FRACKING WITH “FOREVER CHEMICALS”

RECORDS INDICATE OIL AND GAS FIRMS INJECTED PFAS INTO MORE THAN 1,200 WELLS SINCE 2012; EPA APPROVED CHEMICAL FOR OIL AND GAS OPERATIONS DESPITE PFAS CONCERNS

BY DUSTY HORWITT, J.D.
PHYSICIANS FOR SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY
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Evidence suggests that oil and gas companies including ExxonMobil and Chevron have used per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS), or substances that can degrade into PFAS, in hydraulic fracturing (“fracking”) for oil and gas in more than 1,200 wells in six U.S. states between 2012 and 2020. The lack of full disclosure of chemicals used in oil and gas operations raises the potential that PFAS could have been used even more extensively than records indicate, both geographically and in other stages of the oil and gas extraction process, such as drilling, that precede the underground injections known as fracking. PFAS have been linked to cancer, birth defects, pre-eclampsia, and other serious health effects. Toxic in minuscule concentrations, they accumulate inside the human body and do not break down in the environment – hence their nickname, “forever chemicals.” PFAS were widely used for decades in non-stick cookware, stain-resistant carpeting, fire-fighting foam and other products before their highly toxic characteristics became public around the year 2000. Chemical manufacturers DuPont and 3M had known about these chemicals’ environmental and health risks as early as the 1960s and ‘70s but failed to sound the alarm.

Evidence related to the use of PFAS in oil and gas operations has not been previously publicized. The apparent use of PFAS in these operations adds an especially hazardous class of chemicals to the list of harmful substances associated with oil and gas extraction and is another potential route of exposure to PFAS. In recent years, a growing number of states have set limits on PFAS pollution in water as researchers have discovered hundreds of sites where PFAS from a variety of sources have polluted groundwater. In addition, fire departments are disposing of firefighting foam that contains PFAS. “Fire departments are scrambling to get rid of firefighting foam with PFAS in it because EPA says it’s toxic,” said Silverio Caggiano, who retired in June 2021 as Battalion Chief with the Youngstown, Ohio Fire Department and is a hazardous materials expert who has trained with fire-fighting foam that contains PFAS. “So if it’s too dangerous for us to use, why should oil and gas companies get to use it?”

Industry records indicating PFAS use in fracking in Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, New Mexico, Texas, and Wyoming came to light as part of Physicians for Social Responsibility’s investigation of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency’s review of three new chemicals proposed in 2010 for use in oil and gas drilling and/or fracking. According to records obtained under a Freedom of Information Act request, EPA regulators worried that the chemicals could break down into products similar to PFOA, the most infamous PFAS, whose use has been largely discontinued in the U.S as part of an agreement between chemical makers and EPA. The regulators were also concerned that the degradation products of the three chemicals could be associated with severe health effects including male reproductive toxicity and tumors.

Despite these concerns, EPA approved the chemicals for commercial use, and EPA records show that one of the chemicals was used commercially for unspecified purposes at least as late as 2018. Records further indicate that the chemical was initially imported for commercial use by Dupont, a company that has agreed to pay hundreds of
millions of dollars to settle injury claims related to PFOA pollution. EPA records included only a generic name for the chemical: fluorinated acrylic alkylamino copolymer. More specific identifiers were withheld as trade secrets.

PSR searched for the chemical in FracFocus, a database run by non-governmental organizations where companies operating in more than 20 states disclose well-by-well fracking chemical use. While we did not find the chemical with the name that EPA had approved, we did find other chemicals with related names that had been injected into more than 1,200 wells, the most common of which was “nonionic fluorosurfactant” and various misspellings. Evidence suggests these chemicals are likely PFAS and/or PFAS precursors (substances that could break down into PFAS).

In light of these findings, PSR recommends the following:

• **Health assessment.** EPA and/or states should evaluate through quantitative analysis whether PFAS and/or PFAS breakdown products associated with oil and gas operations have the capacity to harm human health. All potential pathways of exposure should be examined, including inhalation, ingestion, and dermal contact.

• **Testing and tracking.** EPA and/or states should determine where PFAS and chemicals that may be PFAS have been used in oil and gas operations and where related wastes have been deposited. They should test nearby water, soil, flora, and fauna for PFAS.

• **Funding and cleanup.** Oil and gas and chemical firms should be required to provide adequate funding for environmental testing and evaluation, and should PFAS be found, for cleanup. If water cleanup is impossible, the companies responsible for the use of PFAS should pay for alternative sources of drinking water.

• **Public disclosure.** Echoing recommendations by Pennsylvania’s Attorney General in 2020, governments should require full public disclosure of drilling and fracking chemicals before each oil or gas well can be developed. EPA and/or states should inform communities potentially exposed to PFAS about PFAS contamination risks so that the communities can take actions such as water testing and treatment.

• **Moratorium on PFAS use for oil and gas extraction.** Until testing and investigation are complete, EPA and states should not allow PFAS or chemicals that could break down into PFAS to be manufactured, imported, or used for oil and gas drilling or fracking.

• **Limits on drilling and fracking.** The use of PFAS and of chemicals that break down into PFAS in drilling and fracking should prompt governments to prohibit drilling, fracking, and disposal of related wastewater and solid wastes in areas that are relatively unimpacted by oil and gas pollution, and to increase protections in already-impacted regions. When doubt exists as to the existence or danger of contamination, the rule of thumb should be, “First, do no harm.”
Records Indicate PFAS Were Used in Fracking for Oil and Gas

PSR has unearthed evidence suggesting that per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS) and/or PFAS precursors (substances that could degrade into PFAS) have been used for hydraulic fracturing (“fracking”) in more than 1,200 oil and gas* wells in six U.S. states, creating risks for oil and gas workers and the public through multiple potential pathways of exposure. The lack of full disclosure of chemicals used in oil and gas operations raises the potential that PFAS could have been used even more extensively than records indicate, both geographically and in other stages of the oil and gas extraction process, such as drilling, that precede the underground injections known as fracking. The apparent use of PFAS in oil and gas production has not been previously publicized and raises concerns about toxic exposures.

PFAS are a class of chemicals known for having several valuable properties, including being slippery, oil- and water-repellant, and able to serve as dispersants or foaming agents. The first PFAS to be sold commercially was discovered by a chemist at Dupont and patented as Teflon. Beginning in 1949, it was used in thousands of products, from nonstick cookware to waterproof clothing to plastics to dental floss. Other PFAS have been used in food packaging, fire-fighting foam, and in 3M's widely used fabric protector, Scotchgard. PFAS have been called “perfluorinated chemicals,” “polyfluorinated compounds,” or PFCs, though the term currently preferred by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) is PFAS. PFAS' nickname “forever chemicals” is rooted in their manufacture, in which hydrocarbon chains of carbon and hydrogen atoms are mixed with hydrofluoric acid. The fluorine atoms in the acid replace the hydrogen atoms in the hydrocarbon chains, forming a bond between fluorine and carbon that is among the strongest in chemistry and barely exists in nature. The result: chemicals that are extremely resistant to breaking down in the environment.

As early as the 1960s and 1970s, researchers inside Dupont and 3M became aware that PFAS were associated with health problems including cancers and birth defects, had accumulated inside virtually every human being, and persisted in the environment. Many of these facts, kept internal by the companies, came to light after attorney Rob Bilott filed lawsuits in 1999 and 2001 against Dupont for causing pollution in and around Parkersburg, West Virginia with PFOA, a type of PFAS used to make Teflon. In December 2011, as part of Dupont's settlement of the 2001 lawsuit, a team of epidemiologists completed a study of the blood of 70,000 West Virginians and found that there was a probable link between PFOA and kidney cancer, testicular cancer, thyroid disease (over- or under-production of hormones by the thyroid gland), high cholesterol, pre-eclampsia (a potentially dangerous complication during pregnancy characterized by high blood pressure and signs of damage to another organ system, most often the liver and kidneys), and ulcerative colitis (a disease causing inflammation and ulcers in the large intestine or colon). Mounting evidence of PFAS’s risks has led ten states to develop guidelines for concentrations in drinking water of PFOA and other types of PFAS. One of these states is Michigan, which set standards in 2020 for drinking water and cleaning up groundwater for PFOA and six other forms of PFAS. (The state acted because EPA had not enacted federal drinking water standards for PFAS.) Michigan's maximum allowable level of PFAS is no more than eight parts per trillion for PFOA. By extension, these standards indicate that one measuring cup of PFOA could contaminate almost 8 billion gallons of water, six times the 1.3 billion gallons of water used each day by New York City, or the amount of water needed to fill almost 12,000 Olympic-sized swimming pools at about 660,000 gallons per pool.

