

## Appendix 1. Key Variables in Oil Spill Impact Framework

**Table A1.1 Oil spill variables**

| Variable              | Effect   | Citations   |
|-----------------------|--|---|
| Ship safety features  | Double-hulled ships are less accident-prone than single-hulled ships and spills from double-hulled ships may be less costly.                   | Burgherr 2007; Nyman 2009; Alló and Loureiro 2013                                       |
| Location of spill     | Offshore spills have less direct economic impacts than nearshore spills in proximity of human populations.                                     | White and Molloy 2003; Kontavos et al. 2010   |
| Spill amount and rate | Increased amount of oil spilled increases total damages. Continued release of oil over months necessitates multiple waves of response efforts. | White and Molloy 2003; Loureiro et al. 2005; Punzon et al. 2009; Alló and Loureiro 2013 |
| Type of oil           | Chemical composition of oil influences dispersal characteristics (distance, depth, and degradation rate) and toxicity.                         | McCoy and Whittier 2003; Herrington et al. 2006   |

**Table A1.2 Disaster management variables**

| Variable                  | Effect   | Citations   |
|---------------------------|--|---|
| Timing of response        | A rapid response can reduce oil spill impacts by orders of magnitude.  | U.S. Department of Commerce 1983; Grigalunas et al. 1986; White and Baker 1998; White and Molloy 2003; Nyman 2009   |
| Governance                | Response plans and on-scene command structures play a critical role in reducing impacts.   | U.S. Department of Commerce 1983; Rodin et al. 1992; Ritchie 1995; White and Molloy 2003  |
| Response technology       | The mix of technologies used to respond (e.g., dispersants, skimmers, manual collection) can increase or decrease response efficiency. These technologies may also create their own short- and long-term damages. Improvements in technology are also driving up response costs.   | George 1961; Foster et al. 1990; De Vogelaere and Foster 1994; Ritchie 1995; Moore et al. 1998; Pearson et al. 1998; Trudel 1998; White and Baker 1998; Cohen et al. 2001; White and Molloy 2003; Vosyliene et al. 2005; Franklin and Warner 2011; Cheong 2012; Fingas 2012 |
| Human capital             | The use of volunteers, military, and other non-market labor can affect response costs (both positively and negatively).  | Loureiro et al. 2005; Cheong 2011; Fourcade 2011; Tucker and O'brien 2011   |
| Natural processes         | Oil-eating bacteria and other natural processes affect recovery times. Some natural process can be reduced by human cleanup strategies (e.g., dispersants can affect oil-eating bacteria).   | Hazen et al. 2010; Gutierrez 2011; Hamdan and Fulmer 2011.  |
| Local culture and context | The scale of cleanup demanded by citizens is culturally specific (i.e., different countries require different levels of recovery) and has increased over time. Also, costs vary by local economic context. Response and recovery are more expensive in some countries than others. | Wirtz et al., 2007; Nyman, 2009; Kontovas et al., 2010; Alló and Loureiro, 2013; Fingas, 2013   |

**Table A1.3 Marine physical environment variables**

| Variable                         | Effect   | Citations   |
|----------------------------------|--|---|
| Connecting waterways             | Interconnectivity of waterways allows oil to leave the waterway where the spill occurred and enter other waterways, impacting other municipalities |   |
| Tides and currents               | Ambient tide and current conditions will dictate the dispersal rate and direction of the spilled oil   | e.g., Hodgins et al. 1991; Sheng and Hodgins 2004; David Suzuki Foundation 2013 |
| Wave exposure                    | Sites exposed to waves will exhibit increased rates of natural degradation of oil over sheltered waterways   | Owens et al. 1987; Carls et al. 2001  |
| Temperature and salinity         | Temperature and salinity influence solubility of oil, rates of oil degradation and effectiveness of oil dispersants                                | Whitehouse 1984; Blondina et al. 1999; Chandrasekar et al. 2006                 |
| Substrate at site exposed to oil | Contrary to sites with rocky substrate, oil can penetrate deeply into sandy sediments and can persist for decades                                  | Carls et al. 2001; Li and Boufadel 2010   |
| Weather conditions               | Prevalent winds may change the dispersal patterns of surface oil (favourably or unfavourably) and may inhibit response efforts                     | Moldan et al. 1985; Law and Kelly 2004; Wirtz et al. 2007                       |

