Ixtoc I: International and Domestic Remedies for Transboundary Pollution Injury

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INTRODUCTION

On June 3, 1979, Ixtoc I, an offshore oil rig controlled by Pemex,1 exploded.2 The ensuing leak polluted the Gulf of Mexico with approximately 3,000,000 barrels of oil, making it the largest oil spill in history.3 Although the United States incurred relatively little dam-

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2. Ixtoc Hearings, supra note 1, at 22 (statement of Stephen Mahood). On June 2, 1979, a "major loss of circulation" occurred. Id. at 21. Permargo personnel on the rig deferred a decision on what course to pursue to Pemex officials on shore, who, after a few hours delay, decided to remove the drill and bit. Sedco personnel strongly disagreed. Id. At 10:00 p.m. on June 2, 1979, the drill pipe was removed and newly mixed mud was inserted to equalize pressure. The high pressure of the pumped mud caused the drill collar to bend, making it impossible to shut off the flow of mud. The mud was followed by oil and gas, which ignited and burned uncontrollably. The fire intensified, the spill began, and the rig was abandoned. Id. at 21-22.

3. The rate of the leak was estimated at 30,000 barrels per day. Id. at 81 (statement of Adm. Paul Yost). Some early reports estimated that the leak had slowed to approximately 10,000 barrels a day. [1979] 10 Envir. Rep. (BNA) 1597. Later disclosures, however, indicated that the flow was probably constant throughout the duration of the spill (30,000 barrels per day). [1980] 10 Envir. Rep. (BNA) 2252; N.Y. Times, Feb. 26, 1980, § 1, at 15, col. 2. By December 1979, three months before it was capped, Ixtoc I had spilled 136,000,000 gallons of oil (2,500,000 barrels), making it twice the size of the Amoco Cadiz spill off the coast of Brittany, France, previously the largest spill. [1980] 10 Envir. Rep. (BNA) 765. The well was finally capped on March 23, 1980. Id. at 2252. By comparison, the Santa Barbara Channel blowout of 1969, which sparked a national movement for regulation of offshore drilling, leaked only about 2,300,000 gallons (41,000 barrels). R. Easton. Black Tide 110 (1972). The sheer size of the Ixtoc spill was compounded because the oil did not float in a homogeneous state. Instead it dispersed as emulsion, [1979] 10 Envir. Rep. (BNA) 1033, 1597, a mixture of one liquid (oil) finely dispersed in another liquid (water). It cost the United States an average of $75,000 to $85,000 a day to clean up the oil that reached its shores. Ixtoc Hearings, supra note 1, at 90 (statement of Adm. Paul Yost).
many individual United States nationals suffered severe injury to both their homes and businesses and deserve redress. Any recovery from Pemex, which is wholly-owned by the Mexican government, depends, however, on overcoming the traditional and still formidable theory of state sovereignty.

The proliferation of offshore drilling ventures increases the possibility of future accidents and of future litigation. This Note analyzes
the adequacy of the mechanisms for redress available to those injured by transnational oil pollution. Whether redress is sought internationally through the International Court of Justice (I.C.J.) or in the United States through the Foreign Sovereign Immunities Act, the conflict is between an injured party's right to compensation and the nation's exclusive right to judge activities within its sovereign territory. Part I considers the potential for pursuing a claim in the I.C.J.; Part II examines the application of the Foreign Sovereign Immunities Act in United States courts. The Ixtoc I spill is merely a specific example; the discussion applies to other transboundary pollution incidents involving injured American nationals and a foreign nation defendant.

I. SUIT IN INTERNATIONAL COURT

A. Transboundary Pollution Rule of Law

Over the last several decades, international custom has required that nations be responsible for government controlled activities that cause damage to other nations. Under traditional rules of national

Ocean and Gulf of Alaska. See 'Ad Hoc Select Comm. on the Outer Continental Shelf, 94th Cong., 2d Sess., Study on the Effects of Offshore Oil and Natural Gas Development 4 (Comm. Print 1976). Plans already are made for United States drilling companies to provide 120 drilling rigs to Mexico in the next 10 years. N.Y. Times, January 28, 1979, § 1, at 16, col. 2. Furthermore, at least 30 nations are producing from offshore wells, and 40 others are in the process of developing offshore capabilities. Yashiro, supra, at 23-24.

10. The I.C.J. is the successor of the Permanent Court of International Justice (P.C.I.J.) created by the League of Nations. Compare U.N. Charter art. 7, para. 1 with League of Nations Covenant art. 14. The process for the management of the I.C.J. is set forth in the U.N. Charter. U.N. Charter arts. 92-96. To insure impartiality, no member of the Court may exercise any political or administrative function or engage in any occupation or profession while sitting. Stat. I.C.J. art. 16, para. 1, reprinted in W. Bishop, International Law 923 (2d ed. 1962). The I.C.J. has 15 judges, with regular elections of five judges every three years; id. art. 13, para. 1, reprinted in W. Bishop, supra, at 923; no two members may be nationals of the same nation. Id. art. 3, para. 1, reprinted in W. Bishop, supra, at 921. Candidates must be elected by a majority of both the General Assembly and the Security Council to ensure a cross representation of various nations. Id. art. 10, reprinted in W. Bishop, supra, at 922. See generally S. Rosenne, The International Court of Justice (2d ed. 1961) [hereinafter cited as S. Rosenne 1961].


12. The concept of national responsibility was patterned after notions of how individuals should act in society. W. Hall, A Treatise on International Law 1 (6th ed. 1909). Our modern system of international responsibility recognizes liability for international injuries. H. Lauterpacht, International Law 383-84 (1970). The doctrine of sovereignty traditionally discouraged the imposition of liability unless grounded in a nation's consent by treaty, rules of law, or custom. Id. at 384. The scope of these sources, however, has expanded dramatically in recent years with a corresponding expansion of the principles of national responsibility. C. Eagleton, supra note 8, at 207-08. As a result, it is clear that nations are responsible for injuries they inflict on
responsibility, direct damage to the property of another nation creates a duty to redress the injury.\textsuperscript{13} Although no specific multilateral convention explicitly imposes liability for transnational pollution injuries resulting from offshore drilling,\textsuperscript{14} an international court will discern a general international rule from other sources\textsuperscript{15} and apply that rule to the specific situation.\textsuperscript{16} In the transboundary pollution situation, re-


\textsuperscript{13} See C. Amerasinghe, State Responsibility for Injuries to Aliens 74-75 (1967); C. Eagleton, supra note 8, at 51, 80, 103; Bleicher, An Overview of International Environmental Regulation, 2 Ecology L. Q. 1, 11, 25 (1972); Handl, Territorial Sovereignty and the Problem of Transnational Pollution, 69 Am. J. Int'l L. 50, 75-76 (1975).


