

months. Essential workers who have already earned premium pay for essential work performed during the COVID–19 public health emergency remain eligible for additional payments, and an essential worker may receive both retrospective premium pay for prior work as well as prospective premium pay for current or ongoing work.

To ensure any grants respond to the needs of essential workers and are made in a fair and transparent manner, the rule imposes some additional reporting requirements for grants to third-party employers, including the public disclosure of grants provided. See Section VIII of this **SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION**, discussing reporting requirements. In responding to the needs of essential workers, a grant to an employer may provide premium pay to eligible workers performing essential work, as these terms are defined in the interim final rule and discussed above. A grant provided to an employer may also be for essential work performed by eligible workers pursuant to a contract. For example, if a municipality contracts with a third party to perform sanitation work, the third-party contractor could be eligible to receive a grant to provide premium pay for these eligible workers.

Question 10: Are there additional sectors beyond those listed in the interim final rule that should be considered essential critical infrastructure sectors?

Question 11: What, if any, additional criteria should Treasury consider to ensure that premium pay responds to essential workers?

Question 12: What consideration, if any, should be given to the criteria on salary threshold, including measure and level, for requiring written justification?

C. Revenue Loss

Recipients may use payments from the Fiscal Recovery Funds for the provision of government services to the extent of the reduction in revenue experienced due to the COVID–19 public health emergency.¹⁰⁸ Pursuant to sections 602(c)(1)(C) and 603(c)(1)(C) of the Act, a recipient's reduction in revenue is measured relative to the revenue collected in the most recent full fiscal year prior to the emergency.

Many State, local, and Tribal governments are experiencing significant budget shortfalls, which can have a devastating impact on communities. State government tax revenue from major sources were down 4.3 percent in the six months ended September 2020, relative to the same

period 2019.¹⁰⁹ At the local level, nearly 90 percent of cities have reported being less able to meet the fiscal needs of their communities and, on average, cities expect a double-digit decline in general fund revenues in their fiscal year 2021.¹¹⁰ Similarly, surveys of Tribal governments and Tribal enterprises found majorities of respondents reporting substantial cost increases and revenue decreases, with Tribal governments reporting reductions in healthcare, housing, social services, and economic development activities as a result of reduced revenues.¹¹¹ These budget shortfalls are particularly problematic in the current environment, as State, local, and Tribal governments work to mitigate and contain the COVID–19 pandemic and help citizens weather the economic downturn.

Further, State, local, and Tribal government budgets affect the broader economic recovery. During the period following the 2007–2009 recession, State and local government budget pressures led to fiscal austerity that was a significant drag on the overall economic recovery.¹¹² Inflation-adjusted State and local government revenue did not return to the previous peak until 2013,¹¹³ while State, local, and Tribal government employment did not recover to its prior peak for over a decade, until August 2019—just a few months before the COVID–19 public health emergency began.¹¹⁴

¹⁰⁹ Major sources include personal income tax, corporate income tax, sales tax, and property tax. See Lucy Dadayan, States Reported Revenue Growth in July–September Quarter, Reflecting Revenue Shifts from the Prior Quarter, State Tax and Econ. Rev. (Q. 3, 2020), available at https://www.urban.org/sites/default/files/publication/103938/state-tax-and-economic-review-2020-q3_0.pdf.

¹¹⁰ National League of Cities, City Fiscal Conditions (2020), available at https://www.nlc.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/08/City_Fiscal_Conditions_2020_FINAL.pdf.

¹¹¹ Surveys conducted by the Center for Indian Country Development at the Federal Reserve Bank of Minneapolis in March, April, and September 2020. See Moreno & Sobrepena, *supra* note 73.

¹¹² See, e.g., Fitzpatrick, Haughwout & Setren, Fiscal Drag from the State and Local Sector?, Liberty Street Economics Blog, Federal Reserve Bank of New York (June 27, 2012), <https://www.libertystreeteconomics.newyorkfed.org/2012/06/fiscal-drag-from-the-state-and-local-sector.html>; Jiri Jonas, Great Recession and Fiscal Squeeze at U.S. Subnational Government Level, IMF Working Paper 12/184, (July 2012), available at <https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/wp/2012/wp12184.pdf>; Gordon, *supra* note 9.

¹¹³ State and local government general revenue from own sources, adjusted for inflation using the GDP price index. U.S. Census Bureau, Annual Survey of State Government Finances and U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis, National Income and Product Accounts.

¹¹⁴ U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, All Employees, State Government [CES9092000001] and All Employees, Local Government [CES9093000001],

Sections 602(c)(1)(C) and 603(c)(1)(C) of the Act allow recipients facing budget shortfalls to use payments from the Fiscal Recovery Funds to avoid cuts to government services and, thus, enable State, local, and Tribal governments to continue to provide valuable services and ensure that fiscal austerity measures do not hamper the broader economic recovery. The interim final rule implements these provisions by establishing a definition of “general revenue” for purposes of calculating a loss in revenue and by providing a methodology for calculating revenue lost due to the COVID–19 public health emergency.

