Research Article

Crude Oil Spills and Respiratory Health of Clean-up Workers: A Systematic Review of Literature

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Background: Clean-up workers are affected worldwide by the negative effects of crude oil spills on their health. However, the global data with respect to the consequences of crude oil spillage on the respiratory health (RH) of this vulnerable group is still not adequate. We systematically reviewed the literature's existing knowledge on global crude oil spills and the RH outcomes of this vulnerable population (the clean-up workers or oil spill responders).

Methods: We searched PubMed, Google Scholar, SCOPUS, Web of Science and Science Direct databases to identify and systematically review studies of crude oil spills and RH outcomes of clean-up workers published from January 01, 2001, up to June 30, 2022. We excluded in-vitro, animal, and household exposure studies.

Results: We identified 20 articles that assessed the relationship between crude oil spills and RH outcomes of clean-up workers. Most of the studies that addressed the association between crude oil spills and RH outcomes among clean-up workers were prospective and analytical studies, and fewer studies were cross-sectional studies. Most of the articles showed that the RH of clean-up workers is adversely affected both on a short-term and long-term basis with two articles refuting the adverse long-term RH effects of a crude oil spill and one article showing no difference between exposure to crude oil spills and lung parameters of clean-up workers. Less than 50% of the articles reviewed used a spirometry test to assess the RH of clean-up workers. There are also limited studies showing the association between some independent crude oil spills and the RH outcomes of crude oil spill responders like the Hebei Spirit oil spill.

Conclusion: There is a high level of exposure to crude oil spills by clean-up workers and this exposure is associated with adverse respiratory health effects. Integrated efforts are needed to curb this menace, thereby reducing crude oil spills to the barest minimum and by extension reducing the adverse respiratory health effects associated with it among this vulnerable population.

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1.0 Introduction

Crude oil is a very important raw material that can be a lifeline of a nation's economy, security, and political stability. The discovery of crude oil and its exploration and exploitation have not only positively impacted nations of the world but also negatively impacted these nations (Chen et al., 2019). Oil exploration can be associated with the heavy price of environmental degradation, biodiversity loss as well as the destruction of human lives and properties (Obida et al., 2018).

Crude oil is a composite substance which is made of diverse elements and compounds, especially hydrocarbons. The hydrocarbons mainly found in crude oil are classified into three: alkanes (paraffins), cycloalkanes (naphthenes) and arenes (aromatics) (Kuppusamy et al., 2020). These compounds have varying molecular weights. Crude oil exists in two clear-cut physical states namely the light and the heavy crude. At room temperature, the light crude, which is of a lower density, viscosity and molecular weight hydrocarbon composition, flows easily while the heavy crude, which has a high density, viscosity and molecular weight hydrocarbon composition at room temperature has its free flow hindered (Major &Wang, 2012). During a spill, there is a release of compounds ranging from volatile organic compounds (VOCs) to heavy metals into the environment. These VOCs include benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, or xylene (BTEX), and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) (Alexander et al., 2018; Ramirez et al., 2012).

Oil spills occur in varying degrees and are influenced by several factors. While some spills may occur naturally, others are man-made. Naturally occurring oil spills may be due to crude oil seeping from underneath the earth's surface, from volcanic eruptions, natural fires, and thermal geological reactions (Ifegwu & Anyakora, 2015). Anthropogenic or man-made causes of oil spills can be due to the following: artisanal refining; vandalism of oil pipelines, sabotage, poor maintenance of crude oil infrastructures; exploration, extraction and transportation processes and accidents (stranding, hull damage, collision, equipment failure, fire/explosion, etc.) (Nnaemeka, 2020; Obida et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019). Some of the significant spills that have taken place globally include: the Exxon Valdez, Deepwater Horizon (DWH), Hebei Spirit, Torrey Canyon Tanker, Santa Barbara, Prestige, and the Niger Delta Oil Spills (Clarke & Hemphill, 2002; Law, 2011; Nriagu et al., 2016; Vallero, 2012).

The environment plays a major role in the physical and chemical state of the oil spilled. The oil spilt undergoes complex reactions involving physical, chemical, and biological processes. These processes are termed 'weathering'; which results in the natural cleaning (decaying of spilt oil) of the environment thereby reducing the toxic and harmful effects of the spilled oil (Mishra & Kumar, 2015; Yang et al., 2020). The major physical processes include spreading, evaporation and aerosolization, dispersion as small drops, solution, adsorption, and sinking of sediment particles. The weathering process can also take place via chemical oxidation being influenced by light, and biological actions involving the activities of different species of bacteria and fungi which degrade the hydrocarbon (Passow & Overton, 2021). Evaporation and aerosolization of crude oil reduce its concentration in the liquid phase and increases its toxicity in the atmosphere, thereby increasing its debilitating effects on the human RH (Afshar-Mohajer et al., 2019; Farrington, 2014).

Exposure to an oil spill disaster can either be direct (primary) or indirect (secondary). Direct exposure may be via 1) the respiratory tract as aerosols or particulate pollutants from oil spills are inhaled; 2) the gastrointestinal tract following ingestion or 3) dermal contact with oil, tar or dispersant (Kuppusamy et al., 2020). Secondary or indirect exposure occurs when an individual is exposed to an impacted entity or ecosystem but not exposed directly to the event. These secondary exposures include disruption of daily routines and activities, loss of livelihood, relocation, anxiety, etc. as a result of the destruction of the lands and marine ecosystem by the spill (Beedasy et al., 2021). These pollutants can either exert their effects on the organs at the point of entry into the body or enter systemic circulation. The degree of absorption of these toxicants is dependent on the particle size, aqueous solubility, and lipophilic nature. According to Ifegwu & Anyakora (2015), these compounds can be biotransformed (in two phases) in the presence of enzymes like the Cytochrome P450, in the body to their metabolites. Phase I metabolism involves the conversion of the compound structure thereby increasing its polarity, thus making it more electrophilic and increasing its reactivity like oxidation, while Phase II metabolism, such as conjugation, entails adding polar groups to the compound, increasing its bulkiness and aqueous solubility. These metabolites are then excreted either via faeces or urine (Ifegwu & Anyakora, 2015).

The World Health Organization (WHO) reports about seven million deaths yearly from all around the world due to polluted air, with almost 99% of the global population inhaling air with substances that exceed the WHO limits (WHO, 2022). Ambient air pollution was estimated to have caused over 4 million deaths globally in 2016 and these deaths were mainly a result of exposure to fine particulate matter ($PM_{2.5}$) which cause respiratory diseases, cardiovascular diseases and cancers (WHO, 2021). Outdoor air pollution is a serious environmental health challenge influencing the populace, with the vulnerable population being more susceptible (Simoni et al., 2015). It was estimated that in 2016, about 60% of premature deaths linked to outdoor air pollution were due to stroke and ischaemic heart disease, and approximately 20% of these deaths were a result of acute lower respiratory conditions and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), and lung cancer was responsible for 6% of deaths (Simoni et al., 2015). Crude oil, although a major resource, plays an important role in negatively impacting not only the land and water where it is gotten, but also the air (atmosphere) when spilled. It can also explode leading to the release of toxic substances into the environment that is detrimental to health. These compounds include SO_2, NO_2, $PM_{2.5}$, $PM_{0.1}$, and VOCs, to mention but a few. These pollutants disrupt both the ambient air and the indoor air quality.

Respiratory disease has been found globally to be one of the leading causes of illness and death. It accounts for greater than 10% of all disability-adjusted life-years (DALYs), which is a metric that gives an assessment of the amount of active and fruitful life lost due to a condition (Societies, 2017). They include COPD, the third leading cause of mortality worldwide, accounting for about 3 million mortality; asthma with over 300 million people affected, lower respiratory tract infections resulting in about 4 million deaths, tuberculosis (1.4 million deaths) and cancers (1.6 million deaths) (Societies, 2017). Inhalation of the toxicants released from crude oil contributes to the prevalence of respiratory diseases as they result in the induction of inflammatory responses, interruption of the normal cellular functions through the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS), leading to toxicological effects including acute respiratory infections, cardiovascular diseases, COPD, and lung cancer (Chen et al., 2016; Kim & Hong, 2012).

The human respiratory system is made up of structures that provide defense mechanisms able to trap foreign particles and toxicants (Schlesinger & Gardner, 2014). These defense mechanisms may be weakened due to increased stressors in the clean-up workers and oil spill responders, thus making them more susceptible to respiratory health problems (Laffon et al., 2016). Vulnerability means susceptibility and in health care, it refers to those at risk for health conditions. According to Kuran et al. (2020), vulnerable populations may be defined as people with a greater propensity of developing disease conditions by virtue of their disadvantaged socio-cultural status, restricted access to economic resources or their individual susceptibility such as gender and age. In this study, Clean-up workers, by virtue of their increased exposure to oil after a spill, are categorized as a vulnerable population.

There seems to be a paucity of reviews regarding the RH outcomes of crude oil on the clean-up workers globally. Hence, this review aims to systematically assess available data on the RH effects associated with a crude oil spill on clean-up workers. The findings of this review will give a robust conclusion on this topic, help in policy-making, prioritize measures in controlling oil spills with the safety of the clean-up workers put in serious consideration and prompt management of the respiratory diseases associated with this exposure. This will ensure safer and cleaner air which will translate to better RH of the oil spill responders and the world at large.

2.0 Methods

The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis (PRISMA) guidelines formed the basis on which this systematic review was developed (Moher et al., 2015). Studies that formed part of this review were epidemiological research that described the relationship between crude oil spills and the RH of clean-up workers globally. The scope of the study is defined by the search question: "In clean-up workers, is exposure to oil spills and its constituents, associated with adverse changes in their RH?"

Search Strategy

A vast search for literature was performed between July 2021 and October 2022 on Pubmed, Science Direct, SCOPUS, Web of Science and Google Scholar research databases to capture the necessary literature from January 2001 to June 2022, and these were all collated. Several keywords were used to collate relevant literature from the selected databases. The following MeSH terms were used: {"Crude oil spills" OR "Oil spills" OR, "Oil pollution" OR "Oil spillage"} AND {"Respiratory" OR "Lung function" OR "Pulmonary function" OR "Spirometry"} AND {"Clean-up workers" OR "Response workers"}.

Study Selection:

The inclusion and exclusion criteria stated below were used in selecting studies for this review.