\textsuperscript{15} I. Brownlie, supra note 14, at 19-23; D. O'Connell, International Law 25-29 (1965). "[I]f an international tribunal is unable to discover an existing treaty or customary rule relevant to the dispute, in theory at least the conclusion seems inescapable that the rule which the tribunal adopts . . . is a new rule of international law." D. Greig, International Law 31-33 (1970); see Stat. I.C.J. art. 38(D), reprinted in W. Bishop, supra note 10, at 926; S. Rosenne, The World Court 25 (3d rev. ed. 1973) [hereinafter cited as S. Rosenne 1973].

\textsuperscript{16} Because of lack of precedent, "the international judge [may have to] resort to general notions of justice and equity in deducing the new rule or in refining an existing rule." D. Greig, supra note 15, at 27. Moreover, the court is "at liberty to
sponsibility under international law is derived principally from two sources, judicial decisions and treaties and conventions. 17

1. Judicial Decisions

The leading case on transboundary pollution is the Trial Smelter Arbitration (United States v. Canada), 18 which concerned American property damaged by emissions of sulphur dioxide from a smelter in British Columbia. 19 Initially, a Canadian-United States International Joint Commission determined that past damage should be redressed. 20 As the pollution continued, the two countries formed a tribunal to determine present and future damages. 21 The tribunal established an administrative organization to regulate the smelter 22 and determined that

under the principles of international law . . . no [nation] has the right to use or permit the use of its territory in such a manner as

17. The Statute of the I.C.J. lists four primary sources of international law: "(a) international conventions, whether general or particular, establishing rules expressly recognized by the contesting states; (b) international custom, as evidence of a general practice accepted as law; (c) the general principles of law recognized by civilized nations; [and] (d) . . . judicial decisions and the teachings of the most highly qualified publicists of the various nations . . . " Stat. I.C.J. art. 38, reprinted in W. Bishop, supra note 10, at 926. For organizational purposes, only international conventions and judicial decisions will be separately discussed in this Note. International custom and general principles are, in part, composed of the two previous sources, I. Brownlie, supra note 14, at 4-5, and hence, are not separately treated. The teachings of publicists also will not be separately discussed because the influence of publicists permeates any discussion of international law. Although some commentators question the use of teachings of international publicists by the Court, see D. Greig, supra note 15, at 41, various cases use their teachings. See Temple of Preah Vihear, [1962] I.C.J. 6, 39 (Alfarq, J.); Interpretation of Peace Treaties with Bulgaria, Hungary and Romania, [1950] I.C.J. 221, 235 (Read, J., dissenting); International Status of South-West Africa, [1950] I.C.J. 128, 153 (McNair, J.); Diversion of Water from the Meuse, [1937] P.C.I.J., ser. A/B, No. 70, at 76-77 (Hudson, J.). For this reason, this Note mentions support by international publicists within the context of the judicial decisions and conventions.

19. Id. at 1917. In 1930, the smelter at Trail emitted between 330 and 350 tons of sulphur daily. Id.
20. The International Joint Commission awarded $350,000 and provided that future damages be adjusted by the owner of the smelter or the governments. Future damages were never adjusted by the company, nor determined by the governments. Id. at 1918-19.
21. Id. at 1907. The tribunal found damages for the period from 1932-1937 to be $78,000. Id. at 1931.
22. Id. at 1934.
to cause injury by fumes in or to the territory of another [nation]
or the properties or persons therein, when the case is of serious
consequence and the injury is established by clear and convincing
evidence.\textsuperscript{23}

The rationale of Trail Smelter has been applied uniformly in
diplomatic settlements involving extraterritorial environmental dam-
age resulting from radiation,\textsuperscript{24} noxious odors,\textsuperscript{25} and interference with
riparian rights.\textsuperscript{26}

In Corfu Channel,\textsuperscript{27} the I.C.J. implicitly accepted the Trail Smelter
reasoning by extending national responsibility to include activities
occurring within a nation’s territory that cause injury to foreign na-
tionals.\textsuperscript{28} In Corfu, British seamen were injured when their vessel

\textsuperscript{23} Id. at 1965. The tribunal undermined any potential argument that Canada’s
duty derived solely from the convention and, therefore, its decision would have little
precedential value. “Considering the circumstances of the case, the Tribunal holds
that the Dominion of Canada is responsible . . . for the conduct of the Trail Smelter.
Apart from the undertakings in the Convention, it is, therefore, the duty . . . of
Canada to see to it that this conduct should be in conformity with . . . international
law as herein determined.” Id. at 1965-66.

\textsuperscript{24} See Nanda, supra note 14, at 1101. In 1954, the United States, while con-
ducting hydrogen bomb tests in the Marshall Islands under a United Nations Trus-
teeship, exposed the crew of a Japanese fishing vessel to excessive levels of radiation.
The United States agreed to pay two million dollars as compensation for the injury.
The significance of the settlement is that it creates an expectation that a nation is
responsible for pollution damage and should therefore make reparations. Id. at 1095.
In 1958, the United States and Japan exchanged diplomatic correspondence concern-
ing the prospective damage from nuclear tests conducted near the Marshall Islands.
After Japan asserted that the United States should be solely responsible, the United
States agreed to make reparations for all substantial damages. 4 M. Whiteman, Di-
gest of International Law 578-86 (1963). When Australia requested I.C.J. action to
prevent resumption of French nuclear tests in the South Pacific, the I.C.J.’s dissent
noted that “each state is free to act as it thinks fit within the limits of its sovereignty,
and in the event of genuine damage or injury, if the said damage is clearly estab-
lished, it owes reparation to the state having suffered that damage.” Nuclear Tests,

\textsuperscript{25} See 6 M. Whiteman, supra note 24, at 256-57.

\textsuperscript{26} Lac Lanoux (Spain v. France), 12 R. Int’l Arb. Awards 281 (1957) (in French
only). Spain objected to a French plan to divert waters of Lake Lanoux into the
Ariège river for use in a hydroelectric plant. The tribunal declined to rule on the
question because no Spanish interests had been injured. The tribunal did state, how-
ever, that any French act injuring Spanish interests would support a claim. Id. at 308.

\textsuperscript{27} [1949] I.C.J. 4, 7: see 1 L. Oppenheim, international Law 343 (8th ed. H.
Lauterpacht 1955).

\textsuperscript{28} Corfu is cited to support the proposition that knowledge of potential polluters
imputes to the sovereign controlling the territory responsibility for transnational pol-
lution injury. See, e.g., Bleicher, supra note 13, at 17-18; Goldie, Liability for Dam-
age and the Progressive Development of International Law, 14 Int’l & Comp. L.Q.
1189, 1226-31 (1965); Holstein, State Responsibility and the Law of International
Watercourses, 7 Law. Americas 535, 544 (1975); Lester, River Pollution in Interna-
collided with mines in the Strait of Corfu and sank.\textsuperscript{29} The I.C.J. held Albania responsible for the protection of nationals of other countries from dangerous conditions within its jurisdiction.\textsuperscript{30} The Court held that the laying of the mine field could not have been accomplished "without the knowledge of the Albanian Government"\textsuperscript{31} and that every nation has the "obligation not to allow knowingly its territory to be used for acts contrary to the rights of other [nations]."\textsuperscript{32}

2. Treaties and Conventions

Progressively stricter notions of nation responsibility for pollution damages have developed in the last fifty years through treaties and conventions.\textsuperscript{33} Early conventions primarily sought to limit oil discharge from large ships.\textsuperscript{34} To secure signatories, however, these conventions did not completely prohibit oil discharge or impose liability.\textsuperscript{35} Rather, the nation of registry determined what fines the ship

\textsuperscript{30} Id. at 36.
\textsuperscript{31} Id. at 22.