General Revenue. The interim final rule adopts a definition of “general revenue” based largely on the components reported under “General Revenue from Own Sources” in the Census Bureau’s Annual Survey of State and Local Government Finances, and for purposes of this interim final rule, helps to ensure that the components of general revenue would be calculated in a consistent manner.¹¹⁵ By relying on a methodology that is both familiar and comprehensive, this approach minimizes burden to recipients and provides consistency in the measurement of general revenue across a diverse set of recipients.

The interim final rule defines the term “general revenue” to include revenues collected by a recipient and generated from its underlying economy and would capture a range of different types of tax revenues, as well as other types of revenue that are available to support government services.¹¹⁶ In calculating revenue, recipients should sum across all revenue streams covered as general revenue. This approach minimizes the administrative burden for recipients, provides for greater consistency across recipients, and presents a more accurate representation of the overall impact of

retrieved from FRED, Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis, <https://fred.stlouisfed.org/series/CES9092000001> and <https://fred.stlouisfed.org/series/CES9093000001> (last visited Apr. 27, 2021).

¹¹⁵ U.S. Census Bureau, Annual Survey of State and Local Government Finances, <https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/gov-finances.html> (last visited Apr. 30, 2021).

¹¹⁶ The interim final rule would define tax revenue in a manner consistent with the Census Bureau’s definition of tax revenue, with certain changes (*i.e.*, inclusion of revenue from liquor stores and certain intergovernmental transfers). Current charges are defined as “charges imposed for providing current services or for the sale of products in connection with general government activities.” It includes revenues such as public education institution, public hospital, and toll revenues. Miscellaneous general revenue comprises of all other general revenue of governments from their own sources (*i.e.*, other than liquor store, utility, and insurance trust revenue), including rents, royalties, lottery proceeds, and fines.

¹⁰⁸ ARPA, *supra* note 16.

the COVID-19 public health emergency on a recipient's revenue, rather than relying on financial reporting prepared by each recipient, which vary in methodology used and which generally aggregates revenue by purpose rather than by source.¹¹⁷

Consistent with the Census Bureau's definition of "general revenue from own sources," the definition of general revenue in the interim final rule would exclude refunds and other correcting transactions, proceeds from issuance of debt or the sale of investments, and agency or private trust transactions. The definition of general revenue also would exclude revenue generated by utilities and insurance trusts. In this way, the definition of general revenue focuses on sources that are generated from economic activity and are available to fund government services, rather than a fund or administrative unit established to account for and control a particular activity.¹¹⁸ For example, public utilities typically require financial support from the State, local, or Tribal government, rather than providing revenue to such government, and any revenue that is generated by public utilities typically is used to support the public utility's continued operation, rather than being used as a source of revenue to support government services generally.

The definition of general revenue would include all revenue from Tribal enterprises, as this revenue is generated from economic activity and is available to fund government services. Tribes are not able to generate revenue through taxes in the same manner as State and local governments and, as a result, Tribal enterprises are critical sources of revenue for Tribal governments that enable Tribal governments to provide a range of services, including elder care, health clinics, wastewater management, and forestry.

Finally, the term "general revenue" includes intergovernmental transfers between State and local governments, but excludes intergovernmental transfers from the Federal Government, including Federal transfers made via a State to a local government pursuant to the CRF or as part of the Fiscal Recovery Funds. States and local governments often share or collect revenue on behalf of one another, which results in

intergovernmental transfers. When attributing revenue to a unit of government, the Census Bureau's methodology considers which unit of government imposes, collects, and retains the revenue and assigns the revenue to the unit of government that meets at least two of those three factors.¹¹⁹ For purposes of measuring loss in general revenue due to the COVID-19 public health emergency and to better allow continued provision of government services, the retention and ability to use the revenue is a more critical factor. Accordingly, and to better measure the funds available for the provision of government services, the definition of general revenue would include intergovernmental transfers from States or local governments other than funds transferred pursuant to ARPA, CRF, or another Federal program. This formulation recognizes the importance of State transfers for local government revenue.¹²⁰

Calculation of Loss. In general, recipients will compute the extent of the reduction in revenue by comparing actual revenue to a counterfactual trend representing what could have been expected to occur in the absence of the pandemic. This approach measures losses in revenue relative to the most recent fiscal year prior to the COVID-19 public health emergency by using the most recent pre-pandemic fiscal year as the starting point for estimates of revenue growth absent the pandemic. In other words, the counterfactual trend starts with the last full fiscal year prior to the COVID-19 public health emergency and then assumes growth at a constant rate in the subsequent years. Because recipients can estimate the revenue shortfall at multiple points in time throughout the covered period as revenue is collected, this approach accounts for variation across recipients in the timing of pandemic impacts.¹²¹ Although revenue may decline for

reasons unrelated to the COVID-19 public health emergency, to minimize the administrative burden on recipients and taking into consideration the devastating effects of the COVID-19 public health emergency, any diminution in actual revenues relative to the counterfactual pre-pandemic trend would be presumed to have been due to the COVID-19 public health emergency.