Inclusion Criteria and Exclusion Criteria

The study selection criteria regarding the RH outcomes were: the study population (clean-up workers or response workers); exposure of interest (Crude oil spill); the outcome of interest (adverse changes in respiratory health); study design (epidemiologic studies using cross-sectional, panel studies, case-control, cohort designs, longitudinal studies). Screening the titles of the studies, their abstracts and the full texts were done to select studies for this systematic review. A study was considered for inclusion if: it was written in the English language and published between 2001 and 2022, if it was an epidemiological study, and described the relationship between oil spills and RH effects of clean-up workers. Studies with duplicates, studies not written in the English language, or with weak precision were excluded. Reviews were also excluded.

Quality of Evidence

Quality assessment criteria for observational studies which are based on the Newcastle-Ottawa Scale (NOS) were used in assessing the quality of the studies used in this systematic review (Kansagara et al., 2018). The traditional NOS makes use of an eight-item rating system to assess the method of selection of participants, comparability among study groups, and the exposure/outcome assessment. However, this quality assessment criteria for observational studies have additional two criteria in the selection of participants including precision of exposure dose ascertainment and ascertainment of exposure done prospectively or retrospectively (Kansagara et al., 2018). The quality was then considered based on the risk of bias (ROB), either low, medium, or high ROB. Comparability was assessed by controlling for potential confounders in terms of study design, analysis and the type of health effects under evaluation.

Data Extraction and Data Synthesis

Screening of all titles, abstracts and full texts was done in accordance with the inclusion and exclusion criteria. Relevant data from included studies were retrieved using the data extraction form. Information on authors, year of publication, country of study, study period, study setting, study design, study population, sample size, exposure of interest, method of assessing the exposure/outcome variables, respiratory health effect (with the effect estimate and the associated 95% CI, where available) and confounding variables were the data extracted.

A narrative synthesis of the included studies was done and the tables summarizing the findings of included studies are shown in Tables 1 and 2. A PRISMA flowchart for eligible study selection is presented in Figure 1. A meta-analysis was not done due to the diversity in the methodologies applied in the assessment of exposures and outcome variables.

According to the main outcome that the selected studies addressed, the results of the selected studies were split up into 5 categories: Crude oil spills; DWH oil Spill and RH of Clean-up Workers; Hebei Spirit oil Spill and RH of Clean-up Workers; Tasman Spirit oil Spill and the RH of Clean-up Workers; and Prestige oil Spill and RH of Clean-up Workers.

PRISMA FLOWCHART

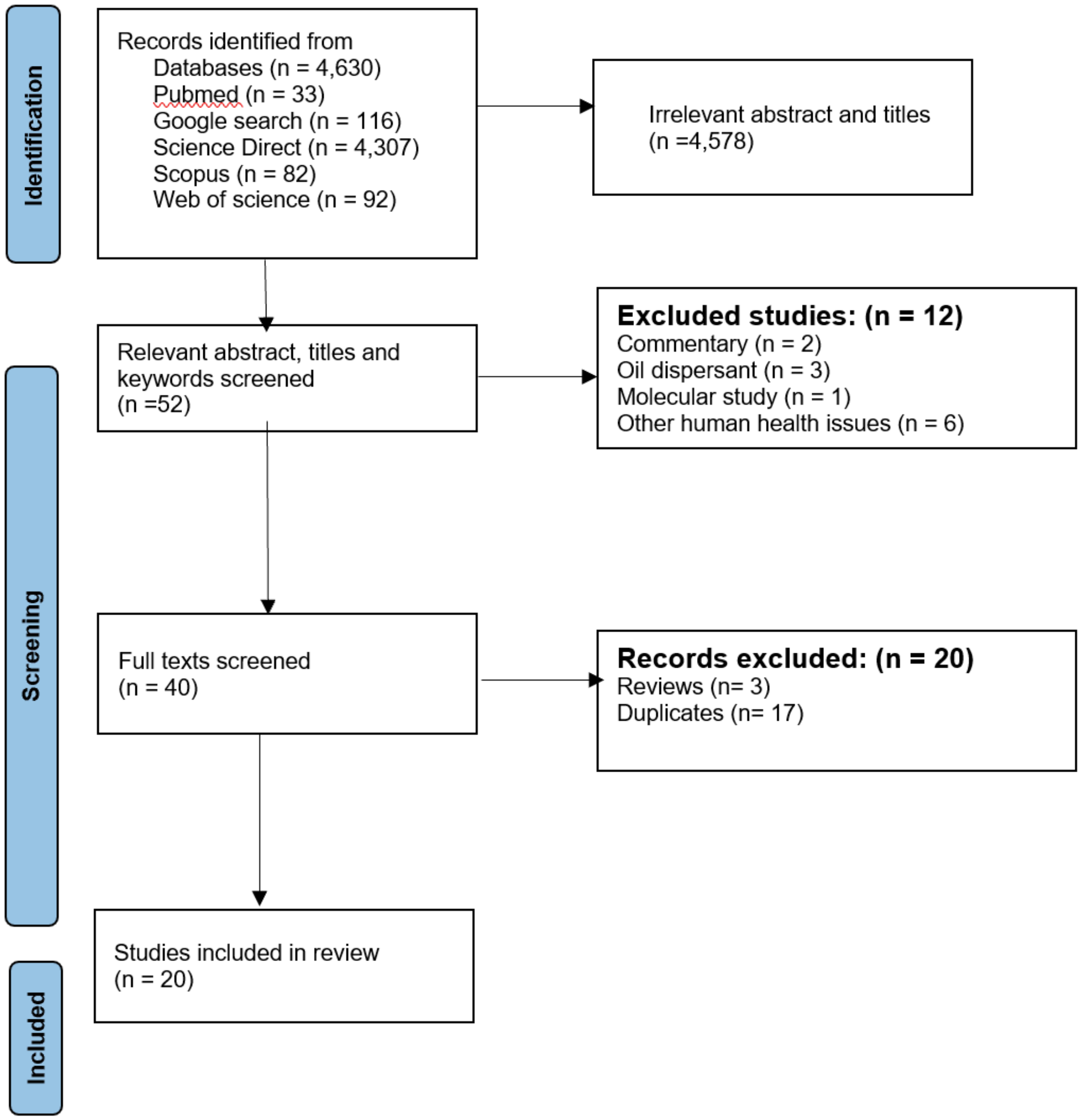

Figure 1. Study selection process using PRISMA flowchart

3.0 Results

3.1 Search Results

In the PRISMA flowchart above (Fig. 1), results from the initial searches were 4,630 articles, of which 52 articles were assessed for eligibility based on relevant titles and abstracts. After the exclusion of 12 studies not in line with the review focus- (Molecular study (n =1); Commentaries (n =2); Oil dispersants (n = 3); Other human health issues (n = 6)); and 20 records that fell short of the afore-mentioned inclusion criteria (3 reviews, 17 duplicates), 20 studies were retained.

The summary of the different crude oil spills reviewed in this paper is shown in Table 1 while the outcomes discussed were classified under crude oil spills and the RH effects of the vulnerable population in Table 2.

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3.2 Methodological Analysis

3.2.1 Study Design

Articles utilized in this review were epidemiological studies (cross-sectional (5), prospective cohort (6), follow-up (2), prospective follow-up (1), prospective study (1) case control (1), and comparative study (1)). Others include a survey. Some studies, however, used more than one study design.

3.2.2 Place of Research

The articles used in this review were carried out in four (4) countries of the world, namely: the United States of America with 11 studies, Spain with 4 studies, Pakistan with 3 studies and South Korea with 2 studies.

3.3 Analysis of Results

Twenty-two (20) studies discussed different crude oil spills that have occurred globally. Some of these articles discussed the same oil spill and so were merged as seen in table 1. Three (3) articles focused on the Tasman Spirit oil spill, 11 articles on the DWH oil spill, 2 articles on the Hebei Spirit oil spill, and 4 articles on the Prestige oil spill (Table 1).

The vulnerable population included in this review is the clean-up workers. All the articles selected in this review discussed the relationship between exposure to an oil spill or its pollutants and the respiratory effects on clean-up workers (Table 2).

3.4 Crude Oil Spills

3.4.1 Tasman Spirit Oil Spill (TS Spill)

Three (3) studies gave reports on the Tasman Spirit spill. An oil tanker from Greece, with over 67,540 tons (about 77,745.4Kilolitres, KL) of Tasman Spirit crude oil, shipwrecked in Pakistan, precisely the Karachi port channel, damaged its hull with a resultant bursting of the tanker. An estimated 35,298KL (30, 000 tons) of crude oil was spilled and spread to the seashores in 2003 (Meo et al., 2008). Approximately 11,000 tons of VOCs were released into the atmosphere from the volatile components of crude oil thereby polluting the air (Meo et al., 2009a; Meo et al., 2009b). A lot of health concerns were raised among residents and workers at the spill site regarding the presence of the spilt oil on the coast and the fumes in the air.

3.4.2 Deepwater Horizon Oil Spill (DWH spill)

Eleven (11) articles used for this review gave reports on the DWH spill. The DWH spill was one of the most destructive oil spill disasters recorded in the United States of America (D'Andrea & Reddy, 2018). Some authors stated that the spill occurred in 2010 and attracted thousands of clean-up and response workers to the spill site (Gam et al., 2018a; Gam et al., 2018b; Gam et al., 2018c; Lawrence et al., 2020; Lawrence et al., 2022). The DWH spill was a result of an explosion on the DWH drilling rig of British Petroleum which led to the release of approximately 200million gallons (4,761,905 barrels or about 757,082 KL or 649,645 metric tons) of oil into the Mexican gulf (Alexander et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2022; Rusiecki et al., 2018). The spill went on for over 80 days due to failed attempts to cap the well, and led to the contamination of about 225,000 square kilometres of coastal planes from Texas to Florida (D'Andrea & Reddy, 2013). This not only affected the health of the response team but also the health and livelihood of those residing in these coastal regions (Rusiecki et al., 2022).

3.4.3 Hebei Spirit Oil Spill (HS spill)

Studies from two (2) articles on the HS oil spill are included in this review. The greatest oil spill ever recorded in Korean water was the HS spill (Gwack et al., 2012). It occurred on the 7^{th} of December, 2007 when the carrier, Hebei Spirit conveying an estimated 300, 000 tons of oil, hit a barge on the Yellow Sea Coast of Taean County, Korea (Sim et al., 2010). This collision resulted in the spill of the Iranian heavy, Kuwait Export, and Upper Zakum oils. Approximately, 12,942.6 KL (an estimated 11, 000 tons) of oil was spilled. The oil swiftly covered more than 1,000 km of coastal line, destroying biodiversity and the environments that attracted tourists each year (Sim et al., 2010). The coastline of the county, with about 64,000 people in 2006, was severely affected, resulting in the destruction of tourism and fishing industries indefinitely. According to Gwack et al. (2012), the oil spilled from the HS contained VOCs such as BTEX, PAHs, and heavy metals which can be easily volatilized and absorbed into the human body causing acute symptoms and debilitating diseases (Gwack et al., 2012).