PFAS/Fracking Link Began with Investigation of EPA Chemical Approval

PSR found evidence suggesting that PFAS have been used for hydraulic fracturing (“fracking”) in the course of an investigation into EPA’s approval of chemicals proposed for use in oil and gas drilling and fracking. In fracking, energy companies inject into oil and gas wells a mixture of up to tens of millions of gallons of water, sand, and chemicals at high pressure to fracture underground rock formations,
unlocking trapped oil and gas. The chemicals serve a variety of purposes including killing bacteria inside the wellbore, reducing friction during high-pressure fracking, and as gelling agents to thicken the fluid so that the sand, suspended in the gelled fluid, can travel farther into underground formations.\(^\text{12}\)

In 2020, PSR examined documents disclosed by EPA in response to a Freedom of Information Act (FOIA) request that asked EPA to disclose its health reviews and regulatory determinations for new chemicals proposed for use in oil and gas drilling and fracking.\(^\text{13}\) We discovered documentation of chemicals proposed to be imported for use in drilling and/or fracking. They were identified by EPA case numbers P-11-0091, P-11-0092, and P-11-0093.\(^\text{14}\) And EPA agency regulators worried in writing that these chemicals could degrade into PFOA-like substances.

The relevant documents were created by EPA in accordance with the Toxic Substances Control Act (TSCA), which requires among other provisions that chemical manufacturers or importers submit applications, called “premanufacture notices,” in order to receive permission to use new chemicals commercially or to use existing chemicals commercially for new purposes.\(^\text{15}\) This system of new-chemicals review is supposed to protect the public from chemical pollution, but it has been heavily criticized over the years as inadequate, including by Congress’ investigative arm, the Government Accountability Office (GAO). The GAO has consistently included EPA’s program regulating toxic chemicals on its list of federal government programs at highest risk of waste, fraud, abuse, and mismanagement.\(^\text{16}\)

Reviewing the EPA’s documents was challenging because TSCA allows companies to withhold from the public virtually all the data they submit to EPA in their premanufacture notices. Companies can shield the information from the public by designating it as confidential business information or CBI.\(^\text{17}\) In this case, the submitter marked multiple details as CBI, including the chemicals’ names, structure, use, production volume, and unique numeric identifiers known as Chemical Abstracts Service (CAS) numbers that scientists consider the best way to identify chemicals.\(^\text{18}\) When companies withhold specific chemical identifiers from their premanufacture notices, they must provide a generic or less specific name for their chemical(s) so that the public can have some idea what chemical EPA is assessing.\(^\text{19}\) Here, a single generic name was listed for all three chemicals: “fluorinated acrylic alkylamino copolymer.”\(^\text{20}\) Similarly, manufacturers or importers must list a generic use when the specific use is deemed confidential.\(^\text{21}\) Here, the generic use was listed as “oil and water repellent and release agent.”\(^\text{22}\) Even the company’s name was withheld as confidential,\(^\text{23}\) leaving the documents riddled with redactions and blank spaces, as may be seen in figures 1 and 2. PSR was, however, able to determine the

![Figure 1. “Sanitized” premanufacture notice for chemicals with EPA case numbers P-11-0091, P-11-0092, P-11-0093 showing that the chemicals’ submitter withheld its own name as confidential. The term “sanitized” means that confidential business information has been withheld from the public version of the document.](image-url)
hazard assessment and consent order regulating the chemicals P-11-0091, P-11-0092, and P-11-0093 show that the agency was concerned about their health and environmental impacts. The agency’s concerns were based in part on the potential that the chemicals might degrade into substances similar to one of the most infamous PFAS in modern chemistry, PFOA.24 Unfortunately, EPA’s assessment and consent order were themselves heavily redacted before being released in response to a FOIA request, preventing a full understanding of EPA’s concern. In its consent order, EPA stated:

EPA is concerned that these perfluorinated degradation products may be released to the environment from incomplete incineration of the PMN [premanufacture notice] substances at low temperatures. EPA has preliminary evidence, including data on other [REDACTED], that suggests that, under some conditions, the PMN substances could degrade in the environment. EPA has concerns that these degradation products will persist in the environment, could bioaccumulate or biomagnify, and could be toxic (PBT) to people, wild mammals, and birds based on data on analog chemicals, including PFOA and [REDACTED]. The presumed perfluorinated degradants for these PMN substances include [REDACTED].25

The acronym PBT stands for (P) persistent, (B) bioaccumulative, and (T) toxic.26 EPA did not answer a question sent via email by PSR about the circumstances in which the substances described in the premanufacture notice might be incompletely incinerated.

In discussing PFOA, to which EPA regulators had likened the degradation products of the three chemicals, the regulators added that toxicity studies on PFOA indicate developmental, reproductive and systemic toxicity in various species. Cancer may also be of concern. These factors, taken together, raise concerns for potential adverse chronic effects in humans and wildlife.”27

EPA also expressed significant health concerns in its health and ecological hazard assessment. The agency wrote:

For the potential incomplete incineration/environmental degradation product, based on the test data for the analogue [REDACTED], concerns are liver toxicity, blood toxicity, and male reproductive toxicity....There is also
On November 29, 2011, the undisclosed company that had requested the approval of the three new chemicals began importing one of the chemicals for commercial use, the one known by EPA case number P-11-0091, according to a document filed with EPA.\textsuperscript{29} (The related chemicals, P-11-0092 and P-11-0093, have not been used commercially.\textsuperscript{30}) An additional EPA record shows that chemical P-11-0091 may have been used in oil and gas wells, among other uses, at least as recently as 2018.\textsuperscript{31}

Search of Fracking Database Indicates Use of PFAS in Oil and Gas Operations
To determine if the chemical known as P-11-0091 had been used in oil and gas operations, PSR searched for “fluorinated acrylic alkylamino copolymer,” the chemical’s generic name, in a publicly available online database of well-by-well fracking chemical disclosure maintained by FracFocus, a nongovernmental organization run by the Groundwater Protection Council and the Interstate Oil and Gas Compact Commission. The database, which began operating in 2011, contains records on the hydraulic fracturing chemicals used in thousands of wells across the nation. Twenty-five states require or allow reporting of hydraulic fracturing chemicals to the database.\textsuperscript{32} Companies in states in which reporting to FracFocus is not required can, and sometimes do, report hydraulic fracturing chemical use voluntarily to FracFocus. The database can be searched for chemicals used across multiple wells.\textsuperscript{33}

While PSR did not find any uses of “fluorinated acrylic alkylamino copolymer,” we did find chemicals with related names had been used to fracture more than 1,200 wells primarily in Texas but also in Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, New Mexico, and Wyoming between 2012 and 2020. The most frequent use occurred prior to 2016. Chemicals with related names included:

- fluorinated benzoic salts
- fluoro surfactants – proprietary
- meta-Perfluorodimethylcyclohexane
- Perfluoro-1,3-dimethylcyclohexane
- nonionic fluorosurfactant (and multiple misspellings of the same term)

A variety of evidence shows that these chemicals are or could be PFAS and/or PFAS precursors. EPA lists two of the chemicals, meta-Perfluorodimethylcyclohexane and Perfluoro-1,3-dimethylcyclohexane, in the agency’s “Master List of PFAS Substances.”\textsuperscript{34} According to two chemical experts, both of whom are authors of multiple peer-reviewed articles about chemicals related to oil and gas production,\textsuperscript{35} all of the chemicals are PFAS or could degrade into PFAS. The two experts are Zacariah Hildenbrand, a research professor in Chemistry and Biochemistry at the University of Texas at El Paso, and Kevin Schug, Shimadzu Distinguished Professor of Analytical Chemistry at the University of Texas at Arlington.\textsuperscript{36} In addition, Wilma Subra, who has a master’s degree in chemistry and is a recipient of a John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation “Genius” Grant for her work helping to protect communities from toxic pollution, identified all of the chemicals as potentially PFAS. Subra, based in Louisiana, has spent decades working to reduce and remediate pollution from oil and gas operations.\textsuperscript{37} And yet another expert, Linda Birnbaum, a board-certified toxicologist and former director of the National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences, informed PSR that all of the chemicals are likely to be PFAS.\textsuperscript{38}