For purposes of measuring revenue growth in the counterfactual trend, recipients may use a *growth adjustment* of either 4.1 percent per year or the recipient's average annual revenue growth over the three full fiscal years prior to the COVID-19 public health emergency, whichever is higher. The option of 4.1 percent represents the average annual growth across all State and local government "General Revenue from Own Sources" in the most recent three years of available data.¹²² This approach provides recipients with a standardized growth adjustment when calculating the counterfactual revenue trend and thus minimizes administrative burden, while not disadvantaging recipients with revenue growth that exceeded the national average prior to the COVID-19 public health emergency by permitting these recipients to use their own revenue growth rate over the preceding three years.

Recipients should calculate the extent of the reduction in revenue as of four points in time: December 31, 2020; December 31, 2021; December 31, 2022; and December 31, 2023. To calculate the extent of the reduction in revenue at each of these dates, recipients should follow a four-step process:

- *Step 1:* Identify revenues collected in the most recent full fiscal year prior to the public health emergency (*i.e.*, last full fiscal year before January 27, 2020), called the *base year revenue*.
- *Step 2:* Estimate *counterfactual revenue*, which is equal to *base year revenue* * $[(1 + \text{growth adjustment})^{(n/12)}]$, where *n* is the number of months elapsed since the end of the base year to the calculation date, and *growth adjustment* is the greater of 4.1 percent and the recipient's average annual revenue growth in the three full fiscal

¹¹⁹ U.S. Census Bureau, Government Finance and Employment Classification Manual (Dec. 2000), <https://www2.census.gov/govs/class/classfull.pdf>.

¹²⁰ For example, in 2018, state transfers to localities accounted for approximately 27 percent of local revenues. U.S. Census Bureau, Annual Survey of State and Local Government Finances, Table 1 (2018), <https://www.census.gov/data/datasets/2018/econ/local/public-use-datasets.html>.

¹²¹ For example, following the 2007-09 recession, local government property tax collections did not begin to decline until 2011, suggesting that property tax collection declines can lag downturns. See U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis, Personal current taxes: State and local: Property taxes [S210401A027NBEA], retrieved from Federal Reserve Economic Data, Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis, <https://fred.stlouisfed.org/graph/?g=r3YI> (last visited Apr. 22, 2021). Estimating the reduction in revenue at points throughout the covered period will allow for this type of lagged effect to be taken into account during the covered period.

¹²² Together with revenue from liquor stores from 2015 to 2018. This estimate does not include any intergovernmental transfers. A recipient using the three-year average to calculate their growth adjustment must be based on the definition of general revenue, including treatment of intergovernmental transfers. 2015-2018 represents the most recent available data. See U.S. Census Bureau, State & Local Government Finance Historical Datasets and Tables (2018), <https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/gov-finances/data/datasets.html>.

¹¹⁷ Fund-oriented reporting, such as what is used under the Governmental Accounting Standards Board (GASB), focuses on the types of uses and activities funded by the revenue, as opposed to the economic activity from which the revenue is sourced. See Governmental Accounting Standards Series, Statement No. 54 of the Governmental Accounting Standards Board: Fund Balance Reporting and Governmental Fund Type Definitions, No. 287-B (Feb. 2009).

¹¹⁸ *Supra* note 116.

years prior to the COVID-19 public health emergency.

- *Step 3:* Identify *actual revenue*, which equals revenues collected over the past twelve months as of the calculation date.