\textsuperscript{33} See J. Barros & D. Johnston, supra note 14, at 200-62; Teclaff I, supra note 32, at 532-41.

\textsuperscript{34} In 1926, the United States held the first international convention on pollution, the Washington Conference. The United States delegate urged a complete prohibition of oil discharge from ships. Shepard & Mann, Reducing the Menace of Oil Pollution, 31 Dep't State Bull. 311, 311 (1954). The draft convention, however, was halfheartedly endorsed and simply enabled nations to create contiguous zones where discharge from ships could be prohibited. Final Act of the Preliminary Conference on Oil Pollution of Navigable Waters, Annex art. 1, reprinted in 1 U.S. Dep't of State, Papers Relating to the Foreign Relations of the United States 1926, at 238, 245 (1941). For a history of conventions regulating pollution from ships, see Higgins, Pollution: International Conventions, Federal and State Legislation, 53 Tul. L. Rev. 1328 (1979).

\textsuperscript{35} In 1954, under British initiative, the first generally accepted convention restricting oil pollution was signed. International Convention for the Prevention of Pol-
owner should pay. The 1958 Convention on the High Seas introduced the concept of nation responsibility for offshore mining, but did not impose liability for violating guidelines set forth in the convention. A more recent international convention imposes liability on owners of polluting vessels. The Brussels Convention on Civil Liability for Oil Pollution from Ships establishes limited strict liability and gives jurisdiction to the courts of the nation in which the injury occurs. Offshore mining pollution, however, is not expressly covered.

Other international environmental developments couple principles of national responsibility with liability for offshore mining accidents. The 1976 Convention on Civil Liability for Oil Pollution Damages from Offshore Operations imposes strict liability on offshore instal-
lation operators for pollution damages to a contracting party.\textsuperscript{44} Unfortunately, the convention is regional and only nations bordering the North Sea, Baltic Sea, or North Atlantic Ocean may accede to it.\textsuperscript{45} The Stockholm Declaration on the Human Environment,\textsuperscript{46} although not contractually binding, requires that nations prevent activities within their jurisdiction or control from causing environmental damage to other nations.\textsuperscript{47} Again, no mechanism for redress is provided.\textsuperscript{48}

The most important development in the area of transnational pollution is the United Nations Third Conference on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS).\textsuperscript{49} Although still in draft form, UNCLOS reflects the international concern for having nations redress transnational pollution injuries. If and when this convention is approved, polluters of areas (including the marine environment) under the jurisdiction of other [nations]...[will be] liable to other [nations] for such damage. The "activities" of concern may thus originate on land or any-

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{44} 1976 Seabed Treaty, supra note 43, art. 3, reprinted in 16 Int'l Legal Materials at 1452.
\item \textsuperscript{45} Id. art. 18, reprinted in 16 Int'l Legal Materials at 1455.
\item \textsuperscript{47} U.N. Conference on the Human Environment, June 16, 1972, principle 21, U.N. Doc. A/CONF. 48/14 and Corr. 1, reprinted in 11 Int'l Legal Materials at 1420. Mexican acceptance of national responsibility for environmental injury caused to other nations is clearly reflected in the statement of the Mexican delegate to the General Assembly's Second Committee on principle 21 of the Stockholm Declaration. "[T]he responsibility of all states is to avoid activities within their jurisdiction or control which might cause damage to the environment beyond their national frontiers and to repair the damage caused." 27 U.N. GAOR, Second Committee (1470th mtg.) 158, U.N. Doc. A/C 2/SR. 1470 (1972) (statement of González Martínez).
\item \textsuperscript{49} U.N. Doc. A/CONF. 62/WP.10 (1977), reprinted in 16 Int'l Legal Materials 1108 (1977). This convention will provide that "1. States are responsible for the fulfillment of their international obligations concerning the protection and preservation of the marine environment. They shall be liable in accordance with international law for damage attributable to them resulting from violations of these obligations. 2. States shall ensure that recourse is available in accordance with their legal systems for prompt and adequate compensation or other relief in respect of damage caused by pollution of the marine environment by persons, natural or juridical, under their jurisdiction. 3. States shall co-operate in the development of international law relating to criteria and procedures for the determination of liability, the assessment of damage, the payment of compensation and the settlement of related disputes." Id. art. 236, reprinted in 16 Int'l Legal Materials at 1189. "States have the obligation to protect and preserve the marine environment." Id. art. 193, reprinted in 16 Int'l Legal Materials at 1176.
\end{itemize}
where at sea, including flag ships and sea bed installations, and the
[nation] is responsible whether the enterprise is public or pri-

When accepted, UNCLOS will provide the binding contractual force
of a treaty, making it unnecessary to infer an international rule on
transboundary pollution.51

Present international law evidences the well accepted practice of
imposing liability on a nation inflicting pollution damage on another
nation. Thus, if the I.C.J., or any other tribunal, were to rule on
transboundary oil pollution, such as that caused by Ixtoc I, the nation
controlling the rig would be liable for damages. A clear rule of law,
however, is not sufficient to ensure that the claim will be adjudicated.

B. Suit in the I.C.J.

1. Preliminary Considerations in the I.C.J.

Traditionally, a nation resorts to the I.C.J. only after diplomatic
negotiations and arbitration have failed.52 Before suit is commenced,