Are any of these chemicals in the FracFocus database the “fluorinated acrylic alkylamino copolymer” approved by EPA? Each of the four chemical and health experts said that was a possibility. However, it is impossible to know conclusively without having the precise identifier, known as a CAS number, both for the EPA-approved chemical and for the chemicals listed in the FracFocus records. CAS numbers are unique numeric identifiers assigned to each chemical by the American Chemical Society. They are the most accurate way
to identify chemicals, because a chemical can have multiple
names or trade names but only one CAS number.39

Major Oil and Gas Companies Likely Used PFAS
and/or PFAS Precursors
According to the publicly available data in the FracFocus
data base, more than 130 oil and gas companies reported
using the chemicals that, according to experts and EPA’s
list of PFAS substances, are or could be PFAS and/or PFAS
precursors. These companies include some of the most
prominent producers of oil and gas. Among them:

• XTO Energy Inc., a subsidiary of ExxonMobil, one of the
world’s largest oil and gas producers, disclosed using
one of the chemicals, nonionic fluorosurfactant, in 78
wells in New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas between

• Chevron Corp., another major producer, reported using
nonionic fluorosurfactant in 38 wells in New Mexico and
Texas in 2013 through 2015.

• Anadarko Petroleum Corp., reported using nonionic
fluorosurfactant in eight wells in Texas in 2013-2014.
Anadarko was the co-owner, along with BP, of the
Macondo well that spewed millions of gallons of oil into
the Gulf of Mexico in 2010.40

• EOG Resources, Inc., one of the largest oil producers
from shale deposits in the U.S.,41 reported using
fluoroalkyl alcohol substituted polyethylene glycol in 99
wells in New Mexico and Texas from 2012-2014 as well
as nonionic fluorosurfactant in one well in Texas in 2014.

• Encana Corp., once one of Canada’s largest
oil companies, disclosed the use of nonionic
Encana moved its corporate headquarters to the U.S. in
2020 and changed its name to Ovintiv.42

The table below shows a sampling of wells fractured by
these five companies and the estimated maximum amount,
in pounds, of chemicals that may be PFAS used in each well.
Each chemical in the table comprises a tiny percentage of
the total amount of hydraulic fracturing fluid injected into
each well – in one case as small as 0.00016 percent of the
total.44 However, because oil and gas companies can inject
millions of gallons of hydraulic fracturing fluid into each
of their wells, small percentages can add up to hundreds
of pounds of chemicals or more. When chemicals are as

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company</th>
<th>Well Number</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>County</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Potential PFAS Used in Well</th>
<th>Estimated Maximum Amount (lbs)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>XTOEnergy/ExxonMobil</td>
<td>35-019-26303</td>
<td>OK</td>
<td>Carter</td>
<td>2019</td>
<td>Nonionic Fluorosurfactant</td>
<td>17.60</td>
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<tr>
<td>XTOEnergy/ExxonMobil</td>
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<td>OK</td>
<td>Carter</td>
<td>2019</td>
<td>Nonionic Fluorosurfactant</td>
<td>27.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encana (Ovintiv)</td>
<td>42-461-39585</td>
<td>TX</td>
<td>Upton</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>Nonionic Fluorosurfactant</td>
<td>31.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EOG Resources, Inc.</td>
<td>30-025-42387</td>
<td>NM</td>
<td>Lea</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>fluoroalkyl alcohol substituted polyethylene glycol</td>
<td>114.63</td>
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<td>EOG Resources, Inc.</td>
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<td>NM</td>
<td>Lea</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>fluoroalkyl alcohol substituted polyethylene glycol</td>
<td>120.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encana (Ovintiv)/Athlon</td>
<td>42-173-36707</td>
<td>TX</td>
<td>Glasscock</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>Nonionic Fluorosurfactant</td>
<td>324.87</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chevron</td>
<td>42-105-36572</td>
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<td>Crockett</td>
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<td>25.25</td>
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</tr>
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</table>

Table 1. The estimated maximum amount of chemicals that may be PFAS, in pounds, used by five different oil and gas companies
to hydraulically fracture selected wells in New Mexico, Oklahoma and Texas between 2013 and 2019. For a detailed explanation
of the calculations in the table, see the endnote.43
toxic as PFAS can be, even small quantities could cause extensive contamination through multiple pathways. “There’s a potential for [PFAS] to contaminate a huge amount of water or soil or sediment if it were to spill on the surface,” said chemist Subra in a telephone interview, noting that the amounts of potential PFAS in the table could pose a risk. “It doesn't take much to be present in those media to be a threat to health.”

In most cases, the declared uses of the chemicals in FracFocus were not much more specific than the generic name offered. Hundreds of uses were listed as some type of surfactant, including “fluoro surfactant” and “water recovery surfactant.” According to EPA:

> surfactants are substances that lower the surface tension of a liquid, the interaction at the surface between two liquids (called interfacial tension), or that between a liquid and a solid. Surfactants may act as detergents, soaps, wetting agents, degreasers, emulsifiers, foaming agents and dispersants.

FracFocus also reflected a handful of other uses, including the use of “meta-Perfluorodimethylcyclohexane” as a tracer. It was injected in four wells in Sublette County, Wyoming in 2015 and 2016. Tracers are used to help oil and gas companies infer information about underground formations. EPA documents disclosed in November 2020 show that PFAS have been proposed for use as tracers.

PFAS May Have Been Used for Decades in Oil and Gas Operations

Two sources suggest that the use of PFAS in oil and gas operations dates back decades and involves the use of the chemicals in a range of extraction techniques. The authors of a paper published in 2020 in the peer-reviewed journal Environmental Science: Processes and Impacts found that more than 50 PFAS have been used or proposed to be used to extract oil and gas, based on public records dating to 1956 that include patents, journal articles, and databases. The authors cautioned that they were not able to verify the information they found, but the records indicate that PFAS have been used to extend underground fractures, to increase the permeability of underground formations, to make the surfaces of underground oil-bearing reservoirs water- and oil-resistant, and as foaming agents.

In a 2008 paper in The Open Petroleum Engineering Journal, two authors, including at least one from Dupont, wrote that:

> while fluorosurfactants have been used in gas and oil exploration for four decades, the increased demand for petroleum and the greater understanding of the benefits of fluorosurfactants have led to growing acceptance for fluorosurfactants throughout the petroleum industry.

The authors did not explicitly say that fluorosurfactants were PFAS, but they wrote that “the use of fluorosurfactants is a recent but growing trend due to (i) the exceptional hydrophobic and oleophobic nature of the perfluoroalkyl and perfluoroalkyl ether groups...” Thus, at least some of the fluorosurfactants mentioned in the article appear to be PFAS. Furthermore, the article indicated that use of fluorosurfactants was growing and, referring to them as an “emerging technology,” said that fluorosurfactants showed promise in a variety of extraction techniques including fracking, drilling, and waterflooding. Like the authors in the 2020 paper in Environmental Science: Processes and Impacts, the authors noted that they relied mostly on patents and laboratory models “vs actual oil and gas recovery experiments.”
OIL AND GAS CHEMICALS CAN POSE SERIOUS HEALTH RISKS

Shedding light on the use or possible use of PFAS in oil and gas extraction is important because, for years, people living near oil and gas operations have experienced contaminated water and serious illnesses that they believe are related to the chemicals associated with these activities. During the 2000s, these concerns intensified as oil and gas companies moved into more heavily populated areas to drill so-called unconventional formations such as coalbed methane and shale. To reach the new deposits, the companies have used hydraulic fracturing, often combined with horizontal drilling.