3.4.4 Prestige Oil Spill

The Prestige oil spill was reported in four (4) articles in this review. In November 2002, the Prestige (oil tanker) capsized, spilling more than (77,123.8KL) 67,000 tons of bunkered oil, heavily polluting the Galician coast in northwestern Spain (Rodriguez-Trigo et al., 2010; Zock et al., 2012). The Prestige was a 26-yr old single-hulled tanker sailing to Singapore from St. Petersburg and Ventspils in Russia and Latvia (Suarez et al., 2005). The ship suffered serious damages caused by a storm, which led to a leakage of fuel at sea. The Prestige later sank, after splitting in two, causing the spilt oil to spread from the northwest coast of Spain, to Asturian shores and Cantabria, both in Spain and to Western Pyrenees precisely the Basque country (Suarez et al., 2005). Exposed residents and fishermen developed health issues including increased bronchial responsiveness (Zock et al., 2014).

S/N	Name of Spills	Study Location	Year of Spill	Quantity Spilled	Reference
1.	Tasman Spirit Oil Spill	Coastal areas of Karachi, Pakistan	2003	35,298KL (30, 000 tons)	(Meo et al., 2008; Meo et al., 2009a; Meo et al., 2009b)
2.	Deepwater Horizon Oil Spill	Mexican Gulf	2010	About 757,082 KL (200 million gallons or 4,761,905 barrels or 649,645 metric tons)	(Alexander et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2022; D'Andrea & Reddy, 2013; D'Andrea & Reddy, 2018; Gam et al., 2018a; Gam et al., 2018b; Gam et al., 2018c; Lawrence et al., 2020; Lawrence et al., 2022; Rusiecki et al., 2018; Rusiecki et al., 2022).
3.	Hebei Spirit Oil Spill	Taean area, Korea	2007	12,942.6 KL (an estimated 11, 000 tons)	(Gwack et al., 2012; Sim et al., 2010).
4.	Prestige Oil Spill	Asturia & Cantabria, Spain	2002	77,123.8KL (67,000 tons) of bunkered oil	(Rodriguez-Trigo et al., 2010; Suarez et al., 2005; Zock et al., 2012; Zock et al., 2014).

Table 1. Summary of crude oil spills captured in this study

3.5 Crude oil spills and Respiratory Health

Of all the 20 articles that reported on the repercussions of crude oil spill on the RH of clean-up workers, 3 articles reported RH consequences in relation to the Tasman Spirit oil spill, 11 studies on the DWH oil spill, 2 articles on the Hebei Spirit oil spill and 4 studies on the Prestige oil spill.

3.5.1 Tasman oil spill and Respiratory Health of Clean-up Workers

Three articles focused on the RH effects of the Tasman Spirit oil spill on clean-up workers (Meo et al., 2008; Meo et al., 2009a; Meo et al., 2009b).

Meo and colleagues conducted a cross-sectional study following the Tasman oil spill into the sea in which a population of oil spill responders (n = 20) was compared with their matched controls (n = 31) (Meo et al., 2008). Conducted between the months of August 2003 to 2004, exposure was assessed based on the duration of being exposed. Clean-up workers participated in clean-up operations for a minimum of 8 hours daily, 6 days per week, using a piece of cloth as protective coverings for the nose and mouth. Meo et al. (2008) compiled information on the anthropometry and pulmonary function parameters via spirometry tests between the exposed and their matched controls and compared these parameters. Their results showed that clean-up workers who were exposed to polluted air caused by the Tasman Spirit oil spill have a marked decrease in forced vital capacity (FVC) (p = 0.001*), Forced Expiratory Volume in one second, FEV1(p = 0.001*), forced expiratory flow (FEF25–75%) (p =0.02*) and maximum voluntary ventilation (MVV) (p = 0.001*) comparing with their matched controls (Meo et al., 2008). A year later, the same authors performed a follow-up study on the exposed population from the previous study (n =20) comparing the previous values gotten a year before with the current data. Their result showed a significant reversal increase for FVC, FEV1, PEF, FEF25–75% (p = 0.001*; 0.001*; 0.02*; 0.02*; and 0.001*, respectively) (Meo et al., 2008). These reduced pulmonary functions were reversed and improved once the exposed individuals were removed from the polluted environment (Meo et al., 2008).

Health complaints among respondents who partook in the oil spill response operations of the Tasman Spirit oil spill were investigated in a case-control study conducted by Meo and colleagues (Meo et al., 2009a). This study was performed between July 2003 and December 2004. Interviews and a standardized questionnaire were used to recruit the study group who were healthy males (n = 50) on the basis of working at the oil spill site for a minimum of 8-10hours/day, 6 days per week, using a hand-made nose and mouth mask, and these were compared with their matched controls (n = 50) who were salesmen, clerical staff and shopkeepers who lived 15-20km from the coastal belt. Results on RH complaints as compared with their matched controls were compiled. Higher rate of cough (about 40%), rhinorrhoea (36%), sore throat (about 30%), malaise (18%), dyspnoea (14%), chest tightness (about 10%), sputum (8%) and wheeze (6%), were observed in the exposed when comparing with the controls (Meo et al., 2009a). The odds ratio, OR of sore throat (OR=6.1; 95%CI: 1.6-23.0; p<0.006*); malaise (OR = 31.0; 95%CI: 2.0–542.2; p = 0.0004*) cough (OR=9.6; 95%CI: 2.6-35.2; p<0.0002*) and runny nose (OR=14.0; 95%CI: 3.0-62.0; p<0.0001*) were remarkably higher among the clean-up workers than the controls (Meo et al., 2009a).

The consequences of time of exposure to contaminated air on lung volumes in response workers not protected from the Tasman Spirit oil spill in the sea were investigated by a study conducted by Meo and colleagues (Meo et al., 2009b). This comparative study was conducted between July 2003 and December 2004. Interviews were done to recruit study participants who were healthy males (n= 31) who participated in the clean-up operation and compared with their matched controls (n =31) who were salesmen, clerical staff and shopkeepers who lived 15-20km from the coastal belt. Assessment of respiratory health was done using an electronic spirometer. The clean-up workers recruited worked for at least 8 hours daily, 6 days per week in the spill site, using a hand-made face mask. A written questionnaire to gather anthropometric information was used. The outcome of their study showed that the lung function of the exposed group was significantly affected by the duration of exposure to air pollutants from the Tasman Spirit oil spill. Generally, those who were exposed to the spill had statistically significant reductions in FVC, FEV1, FEF25-75%, and MVV (p = 0.001*; p = 0.002*; and p = 0.001*, respectively). Exposure to these pollutants for less than 8 days had a significant difference in only FVC (p = 0.001*), exposure to the oil spill pollutants for 8-15 days revealed a statistically significant difference for FVC (p = 0.05*) and exposure to the oil spill pollutants exceeding 15 days revealed notable reductions in FVC, FEV1, FEF25–75%, and MVV in the exposed group relative to their controls (p = 0.001*; 0.001*; 0.02*; and 0.002*, respectively) (Meo et al., 2009b).

3.5.2 DWH oil spill and Respiratory Health of Clean-up Workers

Eleven articles focused on the association between DWH oil spill and RH of oil spill responders (Alexander et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2022; D’Andrea & Redy, 2013; D’Andrea & Reddy, 2018; Gam et al., 2018a; Gam et al., 2018b; Gam et al., 2018c; Lawrence et al., 2020; Lawrence et al., 2022; Rusiecki et al., 2018; Rusiecki et al., 2022).

The acute and chronic health consequences of the DWH oil spill were evaluated in this cohort study that utilized data from the cross-sectional survey and medical contacts of the military personnel. The study participants were the US Coast Guard members (oil spill responders, about n = 8,700 vs non-responders, about n = 44,800). Two surveys were done. The first began on June 25th, 2010 while the next survey began on November 1st, 2010. Exposure was assessed via inhaling the toxicants, oral route, dermal route and submersion on an ever/never scale in survey 1 while exposure frequency through the aforementioned routes was assessed in survey 2 using a 5-Likert scale. Their results, which were reported in terms of adjusted prevalence ratios and adjusted relative risks, showed that there was a statistically significant elevated prevalence ratio (PR)s which increased with exposure for all 3 symptoms investigated: cough (PR=1.6-1.8); wheeze (PR=2.1-2.3); dyspnoea (PR=1.8-2.3) and elevated risk (RR(95%CI) for chronic respiratory diseases, asthma, and COPD (1.0;1.0 to 2.0); (2.0; 1.0- 3.0); and (1.4; 0.97 to 1.9) 2.5 years after exposure (Rusiecki et al., 2018).

Rusiecki et al. (2022) carried out a prospective analysis to gain insight into the relationship between exposures to oil spills secondary to response and the RH risks in US Coast Guard personnel (n = 45,193) using medical encounter data approximately 2.5 years before the spill and approximately 5.5 years after the spill, from 01 October 2007 to 30 September 2015. Comparisons were done based on Worker vs. Non-worker; within the worker comparison (ever contacted oil vs. never contacted oil, ever inhaled oil vs. never inhaled oil, ever in the same premise with burning oil vs. Never and effects of both oil and dispersants) using data gotten from self-reported exposure from two previous studies. These were used to assess exposure. Their results revealed that for worker/non-worker comparisons, weak raised adjusted hazard ratios (aHRs) were recorded, however comparing among workers, stronger risks were associated with exposure to crude oil. Risks for all sinusitis were elevated for responders who were exposed to crude oil through inhalation, unidentified long-term sinusitis, COPD and other allied conditions, shortness of breath and RH issues [(aHR;95%CI): (1.5; 1.1-2.1); (1.6; 1.1-2.0), (1.4; 1.0-2.1), (1.3; 1.0-1.7)]; Elevated risks were observed in morbidities categorized as asthma and reactive airway diseases, including the specific condition, asthma, dyspnoea, and the general categorization of long-term RH effects [(aHR;95%CI): 1.2; 1.0-1.4), (1.4; 1.0-2.3), (1.5; 1.0-2.5), and (1.2; 1.0-1.4)]. Responders who were exposed to these two (crude oil and dispersant) had positive associations with elevated risk for dyspnoea (HR=2.2; 95%CI: 1.0-5.0) (Rusiecki et al., 2022).