50. D. Livingston, Marine Pollution Articles in the Law of the Sea Single Infor-
mal Negotiating Text 23 (1976).
51. The UNCLOS text, as presently written, makes transboundary polluters li-
able for the injury they cause. UNCLOS is probably the greatest multilateral un-
taking in history because it seeks to provide rules for “every possible issue involving
relations between nations with respect to the oceans, such as fishing, national jurisdic-
tion, navigation, environment, scientific research, seabed exploitation, and transfer
of technology.” Charney, United States Interests in a Convention on the Law of the
the past two Law of the Sea Conferences, this conference intends to establish a
regime that will resolve problems as they arise. Ganz, The United Nations and The
Law of the Sea, 26 Int’l & Comp. L.Q. 1, 2 (1977). The pollution provisions largely
are finalized and merely await conclusion of the entire treaty. Bernhardt, A Schem-
atic Analysis of Vessel-Source Pollution: Prescriptive and Enforcement Regimes in
overall convention will be concluded in the near future. N.Y. Times, Apr. 7, 1980, §
1, at 18, col. 1 (an initial list of 100 problems has been reduced to fewer than a
dozen).
52. The U.N. Charter impliedly suggests that negotiation, mediation, concili-
ation, and arbitration be used before judicial settlement. See U.N. Charter art. 33,
para. 1. The failure of negotiations concerning the Ixtoc I spill is likely because
Mexico disclaims responsibility. (1979) 10 Envir. Rep. (BNA) 1075, 1279, 1353-54;
N.Y. Times, Oct. 3, 1979, § 1, at 5, col. 1; see J. Siqueiros, La Responsabilidad Civil
de Petroleos Mexicanos en el Caso del Pozo Ixtoc-I, El Foro, Julio-Septiembre 1979,
at 58 (“A la luz del Derecho Internacional Publico, en su etapa actual en el caso [de
Ixtoc I], no existe responsabilidad del Estado mexicano para indemnizar los posibles
danos sufridos por gobiernos extranjeros, o por entidades publicas o privadas de otro
Estado.”) (The Mexican government, under present international law applied to the
specific facts of the [Ixtoc I spill], does not have the responsibility to indemnify pub-
lic or private entities of a foreign nation for damages incurred. (translation by the
Fordham Law Review)).
however, other requirements must be met. In a suit brought by a nation on behalf of its nationals, a nation must prove that the individual is in fact a national and that the local remedies of the defendant nation have been exhausted. Additionally, whether a nation

53. Espousal and settlement of claims for injuries sustained from a foreign nation is not a matter of legal right. 8 M. Whitman, supra note 24, at 1216; Restatement (Second) of Foreign Relations Law of the United States § 212 (1965). Generally, when the State Department decides to espouse a claim and the claim is successful, the lump sum awarded is distributed in compliance with relevant federal statutes. 8 M. Whitman, supra note 24, at 1219; Restatement (Second) of Foreign Relations Law of the United States § 214 (1965). The primary distribution statute is the International Claims Settlement Act of 1949, 22 U.S.C. §§ 1621-1627 (1976), which established the Foreign Claims Settlement Commission to distribute lump sum awards. Id. § 1622. The decision whether to espouse a national claim and the amount distributed upon settlement, however, can be constitutionally challenged. See Phelps v. McDonald, 99 U.S. 298 (1878) (bankrupt claimed government paid damages set by international commission to wrong party); Aris Gloves, Inc. v. United States, 420 F.2d 1386 (Ct. Cl. 1970) (failure to espouse claim); Meade v. United States, 2 Ct. Cl. 224 (1866) (right to release claims of nationals), aff'd on other grounds, 76 U.S. (9 Wall.) 691 (1869). See generally Note, Constitutional Issues in the Settlement of Property Claims Against Foreign States, 2 Hastings Const. L.Q. 1091 (1975).


55. The exhaustion of local remedies rule is also called the rule of local redress. Generally, the rule compels an individual to seek redress in the injured nation's courts before the injured party's government can pursue a claim on the national's behalf. The doctrine has ancient roots, 3 H. Grotius, De Jure Belli ac Pacis § V(1) (1910), and is regularly applied today. E.g., Barcelona Traction, [1964] I.C.J. 6; Interhandel, [1959] I.C.J. 6, 11, 27; Nottebohm, [1955] I.C.J. 4, 7-8; Ambatielos, [1953] I.C.J. 10, 13; Anglo-Iranian Oil Co., [1952] I.C.J. 93, 99; Phosphates of Morocco, [1938] P.C.I.J., ser. A/B, No. 74, at 14; Administration of the Prince Von Pless, [1933] P.C.I.J., ser. A/B, No. 54, at 151; Mavrommatis Jerusalem Concessions, [1925] P.C.I.J., ser. A, No. 5, at 45. The rule, however, may not apply in at least four situations: (1) when a declaratory judgment is sought, see German Interests In Polish Upper Silesia, [1925] P.C.I.J., ser. A, No. 6, at 12-13; (2) when it is waived in a compromis or treaty, see notes 61-62 infra; (3) when a party is estopped from asserting it, see Norwegian Loans, [1957] I.C.J. 9, 17; or (4) when the local remedy
2. Contentious Jurisdiction

A nation may reject the contentious or "personal" jurisdiction of the I.C.J. on the ground that no court or nation has the right to pass judgment on the exercises of sovereign authority. This defense ef-

is not effective or when it would be obviously futile to seek redress in the foreign nation's courts. See Finnish Ships Owners (Finland v. Great Britain), 3 R. Int'l Awards 1479, 1544 (1934). See generally C. Amerasinghe, supra note 13, at 169-267 (1967); C. Eagleton, supra note 8, at 95-124; T. Haesler, The Exhaustion of Local Remedies in the Case Law of International Courts and Tribunals 51-53 (1968). Borchard, The Local Remedy Rule, 28 Am. J. Int'l L. 729, 730 (1934); Mumma, Exhaus-
tion of Local Remedies in the Case Law of International Courts and Tribunals, 58 Am. J. Int'l L. 399 (1964). Many, however, feel that the local redress requirement may not be necessary in the transnational pollution injury situation. F. Garcia Amador, L. Sohn & R. Baxter, Convention on International Responsibility of States for Injuries to Aliens (Draft N.12 with explanatory notes) (1974); Bleicher, supra note 13, at 25. "Since the requirement of exhaustion of local remedies would be peculiarly burdensome where the individual plaintiff had been injured by out-of-state pollution the wrong complained of is held to incur state-to-state responsibility, and exhaustion of local remedies is not required." Lester, supra note 28, at 849; accord, Hoffman, supra note 32, at 538. "Indeed, insistence on the application of the local remedies rule in a transnational pollution context would violate basic considerations of equity as many pollution victims might find it simply beyond their means to engage in the costly and complex pursuit abroad of compensation." Ixtoc Hearings, supra note 1, at 263 (statement of Günther Handl).

56. Stat. I.C.J. art. 36, para. 2, reprinted in W. Bishop, supra note 10, at 926. Contentious jurisdiction is analogous to personal jurisdiction in United States law because it creates jurisdiction over the parties to the action. Unlike personal jurisdiction, contentious jurisdiction is based solely on consent; appearance before the I.C.J. depends exclusively on the will of the parties. See Monetary Gold, [1954] I.C.J. 19, 32; Anglo-Iranian Oil Co., [1952] I.C.J. 93, 100-03. Jurisdiction, however, is not unilaterally revocable once consent is given; the court has the power to determine whether jurisdiction exists. "In the event of a dispute as to whether the Court has jurisdiction, the matter shall be settled by the decision of the Court." Stat. I.C.J. art. 36, para. 6, reprinted in W. Bishop, supra note 10, at 926, see Nottebohm, [1933] I.C.J. 111, 119-20 (Preliminary Objections). See generally I. Shihata, The Power of the International Court to Determine its Own Jurisdiction (1965).