- *Step 4:* The extent of the reduction in revenue is equal to *counterfactual*

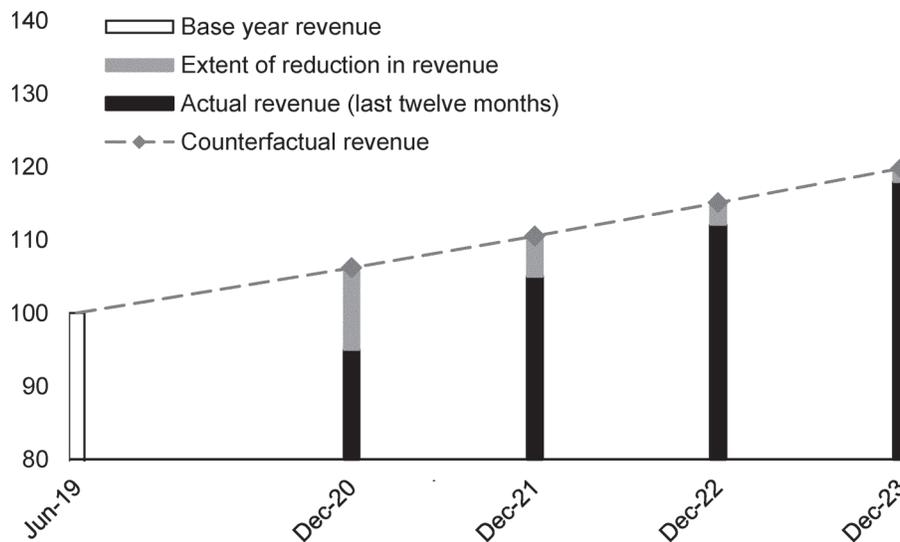
revenue less actual revenue. If actual revenue exceeds counterfactual revenue, the extent of the reduction in revenue is set to zero for that calculation date.

For illustration, consider a hypothetical recipient with *base year revenue* equal to 100. In Step 2, the hypothetical recipient finds that 4.1

percent is greater than the recipient's average annual revenue growth in the three full fiscal years prior to the public health emergency. Furthermore, this recipient's base year ends June 30. In this illustration, *n* (months elapsed) and *counterfactual revenue* would be equal to:

As of:	12/31/2020	12/31/2021	12/31/2022	12/31/2023
<i>n</i> (months elapsed)	18	30	42	54
<i>Counterfactual revenue:</i>	106.2	110.6	115.1	119.8

The overall methodology for calculating the reduction in revenue is illustrated in the figure below:



Upon receiving Fiscal Recovery Fund payments, recipients may immediately calculate revenue loss for the period ending December 31, 2020.

Sections 602(c)(1)(C) and 603(c)(1)(C) of the Act provide recipients with broad latitude to use the Fiscal Recovery Funds for the provision of government services. Government services can include, but are not limited to, maintenance or pay-go funded building¹²³ of infrastructure, including roads; modernization of cybersecurity, including hardware, software, and protection of critical infrastructure; health services; environmental remediation; school or educational services; and the provision of police, fire, and other public safety services. However, expenses associated with obligations under instruments evidencing financial indebtedness for

borrowed money would not be considered the provision of government services, as these financing expenses do not directly provide services or aid to citizens. Specifically, government services would not include interest or principal on any outstanding debt instrument, including, for example, short-term revenue or tax anticipation notes, or fees or issuance costs associated with the issuance of new debt. For the same reasons, government services would not include satisfaction of any obligation arising under or pursuant to a settlement agreement, judgment, consent decree, or judicially confirmed debt restructuring in a judicial, administrative, or regulatory proceeding, except if the judgment or settlement required the provision of government services. That is, satisfaction of a settlement or judgment itself is not a government service, unless the settlement required the provision of government services. In addition, replenishing financial reserves (e.g., rainy day or other reserve funds) would

not be considered provision of a government service, since such expenses do not directly relate to the provision of government services.

Question 13: Are there sources of revenue that either should or should not be included in the interim final rule's measure of "general revenue" for recipients? If so, discuss why these sources either should or should not be included.

Question 14: In the interim final rule, recipients are expected to calculate the reduction in revenue on an aggregate basis. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of, and any potential concerns with, this approach, including circumstances in which it could be necessary or appropriate to calculate the reduction in revenue by source.

Question 15: Treasury is considering whether to take into account other factors, including actions taken by the recipient as well as the expiration of the COVID-19 public health emergency, in determining whether to presume that revenue losses are "due to" the COVID-

¹²³ Pay-go infrastructure funding refers to the practice of funding capital projects with cash-on-hand from taxes, fees, grants, and other sources, rather than with borrowed sums.

19 public health emergency. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of this presumption, including when, if ever, during the covered period it would be appropriate to reevaluate the presumption that all losses are attributable to the COVID-19 public health emergency.

Question 16: Do recipients anticipate lagged revenue effects of the public health emergency? If so, when would these lagged effects be expected to occur, and what can Treasury do to support these recipients through its implementation of the program?

Question 17: In the interim final rule, paying interest or principal on government debt is not considered provision of a government service. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of this approach, including circumstances in which paying interest or principal on government debt could be considered provision of a government service.