As previously discussed, chemicals are injected into oil and gas wells as an integral part of the fracturing process. They are also used during drilling, which precedes fracturing. During drilling, companies bore deep holes in the earth; these holes typically pass directly through groundwater. Chemicals can be injected in this stage of the process to help keep the drill bit cool and to lift rock cuttings out of the well, and at this point in the process, no protective structures are in place to keep those chemicals from entering groundwater.

Following drilling and fracturing, a portion of the water, sand and chemicals injected into oil and gas wells during fracturing, as well as naturally occurring contaminants such as carcinogenic benzene and radium, flow out of the well in the form of wastewater. Wastewater can reach volumes of millions of gallons per well.

Use of PFAS in oil and gas operations would add a highly potent substance to an already long list of toxic chemicals associated with oil and gas extraction. In 2016, EPA published a study of fracturing and drinking water that identified 1,606 chemicals used in fracturing fluid and found in wastewater. While the agency found high-quality information on health effects for only 173 of these chemicals, that information was troubling. EPA found that “health effects associated with chronic oral exposure to these chemicals include carcinogenicity [for both benzene and radium], neurotoxicity, immune system effects, changes in body weight, changes in blood chemistry, liver and kidney toxicity, and reproductive and developmental toxicity.”

Chemicals used in the drilling stage can also pose health risks, including developmental toxicity and the formation of tumors, according to EPA regulators. A disclosure form filed with the state of Ohio, perhaps the only state to require disclosure of drilling chemicals, shows that Statoil, Norway’s state oil company since renamed Equinor, has used neurotoxic xylene in drilling.

The lack of high-quality health testing data for the other 1,400-odd chemicals identified by EPA does not necessarily mean that they are safe; it might simply mean that they have not been adequately tested. The federal Toxic Substances Control Act (TSCA) has likely contributed to these gaps because it has not required health testing for new chemicals. According to Congress’ investigative arm, the Government Accountability Office, chemical manufacturers have often avoided such testing, and EPA often has not asked for it despite having the authority to do so. Congress updated TSCA in 2016 to strengthen EPA’s authority to ask for health testing, but according to the Environmental Defense Fund, the Trump administration EPA failed to use this improved authority. Separately, EPA noted that its list of chemicals associated with fracting was likely incomplete because chemical manufacturers treat many chemicals used in oil and gas drilling as trade secrets, as permitted by TSCA.

A new health concern related to PFAS and its use or possible use in oil and gas operations is that the chemicals could compromise the effectiveness of vaccines for COVID-19. The U.S. Centers for Disease Control and the Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry issued the following statement in June 2020:

CDC/ATSDR understands that many of the communities we are engaged with are concerned about how PFAS exposure may affect their risk of COVID-19 infection. We agree that this is an important question...CDC/ATSDR recognizes that exposure to high levels of PFAS may impact the immune system. There is evidence from human and animal studies that PFAS exposure may reduce antibody responses to vaccines [citations omitted], and may reduce infectious disease resistance [citation omitted]. Because COVID-19 is a new public health concern, there is still much we don’t know.
research is needed to understand how PFAS exposure may affect illness from COVID-19.\textsuperscript{71}

Multiple Potential Pathways to Human Exposure

EPA and others have identified multiple pathways through which people could be exposed to the chemicals associated with oil and gas extraction including, potentially, PFAS. The agency indicated that any chemicals used during the first stage of the drilling process would be highly likely to leach into groundwater because during this stage, drilling passes directly through groundwater zones\textsuperscript{72} before any casing or cement is placed in the well to seal it off from surrounding aquifers.

EPA found that during the fracking phase that follows drilling, exposure pathways could include:

- spills of fracking fluid that seep into groundwater;
- injection of fracking fluid into wells with cracks in the casing or cement, allowing the fluid to migrate into aquifers (much of the fracking fluid can remain underground);

Figure 3 shows an example of a spill of fracking fluids. The photo is from the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency and shows a fire on June 28-29, 2014 at the Eisenbarth Well operated by Statoil (since renamed Equinor) in Monroe County, Ohio. The photographer is not listed.\textsuperscript{74} According to an EPA report, trade secret fracking chemicals along with other chemicals were spilled because of the fire. Fluids that may have contained the trade secret chemicals ran off the well pad into a tributary of the Ohio River. An estimated 70,000 fish died.\textsuperscript{75}
• injection of fracking fluids directly into groundwater;

• underground migration of fracking fluids through fracking-related or natural fractures;

• intersection of fracking fluid with nearby oil and gas wells, and

• spills of wastewater after the fracking process is completed, and inadequate treatment and discharge of fracking wastewater to surface water supplies.73

Additional potential pathways of concern involve wastewater. These include intentional dumping of fracking wastewater into waterways,76 spreading wastewater on roads to suppress dust or melt snow and ice,77 and the use of wastewater for irrigation of agricultural crops.78 In addition to these intentional uses, underground leaks can occur from underground injection wells into which well operators have pumped billions of gallons of drilling and fracking wastewater for disposal.79 This injected wastewater is intended to remain in underground formations permanently but has been known to leak and pollute groundwater.80 In addition, drilling and fracking chemicals can become airborne at oil and gas sites through various routes81 including by volatilizing from huge ground-level pools of wastewater82 or from tanks that store condensate, a naturally-occurring liquid associated with gas.83

The toxic and secret chemicals used in drilling and fracking can also pose a risk not only to people living near oil and gas production wells in relatively rural areas but also to people living near wastewater disposal sites, especially underground injection wells;84 in densely populated areas with oil and gas drilling, such as Los Angeles;85 and in urban areas downstream from fracking or wastewater disposal activity.86 In 2019, New Jersey governor Philip D. Murphy called for a ban on fracking and the disposal of fracking wastewater in the Delaware River Basin, a multi-state watershed that provides drinking water for more than 13 million people and encompasses parts of Pennsylvania that could be drilled for gas.87 “As noted by the Environmental Protection Agency in its 2016 report on the impact of fracking on water resources,” Murphy wrote:

the ability of regulatory agencies to assess the full impacts of fracking wastes on public health and the environment is hampered by the prevalence of confidentiality claims that prevent disclosure of the chemical constituents of fracking fluids...Therefore, prohibiting all fracking activity in the Basin is vital to avoid injury and preserve the waters of the Basin and protect public health.88

In February 2021, the Delaware River Basin Commission, of which Murphy is a member, banned fracking in the Basin, citing in part the risks of chemicals associated with the process.89 The decision made permanent a de facto moratorium on fracking that the commission had maintained for more than 10 years.90 The commission said that by September 30, 2021 it would propose amendments to its rules regarding the importation of fracking wastewater into the basin and export of freshwater from the Basin.91

Evidence of Harm to Human Health from Oil and Gas Operations

Residents living near oil and gas operations have increasingly reported illnesses that they believe are related to chemical exposures, while expressing frustration about the secrecy surrounding many of the chemicals used by the oil and gas industry.92 In 2020, Pennsylvania’s Attorney General issued a report based on a criminal grand jury investigation of oil and gas drilling pollution in the Keystone State, where drilling for gas in shale formations has surged over the past 15 years.93 That surge has vaulted Pennsylvania into the number two spot among gas-producing states (Texas is number one)94 and brought thousands of Pennsylvanians into contact with gas drilling and its impacts. Based on testimony from over 70 households, the attorney general found that

Many of those living in close proximity to a well pad began to become chronically, and inexplicably, sick. Pets died; farm animals that lived outside started miscarrying, or giving birth to deformed offspring. But the worst
was the children, who were most susceptible to the effects. Families went to their doctors for answers, but the doctors didn’t know what to do. The unconventional oil and gas companies would not even identify the chemicals they were using, so that they could be studied; the companies said the compounds were “trade secrets” and “proprietary information.” The absence of information created roadblocks to effective medical treatment. One family was told that doctors would discuss their hypotheses, but only if the information never left the room.95