57. W. Bishop, supra note 10, at 63; J. Brierly, The Law of Nations 149 (1955). The underlying premise for rejecting the scrutiny of one nation's activity by another nation or other international authority is the principle that nations are equal. R. Klein, Sovereign Equality Among States 143-44 (1974). The Charter of the United Nations expressly incorporates this concept. U.N. Charter art. 2, para. 1 ("The Organization is based on the principle of the sovereign equality of all its Members."). The United Nations' respect for national sovereignty is manifested in article 2(7), which expressly rejects U.N. power to intervene in matters within the exclusive jurisdiction of member nations. U.N. Charter art. 2, para. 7. The United States has long accepted this traditional rule. The Antelope, 23 U.S. (10 Wheat.) 66, 125 (1825).
fectively precludes a plaintiff nation from compelling appearance of a defendant nation before the I.C.J. Consequently, contentious jurisdiction can only be obtained by express or tacit consent of the nations that are parties to the action. This consent requirement, however, does not render the I.C.J. powerless. Approximately sixty cases have been adjudicated by the I.C.J., and its rulings have been obeyed by the party nations.

A nation may consent to the Court's jurisdiction in two ways. First, a nation may, by a provision in a treaty, concede jurisdiction over disputes arising out of the subject matter of the treaty or make the

("No principle of general law is more universally acknowledged, than the perfect equality of nations . . . . It results from this equality, that no one can rightfully impose a rule on another. Each legislates for itself, but its legislation can operate on itself alone."). See generally E. Dickinson, The Equality of States in International Law (1930); P. Kooijmans, The Doctrine of the Legal Equality of States (1964).

58. Absent some previous consent, an "individual nation remains the supreme authority for deciding whether and under what conditions to submit a dispute to international adjudication, and no other nation can summon it before an international court without its consent. . . . Here again, decentralization of international adjudication is but another term for national sovereignty in respect to the judicial function." H. Morgenthau, Politics Among Nations 301 (4th ed. 1967); S. Rosenne 1961, supra note 10, at 260. Without consent, international jurisdiction will not lie. See Rights of Nationals of the United States in Morocco, [1952] I.C.J. 176; Eastern Carelia, [1923] P.C.I.J., ser. B, No. 5, at 28; S. Rosenne 1961, supra note 10, at 260. In limited situations, tacit consent is acceptable. See Minority Schools, [1928] P.C.I.J., ser. A, No. 64, at 24 ("The consent of a state to the submission of a dispute to the Court may not only result from an express declaration, but may also be inferred from acts conclusively establishing it."). Generally, this tacit consent is inferred when the parties plead the merits of the claim without objecting to the Court's lack of jurisdiction. S. Rosenne 1961, supra note 10, at 296.

59. No specific mechanism compels recalcitrant nations to comply with the judgments of the I.C.J. Nations only consent to a good faith adjustment of their disputes and good faith compliance with the decision is assumed. Supplementing this moral directive, the Charter of the United Nations specifies not only that each member must comply with the decisions of the I.C.J., but that when a nation refuses to comply, the other party may seek assistance from the Security Council. U.N. Charter art. 94. Because only one nation, Albania, has failed to honor the I.C.J.'s judgment, see S. Rosenne 1973, supra note 15, at 40, parties to international disputes never use this provision. Id. Even if this practice were to change, however, the political motivations of the Security Council members make effective utilization of article 94 unlikely. Id.

acceptance of jurisdiction the very substance of the treaty. Second, a nation may accept the I.C.J.'s jurisdiction unilaterally with a declaration to the Court creating "compulsory" jurisdiction over disputes concerning treaties, questions of international law, breaches of international obligations, and reparations for such breaches.

Many nations have signed declarations of compulsory jurisdiction, including both the United States and Mexico. Many of these
unilateral declarations, however, are subject to reservations.\footnote{67} Because reciprocity is the cornerstone of contentious jurisdiction, the defendant nation need defend only to the extent that its declaration overlaps or coincides with the declaration of the plaintiff nation.\footnote{68} For example, in submitting to compulsory jurisdiction, the United States reserved the right to exclude the Court’s jurisdiction over matters “which are essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of the United States of America, as determined by the United States of America.”\footnote{69} Practically, this reservation, the Connally Amendment, allows the United States to consent to the I.C.J.’s jurisdiction on a case by case basis.\footnote{70} More importantly, any nation sued by the

\footnote{67} Various reservations are inserted in declarations accepting compulsory jurisdiction of the I.C.J. These reservations either make ratification a condition of acceptance (Belgium, Liberia), set a time limit often subject to a notice of termination of the court’s jurisdiction after time has expired (Denmark, Japan, Liberia), exclude certain disputes in which the parties have agreed to other methods of resolution (Australia, Austria, India, Israel, United States), or exclude disputes arising before jurisdiction was accepted (Finland, Honduras). [1978-1979] I.C.J.Y.B. 56-86 (1979).


\footnote{69} 61 Stat. 1218; T.I.A.S. No. 1598; see note 65 supra. This amendment was accepted only after a great deal of debate by the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations. See S. Rep. No. 1835, 79th Cong., 2d Sess. 5 (1946) (“The question of what is properly a matter of international law . . . should be decided by the [I.C.J.] . . . [A] reservation of the right of decision as to what are matters essentially within the domestic jurisdiction would tend to defeat the purpose . . . of the proposed declaration and the purpose of . . . the Statute of the [I.C.J.]”). In addition, the American Bar Association advised that the Connally Amendment be deleted because of its deleterious effect on the I.C.J.’s powers of compulsory jurisdiction. Jackson, Jurisdiction of World Court: Association Urges New American Declaration, 33 A.B.A.J. 249 (1947); see Briggs, The United States and the International Court of Justice: A Re-Examination, 53 Am J. Int’l L. 301 (1959); Humphrey, The United States, the World Court and the Connally Amendment, 11 Va. J. Int’l L. 310 (1971); Layton, The Dilemma of the World Court: The United States Reconsiders Compulsory Jurisdiction, 12 Stan. L. Rev. 323 (1960); Note, The Connally Amendment, The Conflict between Nationalism and an Effective World Court, 53 Ky. L.J. 164 (1964). For commentary favoring the Connally Amendment, see Boyle, Proposed Repeal of Connally Reservation—A Matter of Concern, 43 Marq. L. Rev. 317 (1960); Note, “As Determined by the United States of America,” 10 Am. U.L. Rev. 146 (1961). Liberia, Malawi, Mexico, Philippines, Portugal, and the Sudan have inserted reservations similar to the Connally Amendment. [1978-1979] I.C.J.Y.B. 72-82 (1979). Portugal’s extreme self judging clause will not allow jurisdiction over any disputes if notice is given to the Secretary-General of the United Nations. Id. at 80. For the texts of the United States and Mexican reservations, see notes 65-66 supra.