The adverse effects of the DWH oil spill on response workers along Louisiana coastal areas were evaluated by D’Andrea and Reddy. In their study, which was retrospective as well as cross-sectional in nature, 130 exposed and 117 non-exposed subjects were recruited. Gathering information from medical charts and self-reported somatic symptoms, results showed that the blood profiles, liver enzymes and somatic symptoms were altered. Somatic symptoms which included headache 77%, dyspnoea 71%, skin rash, chronic cough 52%, and chest pain 38% were some of the most reported (D’Andrea & Reddy, 2013).

The long-term health effects of the DWH oil spill were also assessed by D'Andrea and Reddy among workers who took part in the clean-up operations in this follow-up study. Medical records from 88 subjects were reviewed (44 clean-up workers and 44 unexposed) during the initial and 7 years of follow-up visits after the disaster occurred. Results from the follow-up visit 7 years after revealed that the respiratory symptoms persisted and newer symptoms developed. Assessment of these clean-up workers revealed that 91% of those exposed to the oil spill had a progressive decline in the RH and developed chronic rhinosinusitis from their initial baseline assessment. Also, 45% of those exposed showed new symptoms not recorded in their initial visits (chronic reactive airway dysfunction syndrome). Pulmonary functions had progressively worsened as incidences rose from 0% in the initial study to also include severe pulmonary function abnormalities at 9%. 48%, 34% 16% were incidences of normal pulmonary function, mild pulmonary abnormality, and moderate pulmonary abnormality in the 7-year follow-up study as against 84%, 9%, and 6.8% in the initial study respectively. Other respiratory symptoms include shortness of breath at 84%, chronic cough at 55%, chest pain at 34%, nasal obstruction at 23%, and difficulty in breathing at 9% (D'Andrea & Reddy, 2018).

Due to the massive disaster that occurred due to the DWH oil spill, 8,500 United States Coast Guards were deployed to the scene of the incident to take part in the clean-up operations. A cross-sectional study was conducted by Alexander et al. (2018) and personnel members were interviewed via survey. Of the 4855 personnel that completed the survey, 54.6% and 22.0% were exposed to the spill and the oil dispersant. Assessment of the spill was based on the timing, duration and job description at the spill site, crude oil exposure, oil dispersant and fumes from the exhaust. The most common symptom was cough (19.4%). Others were: dyspnoea (5.5%), and wheeze (3.6%). There was an association between increased deployment duration and the likelihood of cough (≥2 months: PR: 2.1; 95%CI:2.0-3.0 Ptrend < 0.01), dyspnoea (≥ 2 months: PR: 1.9; 95%CI: 1.3-2.7; Ptrend < 0.01), and wheeze (≥2 months: PR: 2.0; 95%CI: 1.0-3.0; Ptrend: 0.04) in the pre-capping period. During the post-capping period, this same pattern was recorded for cough (≥2 months: PR: 2.5; 95%CI: 1.7 - 3.7 Ptrend < 0.01) and wheeze (≥2 months: PR: 3.1; 6 95%CI: 1.4 - 7.2; Ptrend: 0.03). There was an increased PRs for cough (PR=1.9), dyspnoea (PR=2.6), and wheeze (PR=2.7) for any exposure to oil. Elevated frequency of breathing in the spilled oil was correlated with an elevated possibility of these three respiratory symptoms. Workers who had contact with the oil dispersant also had a homogenous pattern recorded for cough and dyspnoea. A sub-analysis was done between those responders who were exposed to spilled oil only and to the combination of oil and oil dispersant, compared with those who were not exposed. Those who reported being exposed to oil alone had raised PRs for cough, dyspnoea and wheeze [(PR;95%CI): (1.7; 1.4-2.0), (2.0; 1.0-3.0), and (2.2; 1.4- 3.6)]. Stronger PRs in connection with cough, dyspnoea, and wheeze [(PR; 95%CI): (2.7; 2.3-3.2), (5.0; 3.0-7.0), and (5.1; 3.2-8.1)] were recorded among workers who were exposed to the combination of crude oil and its dispersants (Alexander et al., 2018).

Gam and colleagues (2018) conducted a study 1-3 years after the DWH incident on oil spill response and clean-up (OSRC) workers, to assess the relationship between six oil spill experiences and their pulmonary function. A complete case analysis was performed on 4,806 clean-up workers from the Gulf Long-Term Follow-up (GULF) study. These participants had their spirometry test done and also were up to date with their information on exposures and confounders. Questionnaires were used in gathering data on the oil experiences. Those who were exposed had oil spill-related events including smelling chemicals jobs; dermal or clothes contact with oil/tar/oily water; chemical-wet bodies or clothes; stopped work due to heat; worked any oily flora/fauna or dead animal recovery jobs; and not doing any regular job. These respondents were categorized independently for each oil spill event, implying that response workers could be labelled as exposed for one event and unexposed for another (Gam et al., 2018a). The unexposed group were those that did not fall into any of these categories. Their results revealed that those who smelled chemicals had elevated FEV1 and FVC values than unexposed workers (Mean difference (MD): 30 mL; 95% CI: -3, 64 and 30 mL, 95% CI: -9, 70), although the relationships were weaker in analyses including workers with imputed data; workers with jobs involving oily flora and fauna or dead animal recovery had significantly lower FEV1, FVC and FEV1/FVC [(MD;95%CI): (-70 mL; -105, -34); (-56 mL; -97, -15) and (-0.6%; -1.0, -0.2)] compared to unexposed. These associations were related but attenuated for workers with imputed data for FEV1, FVC, and FEV1/FVC [(MD;95%CI): (-53 mL; -84, -22); (-45 mL; -81, -9) and (-0.44%; -0.80, -0.07)] respectively. There were no other associations between lung volumes (FEV1; FVC and FEV1/FVC) and other oil spill events (dermal or clothes contact with oil/tar/oily water [MD (95%CI): -23 (-58, 12); -18 (-59, 23) and -0.13 (-0.6, 0.3)]; body or clothes ever became soaked with chemicals [MD (95%CI): 17 (-18, 50); 4 (-37, 44); and 0.4 (-0.02, 0.8)]; ever had to stop working because of heat [MD (95%CI): -16 (-49, 18); -23 (-62, 16) and 0.14 (-0.3, 0.5)]; and potentially not doing any regular job [MD (95%CI): 28 (-19, 75); 34 (-21, 89) and 0.2 (-0.4, 0.7)] (Gam et al., 2018a).

Gam et al. (2018b) conducted a study to ascertain the association between exposure to oil spills via clean-up exercises and pulmonary function 1-3years after the DWH incident. A prospective cohort of adults recruited during the GuLF study and data from this study were used. Spirometry for 7,780 adults who partook in DWH clean-up operations and non-workers were evaluated. Different comparisons were done between varying groups of workers: workers vs non-workers, decontamination workers vs support workers, and workers with a high potential of exposure to combustion of oil /gas vs unexposed workers. The lung function of these groups was assessed using spirometry. Their results showed no differences between workers and non-workers. Among workers, small decrements in FEV1 (Beta: -70 mL, 95% CI: -130, -10) were recorded in decontamination workers when compared to support workers. Reduced pulmonary functions were also recorded in workers with high potential exposure to burning oil/gas compared to unexposed workers: FEV1 and FEV1/FVC [(Beta; 95%CI): -180 mL; -320, -50) and (-1.9%; -3.5, -0.4), and an elevated risk of having a FEV1/FVC in the lowest tertile (PR: 1.4, 95% CI: 1.0-2.0) (Gam et al., 2018b).

Gam et al. (2018c) reported a study with the aim to evaluate the association between total hydrocarbon (THC) exposures attributed to oil spill clean-up workers and lung function 1 to 3 years after the DWH disaster. A prospective cohort of adults recruited during the GuLF study and data from this long-term follow-up study was used it included adults who worked as response workers and others who were safety-trained however, non-workers. Data with two acceptable spirometry tests were analyzed from 6,288 workers. A job exposure matrix was used to estimate the THC exposure levels. A pre-bronchodilator spirometry test was done to analyze FVC, FEV1 and FEV1/FVC. Their results showed that more workers with higher THC exposure lived close to the affected counties compared with the lesser exposed (8.0% vs 6.0%; $p < 0.001$*). Those with more THC exposure likely took part in previous oil spill clean-up operations than those with lower THC exposure (10.0% vs 7.0%; $P < 0.001$*). There were no distinct differences observed in FEV1 or FVC between maximum THC levels and pulmonary function by ordinal THC level. Though there was a reduction in FEV1/FVC in workers with the greatest exposure to THC level than in workers with the lowest exposure, this reduction was not statistically significant (MD: -0.6%, 95% CI: -1.3 to 0.003%). There was therefore no relationship between exposure to THC and the pulmonary function of those who participated in the clean-up operations within 3years after the spill (Gam et al., 2018c).

In addition, there was a slight attenuation, however, similar to the primary analysis, in the estimated difference in FEV1/FVC for the highest THC exposure level versus the lowest (MD: -0.6%, 95% CI: -1.4 to 0.2) among workers in the analytic sample with no burning oil/gas exposure (n = 5,603) (Gam et al., 2018c).

Chen et al. (2022) in his study to assess the relationship between estimated $PM_{2.5}$ only from combustion and flaring of oil and gas and the dynamic lung volumes measured 1–3 years following the DWH incident. Using participants from the GuLF STUDY, 2,316 clean-up workers (burning-exposed workers (n= 518) and referent group (n= 1,798)), were selected for this study on the basis of having 3 spirometry tests recorded or by an expert's decision, and being checked for all confounders that participated in clean-up of the spills on the water. The estimation of the exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ from the combustion of these toxicants was from 15 May to 15 July 2010. FEV1, FVC, and FEV1/FVC were evaluated and their result showed that higher cumulative daily maximum $PM_{2.5}$ exposure was significantly associated with lower FEV1 (p-trend = 0.04) and FEV1/FVC (p-trend = 0.01). Workers involved in the combustion of the oil and gas had lower pulmonary function parameters FEV1 and FEV1/FVC when compared with workers who did not take part in the burning of the pollutants or were in close proximity to the burning site [-166.8 mL, 95% CI: -337.0, 4.0 and (-2.0, 95% CI: -4.0, 0.2)] respectively. There was also a non-significant decrement in FVC (high vs. referent: -121.0, 95% CI: -320.0, 78.0; p-trend = 0.4). The same relationships were observed for average daily maximum $PM_{2.5}$ exposure. Inverse associations were also observed in analyses stratified by smoking and time from exposure to spirometry and restricting to workers without pre-spill lung disease. A sub-group analysis revealed a significant trend between average daily maximum exposure and FEV1 (p-trend = 0.02*) and significantly lower FEV1 (-230.0 mL, 95% CI: -430.0, -25.0) among the never-smoking workers in the high-exposure group; and a consistently lower FVC among never smokers with higher average and cumulative daily maximum exposures. The association between cumulative daily maximum exposure and FEV1/FVC was statistically significant (p-trend = 0.01*) accompanied by non-significantly lower FEV1/FVC in the high-exposure group (-3.0%, 95% CI: -6.0, 0.1) in the ever-smokers sub-group (Chen et al., 2022) as seen in Table 2.