**Table A1.4 Marine biology variables**

| Variable                  | Effect   | Citations  |
|---------------------------|--|--|
| Exposure to toxins        | Heavy crude oil products are often diluted with toxic chemicals, posing an additional hazard   | e.g., Stubblefield et al. 1989; Upreti et al. 2007                                     |
| Exposure quantity         | Increased oil exposure increases initial injury as well as recovery time (usually non-linearly)  | Silliman et al. 2012   |
| Habitat/ depth of species | Subsurface species will have reduced exposure to oil (assuming that the majority of the oil does not sink), while species near the surface and in intertidal zones will have the highest exposure to oil |  |
| Mobility                  | Highly mobile species may be able to move away from spill areas, reducing their exposure, while sedentary species are not  |  |
| Feeding mode              | Filter-feeding species tend to accumulate oil while feeding and are particularly vulnerable  | Law and Hellou 1999  |
| Species identity          | Even closely related species at the same site can differ in their susceptibility to and recovery from an oiling event  | e.g., North 1973   |
| Other stressors           | Toxic effects of oil can be additive or synergistic with other environmental stressors   | Peterson et al. 2003; Sargian et al. 2007; Holmstrup et al. 2010; Sundbäck et al. 2010 |
| Developmental stage       | Larvae and early developmental stages are particularly vulnerable to oil toxicity  | Wells 1972; Chia 1973; Rice et al. 2001; Kazlauskienė et al. 2008                      |
| Generation time           | Generally, species with slower generation times take longer to recover from a spill event  | Conan et al. 1982  |

**Table A1.5 Human health and society variables**

| Variable  | Effect   | Citations  |
|---|--|--|
| Direct skin contact with carcinogenic compounds | The composition of crude oil contains Volatile Organic Compounds (VOCs), which are carcinogenic and may affect the nervous system. They may also have a range of lesser effects and irritations. | Jenssen 1996; Ormseth and Ben-David 2000; Baars 2002; Herrington et al. 2006; Rodríguez-Trigo et al. 2007; Ha et al. 2008; Major and Wang 2012.  |
| Air pollutants                                  | Air pollutants from oil spills can affect human health and exacerbate pre-existing conditions.   | Davidson et al. 2005; Jacques Whitford AXYS Ltd. 2008  |
| Ingestion of contaminated food and water        | Adverse health impacts via ingestion are also possible by eating potentially contaminated seafood, drinking contaminated water, or other forms of ingestion                                      | Szaro 1977; Piatt et al. 1990; Hofer 1998; Law and Hellou 1999; Ormseth and Ben-David 2000; Webster et al. 2006; Matkin et al. 2008; Aguilera et al. 2010; Gohlke et al. 2011; Barron 2012 |
| Psychological and social costs                  | Work stoppages, shorter life expectancy, and other effects impact the economy. Moreover, increases in stress, drug and alcohol abuse, crime, etc., create further social costs.                  | Rodin et al. 1992; Palinkas et al. 1993; Moore et al. 1998; Picou et al. 2004; Loureiro et al. 2005  |
| Subsistence uses                                | Impacts on subsistence economies, social and cultural uses of natural resources, and social structures are routine. This may also impact other ethnic and social enclaves.                       | Rodin et al. 1992; Palinkas et al. 1993; Martin 1999; Fall et al. 2001; Esclamado 2011; Rhoan 2011   |

**Table A1.6 Economic variables**

| Variable   | Effect  | Citations  |
|--|---|--|
| Commercial fisheries and aquaculture             | Fisheries businesses suffer direct losses from product mortality, harvesting closures, loss of market demand, brand damage, etc.  | Moldan et al. 1985; Grigalunas et al. 1986; Moncrieff and Simpson 1993; Goodlad 1996; Pearson et al. 1998; Martin 1999; Moller et al. 1999; Law and Kelly 2004; Loureiro et al. 2005; Garza-Gil et al. 2006; Suris-Regueiro et al. 2007; Punzon et al. 2009; Cheong 2012 |
| Commercial fisheries and aquaculture value chain | Due to direct losses, businesses that depend on commercial fisheries such as docks, processors, distributors, and supply companies lose product inputs and markets.   | U.S. Department of Commerce 1983; Moncrieff and Simpson 1993; Garcia Negro et al. 2009   |
| Tourism industry                                 | Brand damage from an oil spill can impact businesses providing accommodations, transportation, guides, activities (e.g. recreational fishing), tourism-related retail, etc. These market impacts can spread beyond the direct oil spill zone. | U.S. Department of Commerce 1983; McDowell Group 1990; Butler and Fennell 1994; Hill and Bryan 1997; Moore et al. 1998; Martin 1999; McCammon 2003; Loureiro et al. 2005; Garza et al. 2009; Oxford Economics 2010; Danielson 2011                                       |
| Waterway usage                                   | An oil spill may impede or shut down waterway uses, so the greater the use of a waterway, the larger the effect of its closure  |  |
| Other marine-based industries                    | Industries that pump water for cooling and other processes are vulnerable to oil spills. Transportation industries such as ferries and float planes may also be affected.   | U.S. Department of Commerce 1983; Moore et al. 1998  |
| Oil industry                                     | The oil industry itself may lose access to products or markets through affected waterways, and may be subject to regulatory moratoria on operations.  | Moncrieff and Simpson 1993; Moore et al. 1998; Greater New Orleans Inc. 2011   |
| Agriculture                                      | Marine-based agriculture (e.g., seaweed farms) can be affected, and farms adjacent to waterways may be affected by airborne mists or damage from cleanup operations.  | U.S. Department of Commerce 1983; Moller et al. 1999   |
| Pure economic loss                               | Losses that occur independently of direct damage. These damages may ripple across the economy, spreading to goods and services providers that rely on spending from affected populations.   | Grigalunas et al. 1986; Palmer 2011; Perry 2011  |