In addition to these and other self-reported or anecdotal reports, peer-reviewed studies of people living near oil and gas operations provide scientific evidence of illnesses and other health effects. A 2019 study in the journal Environment International examined 3,324 babies born in Colorado between 2005 and 2011 and found that, compared with control groups, congenital heart defects were 1.4 and 1.7 times more likely in babies born to mothers in areas of medium and high unconventional gas drilling, respectively.96 A 2018 study in the Journal of Health Economics found that babies born between 2003 and 2010 to Pennsylvania mothers living near a functioning shale gas well had a higher incidence of low birth weight compared to babies born of mothers living near a permitted well that had not yet gone into production.97 Low birthweight is a leading contributor to infant death in the United States.98 A 2017 study in PLOS One of Coloradans between birth and 24 years old diagnosed with cancer between 2000 and 2013 found that those between the ages of five and 24 were more than four times more likely to live in areas of heavy oil and gas drilling, compared to controls.99 In 2019, Pennsylvania-based FracTracker Alliance conducted a meta-analysis of 142 health studies published between 2016 and 2018 focusing on health impacts of unconventional oil and gas development (UOGD). The analysis concluded, “The results of this study indicate that a variety of health impacts in every major organ system are being experienced by individuals living near UOGD.” Specific health effects included cancer, early infant mortality, pre-term birth, and poor infant health.100 The Southwest Pennsylvania Environmental Health Project,101 and PSR and the Concerned Health Professionals of New York,102 have likewise compiled the substantial and growing number of scientific studies that have found serious health effects associated with oil and gas drilling.

Disadvantaged Communities Bear Disproportionate Oil and Gas Exposure Risks

“Fenceline” communities – people living adjacent or close to oil and gas operations – often bear a disproportionate risk of exposure to drilling and fracking chemicals. And although drilling and fracking take place in the majority of U.S. states, not everyone shares in that risk equally. Rather, oil and gas infrastructure and associated chemicals are frequently located in or adjacent to poor, underserved, and marginalized communities, indigenous communities, and communities of color.103 For example, a 2019 analysis conducted in Colorado, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Texas found strong evidence that minorities, especially African Americans, disproportionately lived near fracking wells.104 A separate study focusing on West Virginia, Ohio, and Pennsylvania found that in Pennsylvania, a higher concentration of unconventional gas wells are located in lower-income communities, and that localized clusters of vulnerable populations are exposed to high levels of well density in all three states.105 A study of census tract data in western Pennsylvania shows that among nearly 800 gas wells, only two were drilled in communities where home values exceeded $200,000.106 And a study published in 2018 found that oil and gas wastewater injection wells in Ohio were disproportionately located in rural, lower-income areas.107 Various population sectors are more vulnerable than others to harm from chemical exposure. This includes pregnant women; the young, whose vital organs are still in development; people with preexisting medical conditions; the elderly; and those who live where pollutants from multiple sources combine to create a high cumulative load of toxic exposures.108 Where vulnerable populations also have limited access to health care, their health risks are magnified. In short, the health disparities that already exist in U.S. society combine with proximity to oil and gas operations to impose a disproportionate health burden on the poorest, the
Also at high risk are oil and gas field workers and waste handlers and first responders. Industry workers who may handle or otherwise be exposed to fracking-related chemicals may not have the personal protective equipment needed to shield them from exposure, much less the training necessary to take protective or remedial measures. The same is true for first responders called to an emergency at a site of oil and gas operations. Confidential business information or trade secret claims may hide from them the identity and effects of the chemicals they may be exposed to, leaving them unable to determine how potentially dangerous chemicals should be handled or contained.

Other Experts Voice Concern about Exposure to PFOA-like Substances

The possibility that people could be unknowingly exposed to PFAS in oil and gas extraction is of concern to other specialists, including experts in toxic exposure and other scientists. Toxicologist David Brown, who has investigated health effects associated with unconventional gas drilling with the Southwest Pennsylvania Environmental Health Project, has suggested two likely pathways to human exposure for PFAS chemicals that could occur in oil and gas extraction: 1) through air, when gas is burned off during flaring, or 2) through the use of contaminated groundwater for bathing, cooking, drinking or washing laundry, which would allow chemicals in the water to be ingested or to be inhaled if the chemicals were to volatilize (evaporate or disperse as a gas) inside the home. “Anything injected down the well will come back up,” said Brown, who also served on a panel that advised the state of Massachusetts Department of Environmental Protection Office of Research and Standards on development of drinking water standards for PFAS. “People will get exposed.” He added that the risks could be significant. “PFAS compounds are sequestered in the body for long periods after ingestion, leading to long-term but undefined health risks. Individuals and communities need to be aware of the presence of such chemicals so that they can take protective action.”

Silverio Caggiano, who retired in June 2021 as Battalion Chief and hazardous materials expert with the Youngstown, Ohio Fire Department, expressed dismay that the federal government and state governments would act to protect firefighters and the public from PFAS in some ways, but leave them at risk in other ways. He noted that both EPA and the U.S. Fire Administration, a division of the Federal Emergency Management Agency, have issued warnings and initiatives to discontinue the use of old Aqueous Film Forming Foam (AFFF), used to fight fires for years, and to dispose of it properly because it can contain PFAS. Yet at the same time, government agencies have failed to acknowledge the potential use of PFAS in association with oil and gas wells. “Fire departments around the country are scrambling to extract any of this older AFFF from their inventories,” he said, yet when firefighters and first responders are called to a frac well incident, the governments both state and federal act as if this chemical danger doesn’t exist on-site. It makes one wonder who the EPA would cite for contamination if a fire department used old PFAS-containing AFFF to put out a well fire that had PFOA-style chemicals on-site. These games have to end. The jobs of firefighters are dangerous enough without the continuous shell game the chemical industry and regulators play with toxic chemicals.

Robert Delaney, a geologist who until his retirement in November 2020 led an initiative for the Michigan PFAS Action Response Team to address contamination of PFAS at U.S. Department of Defense sites in the state, said that communities should be very concerned about the use of PFAS in oil and gas drilling. Delaney spent 36 years working in natural resource protection for the state of Michigan and first warned state officials about the looming problem with PFAS in 2012, though unrelated to oil and gas extraction. PFAS, he said,

disperses all over, it doesn’t break down, and the levels at which it is dangerous are so, so low. It becomes an enormous problem. I call it a nightmare contaminant. I used to think that benzene, TCE (trichloroethylene), polyvinyl chloride were the really nasty ones to deal with, and then I saw these.
Delaney also noted that cleaning up water contaminated with PFAS is expensive if any significant volume is involved, because the water must be run through activated carbon, the same material in Brita filters. The amount of activated carbon needed would be vast and could cost millions of dollars, as it has in the ongoing effort to remove PFAS from drinking water at Michigan’s Wurtsmith Airforce Base. And after the activated carbon fills up with PFAS and any additional contaminants in the water, it must be disposed of somewhere. “Part of the problem is landfills won’t take it because they don’t know how much liability they’re taking on” if PFAS waste were to contaminate the landfill, Delaney observed.

As of 2020, Michigan was trying to clean up groundwater at 137 sites that exceed its new standards for PFAS pollution. “There are a lot of sites in Michigan because we are looking,” Liesl Clark, director of the Michigan Department of Environment, Great Lakes and Energy told the Detroit Free Press. “If other states were doing the same sorts of work, they would be finding a similar challenge — and some states are.”

Carol Kwiatkowski, former Executive Director of The Endocrine Disruption Exchange, the first organization to catalogue the health effects of chemicals used in oil and gas drilling and fracking, said in an email to PSR that current efforts to address the problem of PFAS contamination focus on waste incineration or filtering of drinking water. Neither process is 100% effective, nor do they clean up the PFAS that have polluted large river systems or the air. In other words, there is no effective way to remove them.

Kwiatkowski, who is currently Science and Policy Senior Associate at the Green Science Policy Institute, added that “the most effective solution is to stop their use and production as quickly as possible, except for uses where they are absolutely necessary, for example in medical equipment.” PSR concurs.
EPA OK’d PFAS-related Chemicals for Oil and Gas Despite Risks

For years, attorney Bilott, environmentalists, and even the state government of Michigan have raised concerns that EPA was not adequately protecting the public from PFAS pollution. EPA’s approval of three chemicals for use in oil and gas operations that regulators believed could degrade into PFOA-like substances raises additional concerns about the agency’s commitment to protecting people and the environment from dangerous substances.