D. Investments in Infrastructure

To assist in meeting the critical need for investments and improvements to existing infrastructure in water, sewer, and broadband, the Fiscal Recovery Funds provide funds to State, local, and Tribal governments to make necessary investments in these sectors. The interim final rule outlines eligible uses within each category, allowing for a broad range of necessary investments in projects that improve access to clean drinking water, improve wastewater and stormwater infrastructure systems, and provide access to high-quality broadband service. Necessary investments are designed to provide an adequate minimum level of service and are unlikely to be made using private sources of funds. Necessary investments include projects that are required to maintain a level of service that, at least, meets applicable health-based standards, taking into account resilience to climate change, or establishes or improves broadband service to unserved or underserved populations to reach an adequate level to permit a household to work or attend school, and that are unlikely to be met with private sources of funds.¹²⁴

It is important that necessary investments in water, sewer, or broadband infrastructure be carried out in ways that produce high-quality infrastructure, avert disruptive and costly delays, and promote efficiency. Treasury encourages recipients to

ensure that water, sewer, and broadband projects use strong labor standards, including project labor agreements and community benefits agreements that offer wages at or above the prevailing rate and include local hire provisions, not only to promote effective and efficient delivery of high-quality infrastructure projects but also to support the economic recovery through strong employment opportunities for workers. Using these practices in construction projects may help to ensure a reliable supply of skilled labor that would minimize disruptions, such as those associated with labor disputes or workplace injuries.

To provide public transparency on whether projects are using practices that promote on-time and on-budget delivery, Treasury will seek information from recipients on their workforce plans and practices related to water, sewer, and broadband projects undertaken with Fiscal Recovery Funds. Treasury will provide additional guidance and instructions on the reporting requirements at a later date.

1. Water and Sewer Infrastructure

The ARPA provides funds to State, local, and Tribal governments to make necessary investments in water and sewer infrastructure.¹²⁵ By permitting funds to be used for water and sewer infrastructure needs, Congress recognized the critical role that clean drinking water and services for the collection and treatment of wastewater and stormwater play in protecting public health. Understanding that State, local, and Tribal governments have a broad range of water and sewer infrastructure needs, the interim final rule provides these governments with wide latitude to identify investments in water and sewer infrastructure that are of the highest priority for their own communities, which may include projects on privately-owned infrastructure. The interim final rule does this by aligning eligible uses of the Fiscal Recovery Funds with the wide range of types or categories of projects that would be eligible to receive financial assistance through the Environmental Protection Agency's (EPA) Clean Water State Revolving Fund (CWSRF) or Drinking Water State Revolving Fund (DWSRF).¹²⁶

¹²⁵ Sections 602(c)(1)(D), 603(c)(1)(D) of the Act.

¹²⁶ Environmental Protection Agency, Drinking Water State Revolving fund, <https://www.epa.gov/dwsrf> (last visited Apr. 30, 2021); Environmental Protection Agency, Clean Water State Revolving Fund, <https://www.epa.gov/cwsrf> (last visited Apr. 30, 2021).

Established by the 1987 amendments¹²⁷ to the Clean Water Act (CWA),¹²⁸ the CWSRF provides financial assistance for a wide range of water infrastructure projects to improve water quality and address water pollution in a way that enables each State to address and prioritize the needs of their populations. The types of projects eligible for CWSRF assistance include projects to construct, improve, and repair wastewater treatment plants, control non-point sources of pollution, improve resilience of infrastructure to severe weather events, create green infrastructure, and protect waterbodies from pollution.¹²⁹ Each of the 51 State programs established under the CWSRF have the flexibility to direct funding to their particular environmental needs, and each State may also have its own statutes, rules, and regulations that guide project eligibility.¹³⁰

The DWSRF was modeled on the CWSRF and created as part of the 1996 amendments to the Safe Drinking Water Act (SDWA),¹³¹ with the principal objective of helping public water systems obtain financing for improvements necessary to protect public health and comply with drinking water regulations.¹³² Like the CWSRF,

¹²⁷ Water Quality Act of 1987, Public Law 100-4.

¹²⁸ Federal Water Pollution Control Act as amended, codified at 33 U.S.C. 1251 *et seq.*, common name (Clean Water Act). In 2009, the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act created the Green Project Reserve, which increased the focus on green infrastructure, water and energy efficient, and environmentally innovative projects. Public Law 111-5. The CWA was amended by the Water Resources Reform and Development Act of 2014 to further expand the CWSRF's eligibilities. Public Law 113-121. *The CWSRF's eligibilities were further expanded in 2018 by the America's Water Infrastructure Act of 2018, Public Law 115-270.*

¹²⁹ See Environmental Protection Agency, The Drinking Water State Revolving Funds: Financing America's Drinking Water, EPA-816-R-00-023 (Nov. 2000), <https://nepis.epa.gov/Exec/zyPDF.cgi/200024WB.PDF?Dockey=200024WB.PDF>; See also Environmental Protection Agency, *Learn About the Clean Water State Revolving Fund*, <https://www.epa.gov/cwsrf/learn-about-clean-water-state-revolving-fund-cwsrf> (last visited Apr. 30, 2021).