Lawrence et al. (2020) in their study to assess the pulmonary function in clean-up workers after 4–6 years of the spill utilized the prospective cohort (GuLF STUDY). Participants who were recruited had completed two spirometry test sessions 1–3 years, and 4–6 years after the spill (n = 1,840); (Worker vs Non-worker: 270 vs 1,570 respectively) and had FEV1, FVC, and FEV1/FVC determined. The classification of these participants was based on their levels of exposure to THC: response (highest exposure), operations, cleanup on water, decontamination, cleanup on land, and support (lowest exposure). The classification was also based on their exposure to burning oil/natural gas. Participants who worked multiple jobs were classified by their single highest exposed job/task. Their result showed that those with the greatest exposures 1-3 years after the spill, initially had a decline in their pulmonary function. This group of clean-up workers however had the greatest improvement in their pulmonary function 4-6 years after the spill. Workers with THC exposure 1–2.99 ppm and ≥3 ppm had greater FEV1 than those with ≤0.3ppm (β: 110 ml, 95% CI: 20, 200) and (β: 120 ml, 95% CI: 5, 230), respectively. Those in higher exposed jobs displayed greater improvement in FEV1 between visits: cleanup on water (β: 140 ml, 95% CI: 35, 250), operations (β: 130 ml, 95% CI: 30, 230) and response (β: 150 ml, 95% CI: 40, 260) than the support workers. Greater FEV1 improvement was also associated with higher versus the lowest level THC exposure: 1–2.99 ppm (β: 130 ml, 95% CI: 60, 210) and ≥3 ppm (β: 200 ml, 95% CI: 110, 300). They noted that the decrease in the pulmonary functions observed immediately after the spill was no longer evident 4–6 years later, with the greatest improvement noticeable among those with the greatest exposures (Lawrence et al., 2020). A detailed result of the studies is shown in Table 2.

Lawrence and colleagues performed a study to evaluate the primary inhalational risks and threats faced by clean-up workers after the DWH oil spill. These response workers were exposed to chemicals by nature of their job class like the mixture of Benzene, Toluene, Ethylbenzene, o-, m-, and p-Xylenes, and n-Hexane (BTEX-H) chemicals, the individual chemicals that make up the BTEX-H, and $PM_{2.5}$ from the burning oil and gas. Using data from the GuLF Study, a cohort of about 24,610 workers (19,020 clean-up workers; 5,590 non-workers) were recruited (Lawrence et al., 2022). The analysis focused majorly on approximately 19,000 workers who, prior to the spill had no asthma, but had detailed information on exposures, outcomes, and covariates. Asthma was defined with both self-reported wheeze and physician-diagnosed asthma. Model estimates were used to assign $PM_{2.5}$ to participants while THC and BTEX-H on the basis of measurement data and work histories, were assigned to participants. Their result revealed that the clean-up workers had a greater risk of developing asthma than non-workers (RR: 1.6, 95% CI: 1.4-2.0). Increased asthma risk was associated with higher estimated THC exposure levels (p < 0.0001*), increased exposure to individual BTEX-H, and the combination of these chemicals of 1.5 (95% CI: 1.4-1.6). Associations were less obvious, with fewer cases, for only physician-diagnosed asthma (Lawrence et al., 2022) as seen in Table 2.

3.5.3 Hebei Spirit oil spill and Respiratory Health of Clean-up Workers

Two studies recorded the association between the Hebei Spirit oil spill and the RH of clean-up workers (Gwack et al., 2012; Sim et al., 2010).

Gwack et al. (2012) conducted a survey on 2,624 members of the military as Hebei Spirit oil spill responders and 574 non-participants from January 4^{th} to February 19, 2008. Health symptoms in this study were self-reported and the respiratory symptoms include: cough, sputum, rhinorrhoea, sore throat and dry mouth. A structured self-assessment questionnaire was used in collecting the data. Their results showed that acute symptoms were significantly more prevalent with prolonged days of the clean-up operation, with the exception of red skin as a symptom. Officers who partook in the clean-up activities had more respiratory symptoms than soldiers who were enlisted: cough (p = 0.02*), phlegm (p < 0.01*), and malaise (p = 0.04*). Smokers who were clean-up workers had greater cough prevalence (p = 0.02*). Clean-up workers who did not wear their masks well, although they wore other personal protective devices had a greater prevalence of symptoms like headache (p < 0.01*) and pharyngitis (p < 0.01*). It was also observed that the younger aged military personnel members had fewer symptoms than the older age groups (Gwack et al., 2012) as seen in Table 2.

Sim et al. (2010) also investigated the acute health problems in response workers of the Hebei Spirit oil spill by surveying 846 people that participated in the oil spill response operations from the 13^{th} to 20^{th} of the month of December 2007 in Wonbuk Town. Information regarding the clean-up operations was obtained including how many hours worked in a day, how many days worked, personal protective equipment utilization as well as health information. Their result showed that the number of days worked was related to an increased risk of respiratory symptoms (OR 2.1 95%CI: 1.6-3.0) for over seven days. They also reported that not protecting the respiratory system from these pollutants was linked to the development of respiratory symptoms (OR: 1.5 (1.3-1.8). The reported respiratory symptoms include pharyngitis, cough, and respiratory difficulties (Cheong et al., 2011; Gwack et al., 2012; Sim et al., 2010) as seen in Table 2.

3.5.4 Prestige oil spill and Respiratory Health of Clean-up Workers

Four (4) studies reported on the RH effects of exposure to Prestige oil spill on clean-up workers in Spain (Rodriguez-Trigo et al., 2010; Suarez et al., 2005; Zock et al., 2012; Zock et al., 2014).

Rodriguez- Trigo and colleagues performed a survey evaluating the RH effects and the debilitating effects of the Prestige oil spill on the chromosomes of response workers 2 years after being exposed to the spill. Although, the number of fishermen in the cooperative who were exposed to the oil spill due to partaking in the clean-up activities was n = 1119 and the non-exposed group, n = 577, those that finally took part in the study for the exposed group were n = 501 and the non-exposed group n = 117 both from the cooperatives in the Cantabrian coast Spain. The exposed fishermen with the greatest exposures participated for at least 15 days in the clean-up operations, for at least 4 hours a day. Interviews, clinical testing which included spirometry, methacholine challenge, assessment of biomarkers in exhaled breath condensate and others were performed. Their result revealed an elevated risk for lower respiratory tract conditions (risk difference (RD), 8.0 [95% CI: 1.0-15.0]), in the breath condensate, elevated markers of airway injury were observed in the exposed. Pulmonary function, however, did not differ remarkably between the two groups (Rodriguez-Trigo et al., 2010) as seen in Table 2.

Suarez et al. (2005) assessed the exposure conditions and acute health effects in clean-up workers exposed to the Prestige oil spill. The response workers were seamen, fishermen, bird cleaners, volunteers and paid workers. Four hundred respondents were recruited from each region via a simple random sampling of those involved in the clean-up and stratified by the type of worker and number of working days. There was a statistically significant relationship between exposure to crude oil from the Prestige Spirit oil spill and throat, and respiratory problems (OR: 10.4 [95% CI 4.0-27.4] p<0.001*) (Suarez et al., 2005) as seen in Table 2.

Zock et al. (2012) performed a longitudinal study to assess the persistence of the RH consequences 5 years after the clean-up activities. This was conducted as a follow-up study using the information gotten from the baseline study (Rodriguez-Trigo et al., 2010). Telephone interviews were used to successfully recruit about 470 exposed and 160 non-exposed fishermen. Recruitment of the exposed group was based on carrying out clean-up work for at least 35 days, for 5 hours per day. It was also based on not using or rarely using face masks, and performing a minimum of 5 different clean-up activities. Workers that did not keep to these criteria were the moderately exposed group. Their result showed that the prevalence of lower respiratory tract symptoms was higher in the exposed group (RR 1.4, 95% CI 1.1-2.0). These lower respiratory symptoms included wheeze, dyspnoea, cough and sputum production. There was a corresponding increase in the risk of having chronic respiratory symptoms with an increase in the degree of exposure and this was observed at the initial study and follow-up: RR: 2.0 (95% CI 1.0-3.0) and 3.0 (95% CI 1.8-6.0) for moderately and highly exposed, respectively, as against those without any symptoms. These findings revealed that respiratory health consequences could persist even after 5 years of being exposed to the oil spill exposure (Zock et al., 2012) as seen in Table 2.

In the same vein, another follow-up longitudinal study was conducted by Zock et al. (2014) in 2008/2009 but this time the aim was to assess the persistence of these functional and biological RH effects 6 years after clean-up activities. This study was among the clean-up workers (fishermen) who were exposed in 2002/2003 following the baseline survey done in 2004/2005. Using the same methodologies as in the initial evaluation, 230 workers who never smoked were the exposed group and 87 non-exposed workers who never smoked were studied. Due to the loss of follow-up, the reason being that the non-exposed group had minimal respiratory symptoms at the baseline survey, information was gathered from about 160 exposed and about 60 non-exposed fishermen. Their results showed that in the non-exposed, the pulmonary function, hyperresponsiveness of the bronchi and the growth factors and the respiratory biomarkers of oxidative stress levels had remarkably declined than in the exposed and also the parameters of the respiratory health were either the same or better in clean-up workers than in non-exposed, particularly, the FEV1/FVC and the FEF25–75% were remarkably elevated in the exposed after controlling for potential confounding variables, revealing that long-term RH consequences were not detected 6 years after the oil spill and the 4 years follow-up (Zock et al., 2014) as seen in Table 2.