By the time EPA regulators reviewed the chemicals P-11-0091, P-11-0092, and P-11-0093 in 2010, the agency would have had a firm basis for concern about chemicals that could degrade into PFOA-like substances. It was already well-known that PFOA and PFOS (used to make Scotchgard) were extremely harmful. In 2004, Dupont had settled Bilott’s lawsuit alleging PFOA-related harm for $70 million, plus promises to pay for water filtration and the scientific study that in 2011 found serious health impacts related to PFOA. In 2005, EPA reached a then-record $16.5 million settlement with Dupont after accusing the company of violating TSCA by failing to disclose information about PFOA’s toxicity and presence in the environment. In 2006, EPA invited Dupont, 3M and six other companies to join a “stewardship” program in which the companies promised to achieve a 95 percent reduction of emissions of PFOA and related chemicals by 2010, compared to a year 2000 baseline. The agreement also required the companies to phase out manufacture and use of PFOA by 2015. In 2021, EPA says on its website that the companies reported that they had accomplished the goals either by exiting the PFAS industry or by transitioning to alternative chemicals.

Manufacture and importation of PFOA itself has ceased, though there could still be some PFOA use from existing stocks, and it could be contained in imported items. However, since the announcement of its PFAS stewardship program in 2006, EPA has allowed multiple new PFAS to be used commercially. And in 2015, a group of more than 200 scientists raised health and environmental concerns that the new short-chain PFAS designed to replace PFOA and PFOS may not be safer for health or the environment. These “replacement” substances may include the parent chemical or the breakdown products discussed in this report.

Dupont Was the Likely Importer of Chemical P-11-0091

Beyond the health risks of PFOA, EPA should have been troubled by the likely importer of the new chemicals proposed for use in oil and gas operations: Wilmington, Delaware-based Dupont. This tentative identification is based on the EPA-issued “accession number” that was issued for the chemical P-11-0091 that went into commercial use. When EPA receives a notice (called a “notice of commencement”) that a chemical is going to be imported or manufactured for commercial use and the chemical’s identity is hidden from the public as confidential business information, the agency assigns the chemical an accession number. This number allows the public to find the chemical on the TSCA inventory, a list of existing chemicals in commerce, without learning the chemical’s specific identity. The accession number also allows the public to search for data about the chemical submitted by chemical manufacturers and importers every four years under TSCA’s Chemical Data Reporting rule. These data provide EPA and the public with some information about the use of chemicals in commerce in each of the four years preceding the submission year.

Using the accession number – 277420 – that was issued to chemical P-11-0091, PSR searched online data filed in 2016 that provided information on use of this chemical during each of the years 2012 through 2015. The company listed as having imported or manufactured the chemical from 2012 through 2015 was Wilmington, Delaware-based Chemours. There was, however, a puzzling discrepancy: The Chemours company did not exist until July 1, 2015, when it was created by Dupont as a spinoff company that would manufacture “performance chemicals.” Under that timeline, Chemours could not have been reporting on its own chemicals until the second half of 2015. What company, then, was manufacturing or importing the chemical from 2012 until mid-2015?

We believe there is an explanation to be found under EPA reporting guidance. The guidance provides that when a manufacturing division of a company is separated from
a parent company to become an independent entity, yet continues to manufacture or import the same substances it did previously, it retains the responsibility for reporting the manufacture or importation of those substances over a four-year reporting period, including the manufacturing or importing that it did while a unit of the parent company. According to at least two different articles in a chemical industry trade publication, Chemours took over what used to be Dupont's performance chemical business – one that included fluorochemicals, a class that would encompass the chemical with case number P-11-0091 and/or its PFOA-like breakdown products. As the successor of the division of Dupont that manufactured or imported fluorochemicals, Chemours in 2016 would have had a duty under EPA's guidance to report fluorochemicals under its own name that were previously made or imported by Dupont in 2012, 2013, 2014, and for the first half of 2015. The chemical with case number P-11-0091 and accession number 277420 apparently qualified as one of these chemicals.

An alternate explanation could be that Chemours was reporting a chemical previously made by or imported by a company other than Dupont that had merged with, or been acquired by, Chemours. In this scenario, EPA's guidance states that if the other company had ceased to exist following the merger or acquisition, Chemours would have had the duty to report on behalf of the previously separate company.

However, Chemours' Form 10-K filed with the U.S. Securities and Exchange Commission in 2016 does not reflect any mergers and acquisitions involving Chemours in the first half-year of its existence (the second half of 2015). It is therefore likely that it was Dupont and not some other company that originally sent notice to EPA in November 2011 that it was importing chemical P-11-0091. It is also likely that Dupont continued to import or manufacture the chemical through at least July 2015, when Chemours became a separate company. In February 2021, PSR wrote to Dupont via FedEx delivery service and to Chemours via certified U.S. mail, sharing details of our investigation and asking the companies, among other things, whether Dupont was the original importer of chemical P-11-0091. PSR did not receive a response from either company.

The likely scenario that Dupont originally imported and/or manufactured the chemical P-11-0091 should concern the public because Dupont has a history of harming people and polluting the environment with PFOA while withholding knowledge of PFOA's risks. As is discussed above, the company in the past failed to communicate to the public the risks of PFOA, and widespread pollution occurred before people and regulators could act to protect themselves. PSR is concerned that a similar result could occur with chemical P-11-0091.

Dupont's likely involvement with chemical P-11-0091, and Chemours' documented involvement, also raise concerns about significant financial damages. In creating Chemours as a separate company, Dupont made Chemours responsible for hundreds of millions of dollars of what was previously Dupont's liability related to PFOA. In 2019, Chemours sued its own parent company, alleging that Dupont had understated how much liability Chemours would be responsible for. Chemours has already paid hundreds of millions of dollars to settle PFOA-related damage claims against Dupont, and Dupont itself has agreed to pay hundreds of millions of dollars to settle such claims. Could significant financial damages be associated with chemical P-11-0091 as well?

EPA Regulation of the Chemical Was Lax

One fact is clear: EPA's regulation of chemical P-11-0091 and the two related chemicals that did not go into commercial use was lax. Despite the agency's own finding that these chemicals could break down into PFOA-like substances, EPA did not issue any requirement that follow-up testing be performed to see if the breakdown of the chemicals took place. Neither did the agency call for tracking to determine where the chemicals were being used, or if these substances were contaminating the environment as the agency had feared. Nor did it require that use of the chemicals be prohibited within a certain distance of drinking water sources, homes, or schools.

EPA told the nonprofit organization Partnership for Policy Integrity in 2016 that it does not track where new chemicals are used when they are reviewed and regulated under TSCA and lacked the staff to test for the new chemicals near water supplies. PSR asked EPA whether the agency
tracked where chemical P-11-0091 was used, but EPA did not respond. Indeed, there are no regulations or statutes that systematically require EPA to report the locations where a chemical is used after it is approved for commercial use. The chemical data reporting system requires reporting in some cases of the location of facilities where chemicals are manufactured or imported, but not the locations of end uses. There is no indication that EPA tracked the end uses of chemical P-11-0091. In its consent order, EPA did require the importer to conduct certain tests if the company reached certain production volume or importation thresholds. (These thresholds were redacted.) EPA also required the importer to limit impurities in the chemicals to certain levels, provide EPA yearly reports on impurities in the chemicals, and maintain certain records. EPA also said that the company would "annually analyze the starting material, [REDACTED] for perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA)."

EPA's Decision to Approve Chemicals May Have Relyed on Dubious Assumptions

Why did EPA approve the chemicals P-11-0091, P-11-0092, and P-11-0093 for commercial use despite its health concerns? The agency offered no explicit reason, but one indication appears in the consent order the agency issued in 2011: EPA wrote that it believed, based on testing data for redacted substances, that the three chemicals would be less likely than PFOA to bioaccumulate in people. EPA also said that testing data on redacted substances "indicate a different and less toxic profile for [REDACTED] (a presumed environmental degradant of the PMN substances) than for PFOA." It is unclear whether the agency was correct, but without careful testing, there is no guarantee that newer chemicals will be safer than the toxic chemicals they replace. The Chicago Tribune has investigated the use of flame retardants, for example, and has found that after toxic flame retardants such as PCBs and PBBs were replaced in the 1970s by substitute chemicals such as PBDEs, the replacement chemicals were found to have toxic problems of their own. Some of these replacements are now being phased out – in favor of yet another generation of flame retardants that have also been associated with health problems.