¹³⁰ 33 U.S.C. 1383(c). See also Environmental Protection Agency, *Overview of Clean Water State Revolving Fund Eligibilities* (May 2016), https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2016-07/documents/overview_of_cwsrf_eligibilities_may_2016.pdf; Claudia Copeland, *Clean Water Act: A Summary of the Law*, Congressional Research Service (Oct. 18, 2016), <https://fas.org/sgp/crs/misc/RL30030.pdf>; Jonathan L. Ramseur, *Wastewater Infrastructure: Overview, Funding, and Legislative Developments*, Congressional Research Service (May 22, 2018), <https://fas.org/sgp/crs/misc/R44963.pdf>.

¹³¹ 42 U.S.C. 300j-12.

¹³² Environmental Protection Agency, *Drinking Water State Revolving Fund Eligibility Handbook*, (June 2017), https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2017-06/documents/dwsrf_eligibility_handbook_june_13_2017_updated_508_version.pdf; Environmental Protection Agency, *Drinking Water*

¹²⁴ Treasury notes that using funds to support or oppose collective bargaining would not be included as part of "necessary investments in water, sewer, or broadband infrastructure."

the DWSRF provides States with the flexibility to meet the needs of their populations.¹³³ The primary use of DWSRF funds is to assist communities in making water infrastructure capital improvements, including the installation and replacement of failing treatment and distribution systems.¹³⁴ In administering these programs, States must give priority to projects that ensure compliance with applicable health and environmental safety requirements; address the most serious risks to human health; and assist systems most in need on a per household basis according to State affordability criteria.¹³⁵

By aligning use of Fiscal Recovery Funds with the categories or types of eligible projects under the existing EPA state revolving fund programs, the interim final rule provides recipients with the flexibility to respond to the needs of their communities while ensuring that investments in water and sewer infrastructure made using Fiscal Recovery Funds are necessary. As discussed above, the CWSRF and DWSRF were designed to provide funding for projects that protect public health and safety by ensuring compliance with wastewater and drinking water health standards.¹³⁶ The need to provide funding through the state revolving funds suggests that these projects are less likely to be addressed with private sources of funding; for example, by remediating failing or inadequate infrastructure, much of which is publicly owned, and by addressing non-point sources of pollution. This approach of aligning with the EPA state revolving fund programs also supports expedited project identification and investment so that needed relief for the people and communities most affected by the pandemic can be deployed expeditiously and have a positive impact on their health and wellbeing as soon as possible. Further, the interim final rule is intended to preserve flexibility for award recipients to direct funding to their own particular needs and priorities and would not preclude recipients from applying their own additional project eligibility criteria.

In addition, responding to the immediate needs of the COVID-19 public health emergency may have diverted both personnel and financial resources from other State, local, and Tribal priorities, including projects to ensure compliance with applicable water health and quality standards and provide safe drinking and usable water.¹³⁷ Through sections 602(c)(1)(D) and 603(c)(1)(D), the ARPA provides resources to address these needs. Moreover, using Fiscal Recovery Funds in accordance with the priorities of the CWA and SWDA to “assist systems most in need on a per household basis according to state affordability criteria” would also have the benefit of providing vulnerable populations with safe drinking water that is critical to their health and, thus, their ability to work and learn.¹³⁸

Recipients may use Fiscal Recovery Funds to invest in a broad range of projects that improve drinking water infrastructure, such as building or upgrading facilities and transmission, distribution, and storage systems, including replacement of lead service lines. Given the lifelong impacts of lead exposure for children, and the widespread nature of lead service lines, Treasury encourages recipients to consider projects to replace lead service lines.

Fiscal Recovery Funds may also be used to support the consolidation or establishment of drinking water systems. With respect to wastewater infrastructure, recipients may use Fiscal Recovery Funds to construct publicly owned treatment infrastructure, manage and treat stormwater or subsurface drainage water, facilitate water reuse, and secure publicly owned treatment works, among other uses. Finally, consistent with the CWSRF and DWSRF, Fiscal Recovery Funds may be used for cybersecurity needs to protect water or sewer infrastructure, such as developing effective cybersecurity practices and measures at drinking water systems and publicly owned treatment works.

Many of the types of projects eligible under either the CWSRF or DWSRF also

support efforts to address climate change. For example, by taking steps to manage potential sources of pollution and preventing these sources from reaching sources of drinking water, projects eligible under the DWSRF and the ARPA may reduce energy required to treat drinking water. Similarly, projects eligible under the CWSRF include measures to conserve and reuse water or reduce the energy consumption of public water treatment facilities. Treasury encourages recipients to consider green infrastructure investments and projects to improve resilience to the effects of climate change. For example, more frequent and extreme precipitation events combined with construction and development trends have led to increased instances of stormwater runoff, water pollution, and flooding. Green infrastructure projects that support stormwater system resiliency could include rain gardens that provide water storage and filtration benefits, and green streets, where vegetation, soil, and engineered systems are combined to direct and filter rainwater from impervious surfaces. In cases of a natural disaster, recipients may also use Fiscal Recovery Funds to provide relief, such as interconnecting water systems or rehabilitating existing wells during an extended drought.