\footnote{70} See Letter from Eric H. Hager, as Agent for the United States, to the International Court of Justice, reprinted in Aerial Incident of 27 July 1955, I.C.J. Plead-
United States in the I.C.J. may assert the Connally Amendment in its defense.\textsuperscript{71}

Even though the rule of law is clear, the difficulties of exercising contentious jurisdiction over Mexico for the Ixtoc I spill seem insurmountable. Because Mexico has disclaimed responsibility for the spill, express consent to the I.C.J.'s jurisdiction in this particular instance is unlikely.\textsuperscript{72} Furthermore, Mexico has not consented by a more general treaty or agreement.\textsuperscript{73} Finally, even with consent to compulsory jurisdiction,\textsuperscript{74} the Connally Amendment provides Mexico with a complete defense.\textsuperscript{75} Unfortunately, without repeal or modification of the Connally Amendment, the I.C.J. will remain an ineffective judicial mechanism for the United States, even as to countries that have consented to the compulsory jurisdiction of the I.C.J.

\section*{II. Suit in United States Court}

\textbf{A. Foreign Sovereign Immunities Act—Historical Context}

Alternatively, suit may be brought in United States federal court under the Foreign Sovereign Immunities Act of 1976 (the Act).\textsuperscript{76}
The Act, essentially a federal long-arm statute, codifies the law of sovereign immunity and provides for both personal and subject-matter jurisdiction over foreign nations. The Act may be used by the United States government and by individual United States nationals.

Previously, a foreign nation’s immunity in a United States court was determined by the State Department, which based decisions on a protective principle permits jurisdiction over extraterritorial acts if a significant national interest is at stake. United States v. Pizzarusso, 388 F.2d 8, 9 (2d Cir.), cert. denied, 392 U.S. 936 (1968); Rivard v. United States, 375 F.2d 882, 887 (5th Cir.), cert. denied, 389 U.S. 884 (1967); see Rocha v. United States, 288 F.2d 545, 549-50 (9th Cir.), cert. denied. 366 U.S. 948 (1961); United States v. Archer, 51 F. Supp. 708, 709 (S.D. Cal. 1943). This protective principle, however, is usually limited to crimes, such as espionage, sedition, or treason, that threaten the security of the nation. I. Brownlie, supra note 14, at 296-97; D. Greig, supra note 15, at 167-68.

81. The doctrine of sovereign immunity has ancient sources in the history of western culture. See note 8 supra. The concept that no nation could interfere with another nation’s exercise of sovereign rights remained a basic premise of international relations well into the nineteenth century. The United States first espoused support of absolute sovereign immunity in Schooner Exchange v. McFaddon, 11 U.S. (7 Cranch) 116, 135 (1812). The zenith in the United States of this doctrine was reached in 1895, when Attorney General Harmon, in response to Mexico’s protest against diversion of the Rio Grande, stated that “the rules, principles, and precedents of international law impose no liability or obligation upon the United States.” 21 Op. Att’y Gen. 274, 283 (1895). Ironically, shortly before denying Mexico’s appeal, the United States had appealed to Great Britain to ensure that Canadian waterways would not be diverted and damage the United States. Unlike the United States reaction to Mexican requests, the British government expressed willingness to provide those injured with both damages and injunctive relief. 2 J. Moore, Digest of International Law 451-52 (1906). Increasing commercial activity and economic interdependence of the nations of the industrial revolution led the United States to adopt a more limited view of sovereign immunity. J. Sweeney, The International Law of Sovereign Immunity 20, 37 (1963). A distinction began to emerge between jure imperii, purely public acts, and jure gestionis, private acts in which the sovereign acted as a private individual or corporate entity. Letter from Jack B. Tate to Philip B. Perlman (May 19, 1952), reprinted in 26 Dep’t State Bull. 984 (1952). Tate’s letter formally adopted the private-public distinction to the absolute sovereign immunity doctrine and officially sanctioned the judicial practice of seeking State Department consent before exercising jurisdiction over foreign nations. Id. at 985; see, e.g., Petrol Shipping Corp. v. Greece, 360 F.2d 103, 110 (2d Cir.) (no immunity for private acts), cert. denied., 385 U.S. 931 (1966); Pan Am. Tankers Corp. v. Vietnam, 296 F. Supp. 361, 363 (S.D.N.Y. 1969) (immunity as to sovereign acts (jure imperii) but not private acts (jure gestionis)); Harris & Co. Advertising v Cuba, 127 So. 2d 687, 690 (Fla. Dist. Ct. App. 1961) (jure gestionis).
political, rather than legal, considerations. These essentially subjective decisions were inconsistent and often left the plaintiff with-


83. For a survey of the general confusion generated by State Department suggestions, see Ocean Trans. Co. v. Ivory Coast, 269 F. Supp. 703 (E.D. La. 1967) (sovereign's purchase of a boat not immune); The Beaton Park, 65 F. Supp. 211 (W.D. Wash. 1946) (United States government not immune for merchant ships); Sullivan v. Sao Paulo, 36 F. Supp. 503 (E.D.N.Y.) (Brazil immune from claims arising from bond sales), aff'd, 122 F.2d 355 (2d Cir. 1941); Chemical Natural Resources, Inc. v. Venezuela, 420 Pa. 134, 215 A.2d 864 (Venezuela cancelled contracts, State Department recommendation to dismiss accepted), cert. denied, 395 U.S. 822 (1969). In Rich v. Naviera Vacuba, S.A., 295 F.2d 24 (4th Cir. 1961), creditors of Cuban nationals sought to attach a Cuban vessel. The court accepted a State Department suggestion to dismiss the suit. Id. at 26. The decision, however, may have been affected by the sensitive, on-going negotiations for the return of a hijacked United States airliner from Cuba. Day in Court, supra note 80, at 549; Note, Doctrines of Sovereign Immunity and Act of State—Conflicting Consequences of State Department Intervention, 25 Vand. L. Rev. 167, 170-71 (1972).
out redress. By entrusting this decision to the judiciary, Congress sought to guarantee, irrespective of possible adverse effects on United States diplomatic relations, a day in court for parties injured by a foreign nation engaged in commercial endeavors.

B. The Act and Oil Spills

Before a federal court will exercise jurisdiction under the Act, the plaintiff must show that one of the Act's exceptions to sovereign immunity applies to the facts of the case and that due process is not

84. "[T]he current practice [of State Department suggestion] has caused inequitable results for private litigants as a result of departmental suggestions of immunity in commercial cases." Jurisdiction of United States Courts in Suits Against Foreign States: Hearings on H.R. 11315 Before the Subcomm. on Administrative Law and Governmental Relations of the House Comm. on the Judiciary, 94th Cong., 2d Sess. 59 (1976) [hereinafter cited as House Hearings] (statement of Peter Trooboff). "A private party who deals with a foreign government entity cannot be certain of having his day in court to resolve an ordinary legal dispute." Id. at 27 (statement of Monroe Leigh); accord, P. Jessup, The Use of International Law 83 (1954).