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S/N	Reference; Study Location and Study period	Study Design, Study population, Sample size	Oil Spill	Methods of assessing Respiratory Effects	Study Findings	Adjustment for confounding factors
1.	Meo et al., 2008; Karachi, Pakistan; August 2003-2004	[a] CS with a 1-yr follow-up study; Clean-up workers (n = 20 males) vs matched controls (clerical staff, shopkeepers and salesmen) (n = 31males)	Tasman Spirit oil	Spirometry; Detailed interview, Questionnaire	A remarkable decrease in FVC, FEV1, (FEF25–75%) and MVV in those exposed to polluted air in comparison to matched controls	Age, height, body mass, socio-economic status (SES), Cigarette smokers, respondents with industrial exposure to smoke or dust
2.	Meo et al., 2009a; Coastal areas of Karachi, Pakistan; July 2003-December, 2004	[a] CC; Clean-up workers; (healthy men, n = 50) vs controls (clerical staff, shopkeepers and salesmen) (n = 50)	Tasman Spirit oil	Standardized Questionnaire, Detailed interview	Greater prevalence of cough, rhinorrhoea, sore throat, malaise, dyspnoea, chest tightness, phlegm and wheeze respectively (40%, 36%, 30%, 18%, 14%, 10% and 6%), compared to controls. The odds of sore throat; cough and runny nose [(OR, 95%CI): 6.09, 2.0-22.8; p<0.006*); (9.60, 2.61-35.22; p<0.0002*); and (14.0,3.0-62.0; p<0.0001*) were markedly higher among the clean-up workers than the controls	Age, sex, SES, respondents addicted to drugs, smoke cigarettes, exposed to smoke and dust from any industry and working at petrol pumps and gas stations
3.	Meo et al., 2009b; Coastal areas of Karachi, Pakistan; July 2003-December, 2004	Comparative study; Clean-up workers; Healthy, non-smoking male workers, n = 31 vs clerical staff, shopkeepers and salesmen, n =31	Tasman oil	Standardized Questionnaire; Spirometry	Being exposed to the spill had a decrease in FVC, FEV1, FEF25-75%, and MVV that is statistically significant (p = 0.001*; 0.001*; 0.002*; and 0.001*). Exposure to these pollutants for less than 8 days had a significant difference in only FVC (p = 0.001); for 8-15 days revealed a significant difference for FVC (p = 0.05) and greater than 15 days, revealed a significant decrease in for FVC, FEV1, FEF25–75%, and MVV in the exposed group relative to their controls (p = 0.001*; 0.001*; 0.02*; and 0.002*)	Subjects that smoke, SES, occupational exposure history, Age, Height, Weight
4.	Rusiecki et al., 2018; Gulf of Mexico; (20 April–17 December 2010	[a] PS, CS; DWH oil spill responder (US Coast Guard personnel); (n=8700) and non-responders (n=44800)	DWH oil spill following oil rig explosion	Objective health data, Survey data	Increased PRs were statistically significant and this increased with exposure for all 3 symptoms Cough (PR=1.6 -1.8); Wheeze (PR=2.1- 2.3); Dyspnoea (PR=1.8 -2.3). Elevated risk for chronic respiratory diseases (RR=1.3; 95%CI: 1.0 to 2.0), with asthma inclusive (RR=2.0; 95%CI 1.0 to 3.2); Increased RRs were also found for COPD (RR=1.4; 95%CI: 0.97 to 1.90) 2.5 years after exposure	-
5.	Rusiecki et al., 2022; Gulf of Mexico; 01 October 2007 - 30 September 2015	Prospective analysis; Prospective follow-up; (US Coast Guard personnel) Responders vs. Non-responders; n = 45,190	DWH oil spill following oil rig explosion	Medical encounter data	Responder/non-responder: - Weak elevated adjusted hazard ratios (aHRs) Responder comparisons:	Smokers

S/N	Reference; Study Location and Study period	Study Design, Study population, Sample size	Oil Spill	Methods of assessing Respiratory Effects	Study Findings	Adjustment for confounding factors
					Stronger risks with exposure to crude oil. Exposure through inhaling the pollutants: Elevated risks for all sinusitis, unidentified long-term sinusitis, COPD and other related health conditions and dyspnea and respiratory abnormalities [(aHR; 95%CI) (1.5; 1.1-2.1), (1.6; 1.1-2.2), (1.4; 1.0-2.1), (1.3; 1.0-1.7)]; Elevated risk for diseases categorized as asthma and reactive airway diseases; including the specific condition, asthma, the symptom, dyspnoea and the general categorization of long-term respiratory conditions [(aHR;95%CI): (1.2; 1.0-1.4), (1.4; 1.0-2.3), (1.5; 1.0-2.5), and (1.2; 1.0-1.4). Positive associations between exposure to both crude oil and dispersant and a raised risk for shortness of breath (HR=2.0; 95%CI, 1.0-5.0)	
6.	D'Andrea & Reddy, 2013; Gulf of Mexico; January 2010 and November 2012	[a]CS; Clean-up workers; n = 247 subjects (exposed vs non-exposed, 117 vs 130)	DWH oil spill following oil rig explosion	Self-reported data on somatic symptoms	Some respiratory somatic symptoms include headache 77%, Dyspnoea 71%, Dermatitis, chronic cough 52%, chest pain 38%	-
7.	D'Andrea & Reddy 2018; Gulf of Mexico;	Follow-up study after 7 years exposure; Clean-up workers; Exposed = 44, Non-exposed = 44	DWH oil spill following oil rig explosion	Medical records and charts	After 7years exposure (long-term exposure), chronic rhinosinusitis and reactive airway dysfunction syndrome developed.	-
8.	Alexander et al., 2018; Gulf of Mexico; 20th April, 2010 – 15th July, 2010 vs. after 15th July, 2010 – 30th September	[a] CS; United States Coast Guard personnel; (n = 4855)	DWH oil spill following oil rig explosion	Self-reported data; Questionnaire	Cough (19.4%); Dyspneoa (6.0%); Wheeze (4.0%) Adjusted analyses showed elevated PRs for cough (PR=1.9), Dyspnoea (PR=2.6), wheeze (PR=2.7) for any exposure to oil. A sub-analysis was done between those responders who were exposed to oil alone and to a combination of oil and oil dispersant compared with those who were not exposed.	Duration of deployment

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S/N	Reference; Study Location and Study period	Study Design, Study population, Sample size	Oil Spill	Methods of assessing Respiratory Effects	Study Findings	Adjustment for confounding factors
					Exposure to oil alone had raised PRs for cough, Dyspnoea and wheeze [(PR;95%CI): (1.7; 1.4-2.0), Dyspnoea (2.0; 1.2-3.0), and wheeze (2.0; 1.4- 3.6). Greater PRs recorded with respect to cough during exposure to a combination of oil and oil dispersant (PR: 2.7; 95% CI: 2.3-3.2), dyspnoea (PR: 5.0; 95% CI: 3.3-7.0), wheeze (PR: 5.1; 95% CI: 3.2-8.0)	
9.	Gam et al., 2018a; Gulf of Mexico; May 2011–May 2013	[a]PC Case analysis; Clean-up workers; n = 4,806	DWH oil spill following oil rig explosion	Spirometry; Questionnaire	Higher FEV1 (MD: 30 mL; 95% CI: -3, 64), and FVC (MD: 30 mL, 95% CI: -9, 69) values among those that smelled chemicals than unexposed workers; A significantly lower FEV1 (MD: -70 mL, 95% CI: -105, -30), FVC (MD: -60 mL, 95% CI: -97, -15) and FEV1/FVC (MD: -0.60%, 95% CI: -1.0, -0.2) among clean-up workers with exposure due to oily flora/fauna or dead animal recovery jobs compared to unexposed [FEV1 (MD: -50 mL, 95% CI: -80, -20); FVC (MD: -45 mL, 95% CI: -80, -9); FEV1/FVC ratio (MD: -0.4%, 95% CI: -0.80, -0.07)].	Maximum ordinal THC exposure levels, exposure to blazing oil/gas and dispersant; age in years, height, height-squared, body mass, male/female, origin, race; diabetes and pulmonary disease diagnosis before the spill; salary, education, employment, subjects with a history of oil company experience and clean-up operations; residing close to coastal regions, smokers and secondhand smoking (SHS) history
10.	Gam et al., 2018b; Gulf of Mexico; May 2011-May 2013	[a]PC; Clean-up workers; n = 7,780	DWH oil spill following oil rig explosion	Spirometry; Questionnaire	Some decrease in FEV1 (β: -70 mL, 95% CI: -130, -10) in decontamination workers compared to support workers. Exposed workers to flaming oil/gas had decrements in their pulmonary function with respect to the unexposed workers: FEV1 and FEV1/FVC [(β;95%CI): -180 mL; -320, -50) and (β: -2.0%; -3.5, -0.4), and a raised risk of having a FEV1/FVC in the minimum tertile (PR: 1.4, 95% CI: 1.0- 2.0)	Age; male/female; race; educational attainment; employment; past medical history of lung disease and diabetes; and work-related exposure history, residential proximity, exposure to secondhand smoke
11.	Gam et al., 2018c; Gulf of Mexico;	[a]PC; Clean-up workers; n = 6288 workers	DWH oil spill following oil rig explosion	Questionnaire; Spirometry	The lung function in general was not different by THC exposure levels among workers who partook in clean-up activities, who were highly exposed compared to the less exposed, hence no association was noticed between THC exposure and pulmonary function of workers that participated in clean-up operations 1 to 3 years after the spill	Age; gender; race; educational attainment; employment; past medical history of lung disease and diabetes; and work-related exposure history; residential proximity, exposure to secondhand smoke
12.	Chen et al., 2022; Gulf of Mexico; 15 May to 15 July 2010	[a]PC; Clean-up workers (exposed to burning and referent group);	DWH oil spill following oil rig explosion	Spirometry; Questionnaire	Exposure–response trends showed significant associations between elevated total daily greatest $PM_{2.5}$ exposure with reduced FEV1 (p-trend = 0.04), FEV1/FVC (p-trend = 0.01). Comparing with less-exposed	Sex, race, highest educational attainment; employment; cigarette smoking status; past medical history of lung disease and diabetes; and occupational