Question 18: What are the advantages and disadvantages of aligning eligible uses with the eligible project type requirements of the DWSRF and CWSRF? What other water or sewer project categories, if any, should Treasury consider in addition to DWSRF and CWSRF eligible projects? Should Treasury consider a broader general category of water and sewer projects?

Question 19: What additional water and sewer infrastructure categories, if any, should Treasury consider to address and respond to the needs of unserved, underserved, or rural communities? How do these projects differ from DWSRF and CWSRF eligible projects?

Question 20: What new categories of water and sewer infrastructure, if any, should Treasury consider to support State, local, and Tribal governments in mitigating the negative impacts of climate change? Discuss emerging technologies and processes that support resiliency of water and sewer infrastructure. Discuss any challenges faced by States and local governments when pursuing or implementing climate resilient infrastructure projects.

Question 21: Infrastructure projects related to dams and reservoirs are generally not eligible under the CWSRF and DWSRF categories. Should Treasury consider expanding eligible

Infrastructure Needs Survey and Assessment: Sixth Report to Congress (March 2018), https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2018-10/documents/corrected_sixth_drinking_water_infrastructure_needs_survey_and_assessment.pdf.

¹³³ *Id.*

¹³⁴ *Id.*

¹³⁵ 42 U.S.C. 300j-12(b)(3)(A).

¹³⁶ Environmental Protection Agency, Learn About the Clean Water State Revolving Fund, <https://www.epa.gov/cwsrf/learn-about-clean-water-state-revolving-fund-cwsrf> (last visited Apr. 30, 2021); 42 U.S.C. 300j-12.

¹³⁷ House Committee on the Budget, State and Local Governments are in Dire Need of Federal Relief (Aug. 19, 2020), <https://budget.house.gov/publications/report/state-and-local-governments-are-dire-need-federal-relief>.

¹³⁸ Environmental Protection Agency, Drinking Water State Revolving Fund (Nov. 2019), https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2019-11/documents/fact_sheet_-_dwsrf_overview_final_0.pdf; Environmental Protection Agency, National Benefits Analysis for Drinking Water Regulations, <https://www.epa.gov/sdwa/national-benefits-analysis-drinking-water-regulations> (last visited Apr. 30, 2020).

infrastructure under the interim final rule to include dam and reservoir projects? Discuss public health, environmental, climate, or equity benefits and costs in expanding the eligibility to include these types of projects.

2. Broadband Infrastructure

The COVID-19 public health emergency has underscored the importance of universally available, high-speed, reliable, and affordable broadband coverage as millions of Americans rely on the internet to participate in, among critical activities, remote school, healthcare, and work. Recognizing the need for such connectivity, the ARPA provides funds to State, territorial, local, and Tribal governments to make necessary investments in broadband infrastructure.

The National Telecommunications and Information Administration (NTIA) highlighted the growing necessity of broadband in daily lives through its analysis of NTIA Internet Use Survey data, noting that Americans turn to broadband internet access service for every facet of daily life including work, study, and healthcare.¹³⁹ With increased use of technology for daily activities and the movement by many businesses and schools to operating remotely during the pandemic, broadband has become even more critical for people across the country to carry out their daily lives.

By at least one measure, however, tens of millions of Americans live in areas where there is no broadband infrastructure that provides download speeds greater than 25 Mbps and upload speeds of 3 Mbps.¹⁴⁰ By contrast, as noted below, many households use upload and download speeds of 100 Mbps to meet their daily needs. Even in areas where broadband infrastructure

exists, broadband access may be out of reach for millions of Americans because it is unaffordable, as the United States has some of the highest broadband prices in the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD).¹⁴¹ There are disparities in availability as well; historically, Americans living in territories and Tribal lands as well as rural areas have disproportionately lacked sufficient broadband infrastructure.¹⁴² Moreover, rapidly growing demand has, and will likely continue to, quickly outpace infrastructure capacity, a phenomenon acknowledged by various states around the country that have set scalability requirements to account for this anticipated growth in demand.¹⁴³

The interim final rule provides that eligible investments in broadband are those that are designed to provide services meeting adequate speeds and are provided to unserved and underserved households and businesses. Understanding that States, territories, localities, and Tribal governments have a wide range of varied broadband infrastructure needs, the interim final rule provides award recipients with flexibility to identify the specific locations within their communities to be served and to otherwise design the project.