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|---------------------------------------|--|---|
| Passive use and recreation            | Non-market losses to natural environments and recreational opportunities are usually significant results of an oil spill.  | Assaf et al. 1986; Carson et al. 2003; McCammon 2003; Peterson et al. 2003; Garza et al. 2009; Loureiro et al. 2009; Fourcade 2011  |
| Real estate                           | "Pure stigma" losses that devalue coastal or regional properties due to adjacency to the spill.  | Grigalunas et al. 1986; Oxford Economics 2010; Smith et al. 2010; Cheong 2012; Pickrell 2012  |
| Financial sector                      | Lending and credit markets can be affected by defaults from impacted businesses. Shareholders may lose value from falling share prices. The economy may experience inflation.  | U.S. Department of Commerce 1983; Moncrieff and Simpson 1993; Palinkas et al. 1993; Smith et al. 2010   |
| Legal and research costs              | Oil spills require interventions by the legal profession to negotiate claims, and extensive research to establish baselines and measure impacts.   | U.S. Department of Commerce 1983; Law and Kelly 2004; Loureiro et al. 2005; Liu and Wirtz 2006; Fourcade 2011; Minder 2012  |
| Municipal/regional government impacts | Direct administrative costs, increased demand for public services, and loss of tax revenues can strain government budgets. Opportunity costs, loss of staff to cleanup efforts, municipal/regional brand damage, and political fallout are also factors impacting governments. | Rodin et al. 1992; Palinkas et al. 1993; Moncrieff and Simpson 1993; Hill and Bryan 1997; Moore et al. 1998; Picou et al. 2004; Cheong 2011   |
| Economies of scale                    | Once initial costs are invested into a cleanup, marginal costs of additional oil decrease per gallon.  | Etkin 2004; Brody et al. 2012   |
| Recovery boom                         | Short-term economic losses are offset by increases in spending related to the response and recovery. Tourism businesses, retail, contractors, and local labor can all benefit.   | U.S. Department of Commerce 1983; McDowell Group 1990; Butler and Fennell 1994; Clark et al. 1997; Hill and Bryan 1997; Moore et al. 1998; Loureiro et al. 2005; IEM 2010; Cheong 2011; Danielson 2011; Hall et al. 2011; Palinkas et al. 2011; Rodin et al. 2011 |
| Expense savings                       | Business losses are offset by reduced spending on variable costs of production or services (e.g. commercial fishers spend less on diesel, bait, etc.).   | U.S. Department of Commerce 1983; Loureiro et al. 2005; Garza-Gil et al. 2006   |
| Tax revenues                          | Due to increased recovery spending, governments may experience short-term tax revenue increases on sales of goods and services.  | U.S. Department of Commerce 1983; Barker 2011   |
| Conservation benefits                 | By limiting access to commercial fisheries and certain geographies, there may be conservation benefits to targeted species.  | Hill and Bryan 1997; Moller et al. 1999; Loureiro et al. 2005; Punzon et al. 2009   |

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**Table A1.7 Policy and decision variables**

| Variable              | Effect  | Citations   |
|-----------------------|---|---|
| Port closure          | Marine transport losses are usually only a fraction of oil spill losses, though some examples of port closures due to river-based spills have been noted. | Wirtz, et al. 2007; Nossiter 2008; Sayre 2012; Farm Futures 2013; Muskal 2013   |
| Brand campaigns       | In addition to losses, further investments may be required to revive local brands in the fisheries, tourism, and municipal sectors.                       | Grigalunas et al. 1986; Moncrieff and Simpson 1993; Goodlad 1996; Moore et al. 1998; Loureiro et al. 2005; Cheong 2012; Finn 2012 |
| Compensation payments | Transfers from compensatory regimes and other sources can offset individual losses and soften the economic impact of oil spills.                          | Butler and Fennell 1994; Punzon et al. 2009; Barker 2011; Ritchie et al. 2011   |
| Fishing moratoria     | Fisheries bans cause direct losses to fisheries businesses, but such losses are admissible under compensation regimes.                                    | IOPC 2007   |