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S/N	Reference; Study Location and Study period	Study Design, Study population, Sample size	Oil Spill	Methods of assessing Respiratory Effects	Study Findings	Adjustment for confounding factors
		n = 2,320 (n = 518 and n =1,798)			workers those with greater total exposures had decrements in FEV1 [-167.0 mL, 95% CI: -337.0, 4.0] and FEV1/FVC (-2.0, 95% CI: -4.0, 0.2). A significant observed between average daily greatest exposure and FEV1 (p-trend = 0.02) and significantly lower FEV1 (-228.0 mL, 95% CI: -431.0, -25.0) among the workers who never smoked in the high-exposure group; and also a lower FVC among never smokers with higher average and cumulative daily maximum exposures. A statistically significant trend for the association between cumulative daily maximum exposure and FEV1/FVC (p-trend = 0.01) accompanied by non-significantly lower FEV1/FVC in the high-exposure group (-3.0%, 95% CI: -6.0, 0.1) in the ever-smokers sub-group	exposure history, residential proximity to spill, exposure to secondhand smoke
13.	Lawrence et al., 2020; Gulf of Mexico; Between August 2014 and June 2016	[a] PC; OSRC; n = 1840 (Worker vs Non-worker: 270 vs 1,570)	DWH oil spill following oil rig explosion	Questionnaire; Spirometry	4-6years after exposure, clean-up responders with THC exposure 1.0–3.0 ppm and ≥3.0 ppm had higher FEV1 when compared to responders with ≤0.3 ppm (β: 110 ml, 95% CI: 20, 200) and (β: 120 ml, 95% CI: 5-230). Decrease in lung function was no longer evident after 4–6 years. Greatest exposures had the greatest improvement in their respiratory health.	Age; age^2; height; height-squared; weight; female/male; Hispanic ethnicity; race; past medical history of diabetes or lung disease; educational level; occupation; previous oil company involvement; previous oil spill response history; smoking status.
14.	Lawrence et al., 2022; Gulf of Mexico;	[a]PC; Clean-up workers; N = about 24,610 (19,020workers; 5,590 nonworkers)	DWH oil spill following oil rig explosion	Self-reported data using Questionnaire	Workers who participated in the clean-up activities had greater risks of developing asthma than non-workers (RR: 1.6, 95% CI: 1.0-2.0). Increased risk with exposure to higher THC levels (p < 0.0001*). Risk of developing Asthma was elevated with an elevated exposure to individual BTEX-H chemicals and the chemical mixture RR: 1.5; 95% CI: 1.4-1.6. For physician-diagnosed asthma, associations were less apparent.	Age; male/female; Hispanic ethnicity; race; past medical history of diabetes or lung disease; highest educational attainment; employment status; past history of prior oil company experience; past history of oil spill cleanup operations; smoking status.
15.	Gwack et al., 2012; Taean County, Korea; January 4 to February 19, 2008	[a] CS Survey; Clean-up workers – Military personnel; n = 2,624	Hebei Spirit oil	Structured self-assessment questionnaire	Cough, Sore throat, Runny nose, Dry mouth, Sputum with younger age group having fewer symptoms than the older age groups	-
16.	Sim et al., 2010; Taean Area, Korea;	[a] CS Survey; Residents, Volunteers and Clean-	Hebei Spirit oil	Questionnaire; Interviews	Respiratory symptoms (Sore throat, Cough, Respiratory discomforts) OR: 1.5 (1.3-1.8).	Age, female/male, status, duration of clean-up activities, and hours

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S/N	Reference; Study Location and Study period	Study Design, Study population, Sample size	Oil Spill	Methods of assessing Respiratory Effects	Study Findings	Adjustment for confounding factors
	December 13 to 20, 2007	up workers; (n = 846)				worked per day.
17.	Rodriguez-Trigo et al., 2010; Atlantic Coast/Cantabrian Coast, Spain; September 2004 and February 2005,	[a] CS; Clean-up workers (Fishermen and women) exposed = 501; non-exposed= 177	Prestige oil	Questionnaire survey, Interviews; Spirometry	Risks for symptoms of lower respiratory tract diseases elevated (RD: 8.0 [95% CI: 1.0 to 15.0]), Raised biomarkers of airway injury in the exposed. No remarkable difference in pulmonary function between the two categories.	Sex, smoking status
18.	Suarez et al., 2005; Asturia & Cantabria, Spain; 29 November 2002 to 21 July 2003.	Census survey; Clean-up workers- Sea men, volunteers, bird cleaners, paid workers (n = 799)	Prestige oil	Structured questionnaire; computer-assisted telephonic interviews	A statistically significant association between Prestige Spirit oil spill exposure and throat and respiratory health issues OR: 10.4 [95% CI 4.0-27.4] p<0.001*.	-
19.	Zock et al., 2012; Asturia & Cantabria, Spain; 2008;	A follow-up study; Clean-up workers; n = 501 exposed vs n = 177 unexposed	Prestige oil	Structured validated questionnaire; computer-assisted telephonic interviews	Higher prevalence of lower respiratory tract symptoms (e.g., wheeze, dyspnoea, cough and sputum production) in the exposed (RR 1.4, 95% CI 1.0-2.0). With increase in the degree of exposure, there was a corresponding increased risk of chronic respiratory symptoms: RR: 1.7 (95% CI 0.9-3.1) and 3.3 (95% CI 1.8-6.0) for averagely and profoundly exposed, respectively, as against those that were symptomless.	Sex, age, smoking status
20.	Zock et al., 2014; Spain; November, 2008-April, 2009	A follow-up longitudinal study; Clean-up workers (Exposed vs Unexposed Fishermen); (n = 160 vs 60)	Prestige oil	Respiratory function testing (spirometry); Methacholine challenge test	Similar or better respiratory health statistics were observed in oil spill responders when compared to the non-exposed 6 years after the spill (FEV1/FVC and FEF25–75% were increased remarkably).	Smokers

Table 2. Summary of Respiratory Health Effects

*[a] CS – Cross-sectional study; PS - Prospective study; CC- Case-control; *statistically significant p<0.05*

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		Selection						Comparability	Outcome		
S/N	Reference	Representativeness	Selection of comparison group	Ascertainment of exposure	Precision of Exposure Dose Ascertainment	Ascertainment of exposure done prospectively or retrospectively	Demonstration that outcome of interest was not present at start of study, OR baseline assessment	Adjustment for confounding (rendering comparability of cohorts on the basis of the design or analysis)	Assessment of outcome	Was follow-up long enough for outcomes to occur?	Adequacy of follow-up of cohorts
1.	Meo et al., 2008	0	+	+	0	0	+	++	+	+	+
2.	Meo et al., 2009a	0	+	+	0	0	0	++	+	0	0
3.	Meo et al., 2009b	0	+	+	0	0	0	++	+	0	0
4.	Rusiecki et al., 2018	+	+	0	0	+	+	0	+	+	+
5.	Rusiecki et al., 2022	+	+	0	0	+	+	+	+	+	+
6.	D'Andrea & Reddy, 2013	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
7.	D'Andrea & Reddy 2018	0	+	0	0	+	0	0	0	+	0
8.	Alexander et al., 2018	+	+	+	+	+	0	+	0	0	0
9.	Gam et al., 2018a	+	+	0	0	+	0	++	+	0	0
10.	Gam et al., 2018b	+	+	+	0	+	0	++	+	0	0
11.	Gam et al., 2018c	+	+	+	+	+	0	++	+	0	0
12.	Chen et al., 2022	+	+	+	+	+	+	++	+	0	0
13.	Lawrence et al., 2020	+	+	0	+	+	0	++	+	+	0
14.	Lawrence et al., 2022	+	+	0	0	+	0	++	+	0	0
15.	Gwack et al., 2012	0	0	+	0	0	0	0	+	0	0
16.	Sim et al., 2010	0	0	+	0	0	0	++	0	0	0
17.	Rodriguez-Trigo et al.,	+	+	0	0	0	0	++	+	0	0

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		Selection						Comparability	Outcome		
S/N	Reference	Representativeness	Selection of comparison group	Ascertainment of exposure	Precision of Exposure Dose Ascertainment	Ascertainment of exposure done prospectively or retrospectively	Demonstration that outcome of interest was not present at start of study, OR baseline assessment	Adjustment for confounding (rendering comparability of cohorts on the basis of the design or analysis)	Assessment of outcome	Was follow-up long enough for outcomes to occur?	Adequacy of follow-up of cohorts
	2010										
18.	Suarez et al., 2005	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	+	+	0
19.	Zock et al., 2012	+	+	+	0	+	0	++	0	+	+
20.	Zock et al., 2014	+	+	0	0	+	0	+	+	+	+

Table 3. Quality Assessment Using New-Castle Ottawa Scale for Observational Studies (Kansagara et al., 2018).

The methodological quality of the different studies used in this review is summarized in table 3 above. The total methodological quality assessment of the studies was moderate, with a mean (± SD) NOS score of 5.9±2.2 (11 being the maximum achievable score). Most studies clearly assessed outcomes (75%) and most (75%) of the studies controlled for potential confounding variables. The majority of the studies met the criteria for the selection of comparison group (85%), however, three studies did not meet these criteria (cross-sectional studies) (Gwack et al., 2012; Rodriguez-Trigo et al., 2010; Suarez et al., 2005).

4.0 Discussion

In this systematic review that summarized the association between oil spills and the respiratory health of the clean-up workers, twenty studies examining this relationship were identified with search itineraries in different scientific databases. Due to the heterogeneity in the methodologies utilized in the different studies to assess the exposure and outcome variables, a meta-analysis could not be conducted. This heterogeneity was differing pollutants, varying sites of exposure and sources; and application of varying study designs (Ephraim-Emmanuel & Ordinioha, 2021). This systematic review therefore showed the diversities in the methodologies used for evaluating outcomes in relation to exposure variables. Thus, questionnaires, interviews, spirometry, etc. were used in making assessments. Some of the studies were longitudinal studies, prospective cohort studies, case-control studies hence temporality and causality were assessed while some others were cross-sectional studies, thus inhibiting an assessment of temporality and causality (Katoto et al., 2019).

In this systematic review, four different oil spills were discussed, namely the Tasman Spirit, DWH, Hebei Spirit and Prestige oil spills in the period under review. Most of the articles were on the DWH oil spill and RH of response workers (55%), while articles on the Hebei Spirit oil spill and RH of response workers were the least in number. Even though the oil spilt had different components, they all impacted the environment negatively in similar ways and impacted the respiratory system.

Clean-up workers consist of volunteers, military personnel, paid workers and residents, etc. that helped in remediating the environment after an oil spill. Different approaches were used to assess the RH of clean-up workers like spirometry, methacholine challenge and self-reported data via questionnaires and interviews. A spirometry test was used to assess the respiratory health of the response workers in nine studies, while self-reported data or interviews or questionnaires or medical records were used to assess the respiratory health of clean-up workers in eleven studies. The majority of the studies utilized interviews and questionnaires to characterize exposure to crude oil spills by defining the duration of exposure, use of protective gears, distance from the spill site, etc. Very few studies made use of actual estimates of the pollutants from the crude oil. This review focused on occupational exposure to crude oil spills and their respiratory health effects. The quality of the articles used in this review was evaluated using the NOS for observational studies on the basis of ROB (Kansagara et al., 2018) as shown in Table 3. Five articles had high ROB because they had a score below 5 (D'Andrea & Reddy, 2013; D'Andrea & Reddy, 2018; Gwack et al., 2012; Sim et al., 2010; Suarez et al., 2005), while the remaining 15 articles had their ROB ranging from moderate to low because their scores ranged from 5 to 9 (Alexander et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2022; Gam et al., 2018a; Gam et al., 2018b; Gam et al., 2018c; Lawrence et al., 2020; Lawrence et al., 2022; Meo et al., 2008; Meo et al., 2009a; Meo et al., 2009b; Rodriguez-Trigo et al., 2010; Rusiecki et al., 2018; Rusiecki et al., 2022; Zock et al., 2012; Zock et al., 2014).