Under the interim final rule, eligible projects are expected to be designed to deliver, upon project completion, service that reliably meets or exceeds symmetrical upload and download speeds of 100 Mbps. There may be instances in which it would not be practicable for a project to deliver such service speeds because of the geography, topography, or excessive costs associated with such a project. In these instances, the affected project would be expected to be designed to deliver, upon project completion, service that reliably meets or exceeds 100 Mbps download and between at least 20 Mbps and 100 Mbps upload speeds and be scalable to

a minimum of 100 Mbps symmetrical for download and upload speeds.¹⁴⁴ In setting these standards, Treasury identified speeds necessary to ensure that broadband infrastructure is sufficient to enable users to generally meet household needs, including the ability to support the simultaneous use of work, education, and health applications, and also sufficiently robust to meet increasing household demands for bandwidth. Treasury also recognizes that different communities and their members may have a broad range of internet needs and that those needs may change over time.

In considering the appropriate speed requirements for eligible projects, Treasury considered estimates of typical households demands during the pandemic. Using the Federal Communication Commission's (FCC) Broadband Speed Guide, for example, a household with two telecommuters and two to three remote learners today are estimated to need 100 Mbps download to work simultaneously.¹⁴⁵ In households with more members, the demands may be greater, and in households with fewer members, the demands may be less.

In considering the appropriate speed requirements for eligible projects, Treasury also considered data usage patterns and how bandwidth needs have changed over time for U.S. households and businesses as people's use of technology in their daily lives has evolved. In the few years preceding the pandemic, market research data showed that average upload speeds in the United States surpassed over 10 Mbps in 2017¹⁴⁶ and continued to increase significantly, with the average upload speed as of November, 2019 increasing to 48.41 Mbps,¹⁴⁷ attributable, in part to a shift to using broadband and the internet by individuals and businesses

¹³⁹ See, e.g., <https://www.ntia.gov/blog/2020/more-half-american-households-used-internet-health-related-activities-2019-ntia-data-show>; <https://www.ntia.gov/blog/2020/nearly-third-american-employees-worked-remotely-2019-ntia-data-show>; and generally, <https://www.ntia.gov/data/digital-nation-data-explorer>.

¹⁴⁰ As an example, data from the Federal Communications Commission shows that as of June 2020, 9.07 percent of the U.S. population had no available cable or fiber broadband providers providing greater than 25 Mbps download speeds and 3 Mbps upload speeds. Availability was significantly less for rural versus urban populations, with 35.57 percent of the rural population lacking such access, compared with 2.57 percent of the urban population. Availability was also significantly less for tribal versus non-tribal populations, with 35.93 percent of the tribal population lacking such access, compared with 8.74 of the non-tribal population. Federal Communications Commission, Fixed Broadband Deployment, <https://broadbandmap.fcc.gov/#/> (last visited May 9, 2021).

¹⁴¹ How Do U.S. Internet Costs Compare To The Rest Of The World?, BroadbandSearch Blog Post, available at <https://www.broadbandsearch.net/blog/internet-costs-compared-worldwide>.

¹⁴² See, e.g., Federal Communications Commission, Fourteenth Broadband Deployment Report, available at <https://docs.fcc.gov/public/attachments/FCC-21-18A1.pdf>.

¹⁴³ See, e.g., Illinois Department of Commerce & Economic Opportunity, Broadband Grants, h (last visited May 9, 2021), <https://www2.illinois.gov/dceo/ConnectIllinois/Pages/BroadbandGrants.aspx>; Kansas Office of Broadband Development, Broadband Acceleration Grant, <https://www.kansascommerce.gov/wp-content/uploads/2020/11/Broadband-Acceleration-Grant.pdf> (last visited May 9, 2021); New York State Association of Counties, Universal Broadband: Deploying High Speed Internet Access in NYS (Jul. 2017), [https://www.nysac.org/files/BroadbandUpdateReport2017\(1\).pdf](https://www.nysac.org/files/BroadbandUpdateReport2017(1).pdf).

¹⁴⁴ This scalability threshold is consistent with scalability requirements used in other jurisdictions. *Id.*

¹⁴⁵ Federal Communications Commission, Broadband Speed Guide, <https://www.fcc.gov/consumers/guides/broadband-speed-guide> (last visited Apr. 30, 2021).

¹⁴⁶ Letter from Lisa R. Youngers, President and CEO of Fiber Broadband Association to FCC, WC Docket No. 19-126 (filed Jan. 3, 2020), including an Appendix with research from RVA LLC, *Data Review Of The Importance of Upload Speeds* (Jan. 2020), and Ookla speed test data, available at <https://ecfsapi.fcc.gov/file/101030085118517/FCC%20RDOF%20Jan%203%20Ex%20Parte.pdf>. Additional information on historic growth in data usage is provided in Schools, Health & Libraries Broadband Coalition, *Common Sense Solutions for Closing the Digital Divide*, Apr. 29, 2021.

¹⁴⁷ *Id.* See also United States's Mobile and Broadband internet Speeds—Speedtest Global Index, available at <https://www.speedtest.net/global-index/united-states#fixed>.