Even after suggesting that the new chemicals were less of a health and environmental risk than PFOA, EPA expressed misgivings about approving the substances for commercial use. EPA wrote:

However, based on: (1) the persistence of [REDACTED]; (2) potential intermediate fate products; and, (3) the possibility or likelihood that this substance may be used as a major substitute for some uses of PFOA, EPA believes more information is needed on the toxicity of [REDACTED] and possibly other environmental degradants, and the fate and physical/chemical properties of [REDACTED]-derived or related polymers in the environment.

The agency added, "EPA expects the PMN substances or the degradants to be highly persistent" and that "there is high concern for possible environmental effects from the potential persistent degradation product [REDACTED]."

To address these concerns, EPA recommended multiple additional tests: reproductive and long-term toxicological testing in rats, a chronic toxicity/carcinogenicity test in rats, and an avian reproduction test in mallard ducks. However, these tests were not required. PSR has asked EPA for the results of any of these health tests, if indeed they were completed, as well as health testing data submitted with the importer's premanufacture notice that was not included in the release of public records. While we received health testing data for unidentified substances that may be for chemical P-11-0091 (the chemical identity was redacted), we did not receive any documents showing completion of the tests for reproductive and long-term toxicological testing, chronic toxicity/carcinogenicity, or avian reproduction. The health testing data PSR received did not appear to show alarming results but also did not appear to test for degradation products of the chemicals – despite the fact that the degradation products of chemical P-11-0091 were the focus of EPA's concern.

Another potential – and unstated – reason for EPA's approval of the chemicals is that EPA generally assumes in its new-chemical reviews that oil and gas chemicals never
leak, spill, migrate underground, or are otherwise released into the environment accidentally. This assumption is not explicitly stated. Rather, it is apparent in a set of documents that EPA has used for decades to predict exposures to chemicals used in oil and gas drilling and hydraulic fracturing. As analyzed by Partnership for Policy Integrity in a 2016 report, the documents reveal that the agency assumes that any releases of chemicals into the environment will be intentional and controlled, such as disposal of chemical-tainted wastewater into injection wells that EPA assumes will never leak, and the use of wastewater for agriculture. The only exception we are aware of to the agency's assumption that all releases of chemicals will be intentional and controlled was in a 1994 document which said that "several of the surfactants such as alcohol ethoxylates and alkyl phenol ethoxylates, as well as organic in situ crosslinkers such as formaldehyde, are sufficiently volatile to result in air emissions from their use." The same document says, however, that "releases to water are assumed to be negligible." It is a dubious assumption.

EPA's longstanding assumption that accidental releases of chemicals are essentially nonexistent is contradicted by data from EPA itself. As early as 1987, the agency documented unintended releases of drilling mud, fracking fluid, and wastewater in a report to Congress on oil and natural gas wastes. The EPA highlighted spills associated with fracking in its 2016 report on fracking and drinking water. Also in 2016, in a tacit admission that its assumption was unrealistic, EPA told Partnership for Policy Integrity that it had planned to develop a new exposure scenario that accounted for leaks and spills of fracking chemicals. In addition, other public sources show that leaks and spills are common in oil and gas operations. For example, Cabot Oil and Gas Corp., Range Resources Corp., and Noble Energy Inc., have told investors that blowouts, leaks, and/or spills are common risks in oil and gas operations. PSR is not aware that EPA has adopted an updated set of assumptions, but in any event, in 2011, EPA generally did not consider accidental releases of oil and gas chemicals as a pathway of exposure. Making this assumption could have enabled EPA to conclude that human exposure to the chemicals would be limited and thus that there would be minimal harm even from an extremely toxic chemical. This perspective could have influenced the agency's decision to approve the three chemicals. PSR has asked EPA why it approved the chemicals and if the agency's unrealistic exposure assumptions played a role, but as of end-June 2021, has not received a response.
LOCATING WHERE PFAS CHEMICALS HAVE BEEN USED: AN ONGOING CHALLENGE

As previously stated, PSR was able to locate oil and gas wells where PFAS or potential PFAS were used, at least some of which might be chemical P-11-0091. But confidentiality claims and other hurdles make it extremely difficult for the public to know for certain where this particular chemical or other oil and gas chemicals associated with PFAS have or are being used. As is discussed above, people can search for wells in which fracking chemicals were used through the nongovernmental organization FracFocus. In addition, California operates its own searchable database for fracking chemicals. The most accurate way to search for chemicals through these databases is by CAS number. Other ways to search are by specific chemical name or trade name, but these are less accurate because a single chemical can have multiple names or trade names, and people conducting a search might be looking under the wrong name. Yet in many cases, as is the case with chemical P-11-0091, all these searches are impossible because the chemical’s CAS number, specific chemical name, and trade name are redacted as trade secrets.

Exemptions under state rules provide several additional ways for oil and gas companies or chemical makers to shield from public scrutiny the use of oil and gas chemicals. For example, state rules typically allow well operators to withhold chemical identities from the public as trade secrets, just as chemical manufacturers or importers are allowed to do under federal law. So even if a chemical importer decided to remove CBI protection from the chemical’s identity under federal law, a well operator could still assert that the identity was a trade secret under state rules. State rules also typically do not require chemical manufacturers or importers to disclose their chemicals at all. There is some evidence that manufacturers and importers may not provide all their fracking chemical identities to well operators or owners, who bear the burden of public disclosure under state rules. In any case, if chemical manufacturers do not disclose fracking chemicals to well operators or owners, these actors cannot disclose the chemicals to the public. Finally, most state rules do not require public disclosure of chemicals used in the drilling process that precedes fracking.

Therefore, if the chemical P-11-0091 were used for drilling as opposed to fracking, there would be no obligation to disclose the chemical publicly under most state rules. Ohio may be the only exception, although Ohio allows well operators to withhold the identities of drilling chemicals as trade secrets.

It may be possible to locate where PFAS chemicals have been used by relying on provisions added to TSCA by Congress in 2016. But even under those provisions, there remain challenges. Some of the added provisions in TSCA enable state and tribal governments, health professionals and first responders to obtain confidential information about chemicals. The provisions also allow disclosure in situations “pursuant to discovery, subpoena, other court order, or any other judicial process otherwise allowed under applicable Federal or State law.” In many of these cases, entities would have to keep the information to themselves and could use it only for limited purposes such as medical treatment, but there is no explicit prohibition on making the information public as part of judicial processes and in other situations.

However, even if officials were to obtain a PFAS chemical’s specific identity, especially its CAS number, there is no guarantee that they could require chemical manufacturers or importers to disclose where the chemical had been used. And even if they could, disclosure after an accident has occurred makes it unlikely that first responders will obtain the information in time to provide appropriate treatment to persons who have been exposed to a dangerous substance. Furthermore, as Youngstown, Ohio Fire Department Battalion Chief Caggiano told Partnership for Policy Integrity in 2019, post-incident disclosure deprives first responders of the ability to plan for a hazardous materials response or prevent serious spread of a dangerous pollutant. In addition, there is no guarantee that a chemical’s CAS number – if obtained through TSCA – would appear in fracking chemical disclosure records, even if the chemical had been used in oil and gas wells. Exemptions previously discussed would enable oil and gas well operators to withhold such information from these state-level disclosures.

