	>19-38 ppb	4 meals per month	All Populations	
	Fish	PFOS	>38-75	2 meals per month	All Populations	
	Fish	PFOS	>75-150	1 meal per month	All Populations	
	Fish	PFOS	>150-300	6 meals per year	All Populations	
	Fish	PFOS	>300 ppb	Do Not Eat	All Populations	
	Deer	PFOS	>300 ppb	Do Not Eat	All Populations	
MN	Fish	PFOS	>10-20 ppb	2 meals per week	All Populations	
	Fish	PFOS	>20-50 ppb	1 meal per week	All Populations	
	Fish	PFOS	>50-200 ppb	1 meal per month	All Populations	
	Fish	PFOS	>200 ppb	Do Not Eat	All Populations	
NJ	Fish	PFOS	0.56 ng/g; ppb	Unlimited (based on daily)	General Population and High Risk Population	
	Fish	PFOS	3.9 ng/g; ppb	1 meal per week	General Population and High Risk Population	
	Fish	PFOS	17 ng/g; ppb	1 meal per month	General Population and High Risk Population	
	Fish	PFOS	>17 ng/g; ppb	Do Not Eat	High Risk Population	
	Fish	PFOS	51 ng/g; ppb	1 meal every 3 months	General Population	
	Fish	PFOS	204 ng/g; ppb	1 meal per year	General Population	
	Fish	PFOS	>204 ng/g; ppb	Do Not Eat	General Population	

State	Media	PFAS Analyte(s)	Guideline Level (unit specified)	Frequency	Target Populations	Resources & Notes
NJ	Fish	PFNA	0.23 ng/g; ppb	Unlimited (based on daily)	General Population and High Risk Population	
	Fish	PFNA	1.6 ng/g; ppb	1 meal per week	General Population and High Risk Population	
	Fish	PFNA	6.9 ng/g; ppb	1 meal per month	General Population and High Risk Population	
	Fish	PFNA	>6.9 ng/g; ppb	Do Not Eat	High Risk Population	
	Fish	PFNA	21 ng/g; ppb	1 meal every 3 months	General Population	
	Fish	PFNA	84 ng/g; ppb	1 meal per year	General Population	
	Fish	PFNA	>84 ng/g; ppb	Do Not Eat	General Population	
	Fish	PFOA	0.62 ng/g; ppb	Unlimited (based on daily)	General Population and High Risk Population	
	Fish	PFOA	4.3 ng/g; ppb	1 meal per week	General Population and High Risk Population	
	Fish	PFOA	19 ng/g; ppb	1 meal per month	General Population and High Risk Population	
	Fish	PFOA	>19 ng/g; ppb	Do Not Eat	High Risk Population	
	Fish	PFOA	57 ng/g; ppb	1 meal every 3 months	General Population	
	Fish	PFOA	226 ng/g; ppb	1 meal per year	General Population	
	Fish	PFOA	>226 ng/g; ppb	Do Not Eat	General Population	
NY	Fish	PFOS	<50 ppb	4 meals per month	General Population	
	Fish	PFOS	>50-200 ppb	1 meal per month	General Population	
	Fish	PFOS	>50 ppb	Do Not Eat	Sensitive Population	
	Fish	PFOS	>200 ppb	Do Not Eat	General Population	
WA	Fish	PFOS	23 ng/g		General Population	In process
	Fish	PFOS	8 ng/g		High consumers	In process
WI	Fish	PFOS	>20-50 ppb	1 meal per week	All Populations	
	Fish	PFOS	>50-200 ppb	1 meal per month	All Populations	
	Fish	PFOS	>200 ppb	Do Not Eat	All Populations	
	Deer	PFOS	>20-50 ppb	1 meal per week	All Populations	Under Review
	Deer	PFOS	>50-200 ppb	1 meal per month	All Populations	Under Review
	Deer	PFOS	>200 ppb	Do Not Eat	All Populations	Under Review