86. See note 84 supra.

87. Exceptions to sovereign immunity are found in 28. U.S.C. § 1605(a)(1)(1976) (waiver), id. § 1605(a)(2) (commercial activities), id. § 1605(a)(3) (expropriation claims), id. § 1605(a)(4) (litigation involving immovable inherited and gift property), id. § 1605(a)(5) (non-commercial torts), and id. § 1605(b) (maritime liens). Section 1605(a)(3) provides a mechanism for redress from foreign expropriation. It allows jurisdiction over claims for property taken by a foreign nation without payment "in violation of international law." 28 U.S.C. § 1605 (1976); e.g., Alfred Dunhill, Inc. v. Cuba, 425 U.S. 682 (1976); Libyan Am. Oil Co. v. Socialist People's Libyan Arab Jamahiya, 482 F. Supp. 1175 (D.D.C. 1980). Section 1605(a)(5) was designed to provide compensation for injuries resulting from traffic or automobile accidents. FSIA Report, supra note 77, at 21, reprinted in [1976] U.S. Code Cong. & Ad. News at 6620. It is, however, broadly defined to exclude from immunity all "non-commercial torts," and indeed, various tort claims are expected to be brought under this section. See Letelier v. Chile, 488 F. Supp. 665, 673 (D.D.C. 1980).

88. "For personal jurisdiction to exist under section 1330(b), the claim must first of all be one over which the district courts have original jurisdiction under section 1330(a), meaning a claim for which the foreign state is not entitled to immunity. Significantly, each of the immunity provisions in the bill, sections 1605-1607, requires some connection between the lawsuit and the United States, or an express or
Because offshore pollution involves transboundary injury resulting from an extraterritorial act, the plaintiff must satisfy the requirements of section 1605(a)(2). That section provides that a foreign nation is not outside the jurisdiction of the United States, even when the injury causing act occurs outside the United States, if the act is “in connection with a commercial activity . . . that . . . causes a direct effect in the United States.” Thus, the Act applies if the defendant is a “foreign state,” the activity giving rise to liability is “commercial,” and the activity has a “direct effect” in the United States.

implied waiver by the foreign state of its immunity from jurisdiction. These immunity provisions, therefore, prescribe the necessary contacts which must exist before our courts can exercise personal jurisdiction. Besides incorporating these jurisdictional contacts by reference, section 1330(b) also satisfies the due process requirement of adequate notice by prescribing that proper service be made under section 1608 of the bill. Thus sections 1330(b), 1608, and 1605-1607 are all carefully interconnected.” FSIA Report, supra note 77, at 13-14, reprinted in [1976] U.S. Code Cong. & Ad. News at 6612.


90. 28 U.S.C. § 1605(a)(2) (1976). Section 1605(a)(2) provides an exception to immunity for commercial activities having a nexus with the United States. This is the relevant provision because it allows jurisdiction over acts that occur outside the United States that have effects in the United States. Section 1605(a)(5), the only other arguably relevant section, is inapposite because it requires that both the injurious effect and the act occur within the United States. See 28 U.S.C. § 1605(a)(5) (1976).

91. Id. § 1605(a)(2).

A “foreign state” is defined as a “political subdivision of a foreign state or an agency or instrumentality of a foreign state.” The definition of agency or instrumentality expressly includes a corporation when a majority of its shares or a proprietary interest is controlled by a foreign nation. In Carey v. National Oil Corp., for example, a corporation wholly-owned by the Libyan government, the Libyan National Oil Company (LNOC), was held to be a foreign nation for jurisdictional immunity purposes. The Pemex/Mexican government relationship is identical; like LNOC, Pemex is wholly government owned and should be a foreign nation under the Act.

The second prerequisite, “commercial activity,” is defined as “either a regular course of commercial conduct or a particular commercial transaction or act.” This requirement distinguishes purely governmental, public, or sovereign acts from government acts of a commercial or private nature. Prior to the Act, this distinction had been frustrated when courts emphasized the purpose, not the nature, of the activity. Congress, however, emphasized the nature of the

94. Id. § 1603(b)(2) (1976). A foreign state “is an organ of a foreign state or political subdivision thereof, or [a corporation,] a majority of whose shares or other ownership interest is owned by a foreign state or political subdivision thereof.” Id.
95. 592 F.2d 673 (2d Cir. 1979) (per curiam).
97. 592 F.2d at 676; see note 1 supra. “It is true that Pemex is engaged in a commercial business, the operation in Mexico of an oil company for profit.” D’Angelo v. Petroleos Mexicanos, 422 F. Supp. 1280, 1286 (D. Del. 1976), aff’d, 564 F.2d 89 (3d Cir. 1977).
99. FSIA Report, supra note 77, at 16, reprinted in [1976] U.S. Code Cong. & Ad. News at 6615; e.g., Yessenin-Volpin v. Novosti Press Agency, 443 F. Supp. 849, 855 (S.D.N.Y. 1978). Marshall recognized this theory in holding a nation responsible for private acts in Bank of the United States v. Planters’ Bank, 22 U.S. (9 Wheat.) 904 (1824). He stated that “when a government becomes a partner in any trading company, it divests itself, so far as concerns the transactions of that company, of its sovereign character, and takes that of a private citizen.” Id. at 907. For a modern rendition of Marshall’s conclusion, see House Hearings, supra note 84, at 27 (statement of Monroe Leigh) ("When the foreign state enters the marketplace or when it acts as a private party, there is no justification in modern international law for allowing the foreign state to avoid the economic costs of the agreements which it may breach or the accidents which it may cause."). See generally Lauterpacht, supra note 82. The notion of limited sovereign immunity is based on this distinction. See note 81 supra and accompanying text.
100. FSIA Report, supra note 77, at 14, reprinted in [1976] U.S. Code Cong. & Ad. News at 6613. In Berizzi Bros. v. Steamship Pesaro, 271 U.S. 569 (1926), the United States Supreme Court held that a state-owned ship operated by the state to transport cargo for hire was immune from suit. The court reasoned that whenever an
endeavor when it defined commercial activities to include those that private individuals ordinarily pursue, regardless of whether a nation is acting in the particular case.  

101 Offshore drilling seems clearly within this definition. The legislative history of the Act includes a "mineral extraction company" as an example of those activities within the "broad spectrum of [commercial] endeavor." 102 Courts have long defined "mineral" to encompass other resources, including oil. 103 Additionally, courts have construed "commercial activity" broadly to include contracting for oil, 104 agreeing to letters of credit, 105 operating hotels, cargo ships 106 or airports, 107 and selling newspapers. 108

Two cases, however, arguably preclude the finding that offshore oil drilling is commercial. In Yessenin-Volpin v. Novosti Press Agency, 109 the court held that the publication of allegedly libelous articles in Russian periodicals was not commercial activity 110 because the Soviet instrumentality of a nation is engaged in furthering a public purpose it may not be held accountable to private parties in a United States court. Because the Court found that the purpose of the Pesaro was to further the trade of the Italian people and thus add revenue to the nation, it declined to exercise jurisdiction over the dispute. Id. at 575-76; see note 81 supra (prior to the Act, courts distinguished between public and private acts).