Finally, compliance with terms of the updated TSCA
might be an issue. Reporter Eliza Griswold wrote in her 2019 Pulitzer Prize-winning book, Amity and Prosperity, about residents of western Pennsylvania who had sued well owner Range Resources after suffering health impacts and the deaths of animals that they believed were caused by Range’s drilling operations near their homes. The residents requested from Range, among other pieces of information, the full list of chemicals used nearby. Range failed to provide the plaintiffs with a full list despite a court order that was in effect for several years. Range’s lack of compliance was likely due in part to the fact that Range did not know some of the trade secret chemicals used by its subcontractors. A judge declined to sanction Range for failing to comply with the order. The inability to obtain the chemical identities made it more difficult for the residents to establish that Range had harmed them and may have influenced two residents to sign a confidential legal settlement that, Griswold wrote, “left both of them feeling angry and defeated.”164 As is suggested by this example, it is possible that oil and gas companies may be unable to comply with some of the provisions of TSCA requiring disclosure of confidential chemical identities. EPA, state government officials, and courts may have to force other companies in the supply chain, particularly chemical manufacturers, to provide this information.
RECOMMENDATIONS

Considering the evidence that PFAS substances and/or PFAS precursors are being used in oil and gas wells; given EPA’s concerns that a chemical the agency approved for commercial use could degrade into PFOA-like substances that would be toxic, persist in the environment, and bioaccumulate in people’s bodies; and in light of the potential that people might be unknowingly exposed to these highly toxic substances, PSR recommends the following:

• **Health assessment.** EPA and/or states should evaluate through quantitative analysis whether PFAS and/or PFAS breakdown products associated with oil and gas operations have the capacity to harm human health. All potential pathways of exposure should be examined, including inhalation, ingestion, and dermal contact.

• **Testing and tracking.** EPA and/or states should determine where PFAS and chemicals that may be PFAS have been used in oil and gas operations and where related wastes have been deposited. They should test nearby water, soil, flora, and fauna for PFAS.

• **Funding and cleanup.** Oil and gas and chemical firms should be required to provide adequate funding for environmental testing and evaluation, and should PFAS be found, for cleanup. If water cleanup is impossible, the companies responsible for the use of PFAS should pay for alternative sources of drinking water.

• **Public disclosure.** Echoing recommendations by Pennsylvania’s Attorney General in 2020, governments should require full public disclosure of drilling and fracking chemicals before each oil or gas well can be developed. EPA and/or states should inform communities potentially exposed to PFAS about PFAS contamination risks so that the communities can take actions such as water testing and treatment.

• **Moratorium on PFAS use for oil and gas extraction.** Until testing and investigation are complete, EPA and states should not allow PFAS or chemicals that could break down into PFAS to be manufactured, imported, or used for oil and gas drilling or fracking.

• **Limits on drilling and fracking.** The use of PFAS and of chemicals that break down into PFAS in drilling and fracking should prompt governments to prohibit drilling, fracking, and disposal of related wastewater and solid wastes in areas that are relatively unimpacted by oil and gas pollution, and to increase protections in already-impacted regions. When doubt exists as to the existence or danger of contamination, the rule of thumb should be, “First, do no harm.”
ENDNOTES


13 Freedom of Information Act request number EPA-HQ-2014-004977 from Lauren Pagel, Policy Director, Earthworks (March 17, 2014) (on file with PSR).


15 15 USC 2601 et seq.


17 15 USC 2613. 40 CFR 704.7.


19 40 CFR 720.85.

20 Premanufacture Notice for chemicals with EPA case numbers P-11-0091, P-11-0092, P-11-0093 (2010), at 17.

21 40 CFR 720.87.

22 Premanufacture Notice for chemicals with EPA case numbers P-11-0091, P-11-0092, P-11-0093 (2010), at 27.


25 Consent Order for premanufacture notice chemicals with EPA case numbers P-11-0091, P-11-0092, and P-11-0093, at vii-ix.


27 Consent Order for premanufacture notice chemicals with EPA case numbers P-11-0091, P-11-0092, and P-11-0093, at ix.


30 PSR searched the Toxics Substances Control Act Inventory (TSCA) and did not find listings for P-11-0092 or P-11-0093. Accessed June 2, 2021 at https://www.epa.gov/tsca-inventory/how-access-tsca-inventory#download. We also used EPA’s PMN and Accession Number search for accession numbers assigned to these chemicals and found that none had been assigned – a further indication that the chemicals have not been used commercially. Accessed June 2, 2021 at https://ofmpub.epa.gov/sor_internet/registry/substreg/searchandretrieve/cbi/search.do. Explanations of the TSCA Inventory and accession numbers are located in the text of the report.


36 Zacariah Hildenbrand, Research Professor Chemistry and Biochemistry, University of Texas El Paso. Accessed May 16, 2021 at...
The result was an estimated maximum of 17.6 pounds of potential PFAS used to fracture the well.

44 FracFocus. Find a Well. API number 30-025-42387 operated by EOG Resources, Inc., and fractured in Lea County New Mexico in 2015 with fluoroalkyl alcohol substituted polyethylene glycol among other chemicals.


50 U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. Low-volume exemption notice for chemical with case number L-16-0336 (disclosed by EPA in response to Freedom of Information Act request # EPA-2020-007078 from Physicians for Social Responsibility (Sept. 21, 2020)). Accessed April 12, 2021 at https://foiaonline.gov/foiaonline/action/public/subm issionDetails?trackingNumber=EPA-2020-007078&type=Request. The document was released in response to a Freedom of Information Act request from PSR seeking, among other things, records showing whether EPA had allowed any additional chemicals that contain or that could degrade into PFAS to be used in drilling, fracking and/or acid fracturing.


66 Ohio Department of Natural Resources, Division of Oil and Gas Resources Management, Oil and Gas Well Locator, Form 8(A) for well API Number 34-111-24285. Accessed Aug. 2, 2019 at https://gis.ohiodnr.gov/MapViewer/?config=oilgasiws.


68 Frank R. Lautenberg Chemical Safety for the 21st Century Act, Pub. L. No. 114-182 §§ 5(a)(3) and § 5(g), codified at 15 USC § 2604 (a)(3) and (g).


ENDNOTES [CONTINUED]


113 Electronic mail communication with Silverio Caggiano (Oct. 27, 2020). Telephone interview with Silverio Caggiano (Oct. 28, 2020).


125 40 CFR 720.3, 720.25. Assignment and Application of the “Unique Chemicals Identifier” Under TSCA Section 14; Notice of Public Meeting and Opportunity to Comment. 82 FR 21386 (May 24, 2017).


132 U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. Chemical Data Reporting. Access CDR Data, 2016 CDR Data, 2016 CDR Industrial Processing and Use. Accessed January 1, 2021 at https://www.epa.gov/chemical-data-reporting/access-cdr-data#2016. One additional scenario is that a third company (neither Chemours nor Dupont) originally notified EPA in 2011 that it was importing the chemical and that the chemical was used commercially in quantities too low to require reporting under the chemical data reporting system.


137 40 CFR 711.15 (b)(2).


139 U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. Consent order for premanufacture notice chemicals with EPA case numbers P-11-0091, P-11-0092, P-11-0093, at vii.

140 U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. Consent order for premanufacture notice chemicals with EPA case numbers P-11-0091, P-11-0092, P-11-0093, at ix-x.

141 U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. Consent order for premanufacture notice chemicals with EPA case numbers P-11-0091, P-11-0092, P-11-0093, at xii-x.


143 U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. Consent order for premanufacture notice chemicals with EPA case numbers P-11-0091, P-11-0092, P-11-0093, at xii.

144 U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. Consent order for premanufacture notice chemicals with EPA case numbers P-11-0091, P-11-0092, P-11-0093, at xii-xvi.

145 U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. Consent order for premanufacture notice chemicals with EPA case numbers P-11-0091, P-11-0092, P-11-0093, at xii-xvii.

146 U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. Consent order for premanufacture notice chemicals with EPA case numbers P-11-0091, P-11-0092, P-11-0093, at xii-xviii.


151 Electronic mail from Greg Schweer, Chief New Chemicals Management Branch, Office of Pollution Prevention and Toxics, to Dusty Horwitt, Senior Counsel at Partnership for Policy Integrity (July 14, 2015). Meeting with Greg Schweer et al., Chief New Chemicals Management Branch, Office of Pollution Prevention and Toxics, Dusty Horwitt, Senior Counsel, Partnership for Policy Integrity, Aaron Mintzes, Policy Advocate, Earthworks (February 10, 2016).