The respiratory abnormalities associated with exposure to crude oil spills ranged from acute respiratory symptoms and diseases to chronic respiratory symptoms and diseases. Oil spills have occurred globally on varying scales and affect the respiratory system in different ways. Oil can be spilled into the sea or land, which can result in aerosol formation as it evaporates. Oil spills can also result in explosions, thereby resulting in the release of thick black fumes into the atmosphere. Several studies reviewed in this article recorded the respiratory symptoms and diseases associated with crude oil spills in the short and long term. The severity of the respiratory symptoms and diseases is dependent on the duration of the exposure, the use of protective gear, the magnitude and frequency of the exposure, the distance from the polluted site and the population that is exposed to the oil spill pollutants. All clean-up workers were near the toxicant and exposed to the oil spill for at least 8 hours per day for several days and used some form of protective gear (Meo et al., 2008).

The respiratory health in the studies was assessed with the use of spirometry tests, which is the basic test to measure pulmonary function, self-reported data using questionnaires and/or interviews and also medical records. Nine articles assessed the respiratory health of the clean-up workers using the spirometry test (Chen et al., 2022; Gam et al., 2018a; Gam et al., 2018b; Gam et al., 2018c; Lawrence 2020; Meo et al., 2008; Meo et al., 2009b; Zock et al., 2014). Spirometry measurements assess lung volumes and flows. They describe the consequences of obstruction or restriction on lung volumes (Meo et al., 2008). It is used widely in epidemiological studies to investigate the history, and causality of occupational and environmental pulmonary diseases (Meo et al., 2008). Self-reported data using questionnaires, interviews and medical data were observed in eleven studies. This means of assessing respiratory health has its limitation as respondents may or may not give accurate information (recall bias) on the respiratory symptoms thereby influencing the respiratory findings.

Strong associations were recorded between oil spills and the RH of the clean-up workers. Fifteen articles showed significant associations with oil spills, their constituents and the RH of the response workers, indicating that exposure to oil spills can be detrimental to the respiratory health of clean-up workers. Three articles recorded only the prevalence of respiratory symptoms observed with exposure to oil spills. Most spills occur at sea and the mechanical disruption of the ocean surface leads to the formation of sea spray droplets which are released into the atmosphere (Afshar-Mohajer et al., 2019). The aerosolized PM carries toxic compounds from the spills (e.g., PAHs) which may be airborne that are transported as droplets. These oils may also be volatilized and may release other pollutant gases, which when inhaled cause adverse respiratory health effects as seen in the various studies used in this review (Afshar-Mohajer et al., 2019).

Most studies in this review recorded a change in respiratory health either as decline in the function of the lung parameters or presence of respiratory symptoms reported by the study participants as a result of their exposure to oil spills during clean-up work. However, two studies by Lawrence et al. (2020) and Zock et al. (2014) had contrasting views. They both had follow-up studies for the DWH oil spill and the Prestige oil spill and still had similar findings. Clean-up workers who, at the initial study, had significant associations between the oil spill and the respiratory health effects in terms of reduced pulmonary functions, later had better and improved pulmonary function 4-6years after the spill in the case of Lawrence et al. (2020) and 6 years after the spill as recorded by Zock et al. (2014). One of the studies recorded in this review showed evidence of no difference between the lung function of the oil spill responders and the exposure to THC from the DWH oil spill (Gam et al., 2018c). There was also no difference between the worker and non-worker comparison when assessing their lung functions (Gam et al., 2018c).

Explosions secondary to oil spills may also result in the release of toxicants which can also negatively impact the respiratory health of the oil spill responders. Burning of crude oil results in the release of thousands of volatile organic compounds, particulate matter ($PM_{2.5}$, $PM_{0.1}$) which is inhaled and adversely impacts the respiratory system (Bede-Ojimadu & Orisakwe, 2020). These ultrafine and fine particulate matter gets deposited in the alveoli, can cross the blood-brain barrier, induce inflammatory responses and generate reactive oxygen species leading to acute respiratory infections, COPD, etc. (Chen et al., 2016). An article reviewed in this study took into consideration the exposure to burning at the spill site and its effect on respiratory health and this showed a strong association as evidenced by the reduced lung function (Chen et al., 2022).

Some of the respiratory health outcomes recorded were acute respiratory diseases including cough, sinusitis, malaise, sore throat, chest pain, etc. and some were chronic respiratory symptoms and diseases including wheeze, cough, dyspnoea, asthma, and COPD. This evidence shows the detrimental effects of exposure to crude oil spills or its constituents on the respiratory system (Alexander et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2022; D'Andrea &Reddy, 2013; D'Andrea & Reddy, 2018, Gam et al., 2018a; Gam et al., 2018b; Gwack et al., 2012; Lawrence et al., 2022, Meo et al., 2008; Meo et al., 2009a; Meo et al., 2009b; Rodriguez-Trigo et al., 2010; Rusiecki et al., 2018; Rusiecki et al., 2022; Sim et al., 2010; Suarez et al., 2005; Zock et al., 2012). This may be a result of the dose of the toxicant, the frequency, magnitude and period of exposure and also the age of those exposed (Mathieu-Nolf, 2002). Clean-up workers, which make up part of the vulnerable population may develop more severe respiratory symptoms and diseases when exposed to oil spills and its constituents because of their individual susceptibilities ranging from prolonged exposure and contact with the pollutants during clean-up work (De Chesnay, 2008; Noh et al., 2019; Park et al., 2019).

Although this systematic review focused on the RH consequences of crude oil spills on response workers, crude oil spills can affect virtually everyone and every organ system in the body. The pollutants generate reactive oxygen species (ROS) which results in an elevated transcription of pro-inflammatory mediators through intracellular oxidative stress. Increased ROS results in the depletion of cellular antioxidants which will consequently result in the destruction of the Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), protein and cellular organelles (Chen et al., 2016). These changes result in the alteration of the protein and fats formation, and protein folding and assembling leading to toxicological effects in all the organs leading to cardiovascular diseases, reproductive health abnormalities, chromosomal abnormalities, skin disorders, ocular manifestations, neurological disorders, endocrinological disorders, etc. (Chen et al., 2016).

The current review provides administrators, researchers, environmental health authorities, public health specialists and all stakeholders with the necessary information regarding the consequences of crude oil spills on RH of clean-up workers. This review, however, is limited by the methods used in assessing exposure and outcome variables in some of the studies for example by using interviews and questionnaires which may encourage recall bias. Data collected via these means may result in the provision of unreliable estimates of the exposure and outcome variables, however, the number of those interviewed helped the results (Katoto et al., 2019). Overall, consistent results were gotten from these studies, with few exceptions, providing acceptable evidence of the negative impacts of crude oil spills on the RH of the clean-up workers.

Challenges and Recommendation

Considering the effects of crude oil spills on the RH of clean-up workers, globally, we found few studies on the topic, especially in developing countries. We recommend more studies be carried out on this topic. A cross-sectional study design was used in some of the studies we reviewed. We recommend more prospective longitudinal studies be carried out. The longitudinal study design is useful in evaluating the association between risk factors and the development of diseases, and the outcome of treatment over periods of time. It also allows for causality and temporality to be ascertained (Hernandez-Sanchez, 2015). Cross-sectional studies, on the other hand, do not infer causality and chronicity of health-related events. Furthermore, components of crude oil and how each of them affects the respiratory health of the vulnerable population should also be researched to give a better insight into their individual effects. Quantitative determination of effects should also be used for exposures in future studies. We also recommend that more studies should be conducted on other vulnerable populations like children, women, pregnant women, the elderly, etc.

Conclusion

This systematic review has shown that clean-up workers are generally exposed to high levels of pollutants from crude oil spills following clean-up operations and this exposure is associated with respiratory diseases. There is, therefore, the need to ensure that research-driven policies and measures are put in place to reduce global oil spillage. Efforts are needed to monitor oil spills, identify their main sources, promptly tackle them, reduce oil spills to the barest minimum, and reduce the respiratory health effects of clean-up workers by enforcing legislation. There is an urgent need for an integrated approach and effective strategies to reduce this exposure, thereby controlling morbidities associated with it.

List of Abbreviations

- CS Cross-sectional Study
- CC Case Control
- PS Prospective Study
- BTEX Benzene, Toluene, Ethylbenzene, Xylene
- BTEX-H Benzene, Toluene, Ethylbenzene, o-, m-, and p-Xylenes, and n-Hexane
- VOCs Volatile Organic Compounds

- PAHs Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons
- SO_2, Sulphur dioxide
- NO_2 Nitrogen dioxide
- $PM_{2.5}$ Fine Particulate Matter
- $PM_{0.1}$ Ultrafine Particulate Matter
- WHO World Health Organization
- DALYS Disability Adjusted Life Years
- COPD Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease
- PRISMA Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis
- IAP Indoor Air Pollution
- AAP Ambient Air Pollution
- FEV1 Forced Expiratory Volume in one second
- MBPT Methacholine Bronchial Provocation Test
- FEF Forced Expiratory Flow
- MVV Maximum Voluntary Ventilation
- DWH Deep Water Horizon
- OSRC Oil Spill Response and Clean-up Workers
- HS Hebei Spirit
- TS Tasman Spirit
- DNA Deoxyribonucleic acid
- ROS Reactive Oxygen Species
- MD Mean Difference
- RD Risk Difference
- SES Socio-economic status
- KL Kilolitres
- SHS Secondhand smoking
- RH Respiratory health

Statements and Declaration

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Declaration of Competing Interest

We have no competing interest to declare.

Author Contributions

Pearl Abereton wrote the first draft of the manuscript and contributed to data collection, study design, and interpretation of the results. Best Ordinioha contributed to the interpretation of the results. Jacob Mensah-Attipoe contributed to the interpretation of the results. Oluyemi Toyinbo coordinated the study and contributed to the study design, data collection, and interpretation of the results. All authors contributed to reading and commenting on the manuscript.

Data Availability

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Consent to Participate

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