101. 28 U.S.C. § 1603(d) (1976); see Gittler v. German Info. Center, 95 Misc. 2d 788, 790, 408 N.Y.S.2d 600, 602 (Sup. Ct. 1978) (cultural center immune from wage claim because the center was governmental in nature due to its function of promoting the foreign nation in the United States). Emphasizing the nature, not the purpose, can bring acts within the scope of sovereign immunity protection. In Perez v. Bahamas, 482 F. Supp. 1208 (D.D.C. 1980), an allegation that police enforcement of a Bahamian fishing law constituted "commercial activity" was held unfounded. Id. at 1210. Although the activity may have had some commercial goal or purpose—the protection of Bahamian fishing resources for Bahamian commercial fishermen—the court held that the nature of the act was not commercial and, therefore, was immune. Id. at 1211.


104. Carey v. National Oil Corp., 592 F.2d 673, 676 (2d Cir. 1979) (per curiam) (implicitly found a commercial activity, but held not sufficiently connected to the United States to permit jurisdiction).


109. Id.

110. Id.
government collaborated in, rather than contracted for, the publication.\textsuperscript{111} The court reasoned that potential liability for publishing official government commentaries "would contravene the spirit of sovereign immunity as well as the letter of the Immunities Act."\textsuperscript{112} Similarly, in a suit to enjoin OPEC price fixing, \textit{International Ass'n of Machinists v. OPEC},\textsuperscript{113} the court determined that the challenged activity should be defined narrowly as the control of production, not the fixing of price.\textsuperscript{114} Because only a sovereign can control the "terms and conditions for the removal of a prime natural resource" from its territory, the challenged activity was held purely governmental, and hence, noncommercial.\textsuperscript{115}

Both of these cases involve commercial activity that traditionally has been afforded sovereign immunity protection. Refusing to apply the Act mechanically, both courts apparently judged the overall character of the sovereign's activity within the spirit of sovereign immunity. The implicit reasoning is that, because the United States would be immune from suit for defamation\textsuperscript{116} or price-fixing,\textsuperscript{117} foreign nations should be extended comparable immunity.\textsuperscript{118}

\begin{quote}
111. "[A] given entity may at some times engage in commercial activities, on which it would not be immune, and at other times take actions 'whose essential nature is public or governmental,' on which it would be immune." \textit{Id.} at 855.
112. \textit{Id.} at 856. The court used the "in connection" language to avoid mechanical application of the Act. Although the activity seemed to be commercial for the purposes of the Act, the court concluded that jurisdiction over the Russian news agency was improper when the periodicals were actually publications of the Soviet government. \textit{Id.} The court's determination that the claim was not sufficiently connected to the activity probably was made because the Soviet Union, although acting in a manner which would be considered to be commercial by a United States court, was acting within the "spirit" of sovereign immunity. See \textit{id.}
114. \textit{Id.} at 567.
115. \textit{Id.}; see FSIA Report, \textit{supra} note 77, at 16, reprinted in [1976] U.S. Code Cong. & Ad. News at 6615. The \textit{OPEC} court admitted expert testimony that tended to prove that the price variations of \textit{OPEC} oil were not directly caused by price fixing. Rather, price fluctuation was an indirect result of \textit{OPEC}'s control of supply. This extrinsic cause obviated the need to consider the activity as price fixing, which clearly can be performed by private individuals. 477 F. Supp. at 566-67. The plaintiff in \textit{OPEC}, however, challenged price fixing, not the exercise of control over supply. \textit{Id.} at 558. Thus, \textit{OPEC}'s factual determination is questionable.
116. The United States generally waived its immunity from suit, 28 U.S.C. \S\ 2674 (1976), but retained its immunity for certain intentional torts. including libel and slander. 28 U.S.C. \S\ 2680(h) (1976).
118. See notes 109-15 \textit{supra} and accompanying text; \textit{cf.} notes 68-75 \textit{supra} and accompanying text (reciprocity is a basic principle of international law); note 120 \textit{infra} (broad jurisdictional reach of United States antitrust law criticized as an unfair imposition on foreign nations).
\end{quote}
drilling, however, is not within the spirit of sovereign immunity. Because the United States would be liable for offshore drilling, foreign nations also should be liable.

The final criterion requires that the activity have "direct effects" in the United States. No precise definition, however, exists within

120. This criterion demonstrates the relationship between statutory exceptions to sovereign immunity for commercial activities and due process requirements. FSIA Report, supra note 77, at 17, reprinted in [1976] U.S. Code Cong. & Ad. News at 6615. It is unclear whether satisfaction of the statute's requirement of "direct effects" satisfies due process requirements as well. In Verlinden B.V. v. Central Bank of Nigeria, 488 F. Supp. 1284 (S.D.N.Y. 1980), the court, by accepting the locus of the effect as the controlling criterion, id. at 1299, implicitly accepted that satisfaction of direct effects also satisfies the due process requirements of minimum contacts.

In Carey v. National Oil Corp., 592 F.2d 673 (2d Cir. 1979), the court stated that the facts of the case did not fulfill minimum contacts "and thus cannot reach the level of 'direct effects.'" Id. at 677. This implies that, if direct effects criteria are met, minimum contact requirements are also satisfied. In the most recent case construing the application of the Act, Nikkei Int'l, Inc. v. Nigeria, No. 77 Civ. 2348 (S.D.N.Y. Aug. 19, 1980), the court's initial consideration was whether the sovereign was immune. If the sovereign is not immune, reasonable contacts with the forum are still necessary to create both subject matter and personal jurisdiction. Id., slip op. at 20. This determination, however, necessarily requires that the contacts with the forum be reasonable. Id. at 28. The reasonableness standard in Nikkei is the minimum contacts standard of World-Wide Volkswagen Corp. v. Woodson, 444 U.S. 28 (1980).

Minimum contacts analysis evaluates the burden placed on the defendant in litigating in the forum, the interest of the forum in adjudicating the dispute, and the plaintiff's interest in obtaining convenient and effective relief. 444 U.S. at 292; No. 77 Civ. 2348, slip op. at 28. If only minimum contacts standards control, jurisdiction over transboundary polluters is clear. Damages in a forum of $580,000,000 create a strong interest in adjudicating the dispute. See note 5 supra and accompanying text. The burden on the defendant is not great. See note 89 supra and accompanying text. Finally, the plaintiff has no other effective and convenient relief. See note 55 supra. See generally Note, The Nikkei Case: Toward a More Uniform Application of the Direct Effect Clause of the Foreign Sovereign Immunities Act, 4 Fordham Int'l L.J. (1980). An imprecise variation of the effects doctrine under the Act is the effects doctrine used in antitrust law. See B. Hawk, United States, Common Market, and International Antitrust 21 (1979). The limits of antitrust and constitutional jurisdiction probably were delineated in United States v. Aluminum Co. of Am., 148 F.2d 416 (2d Cir. 1945) (Alcoa). Judge Learned Hand formulated the "intent and effect" test in which an intent to and an effect on the imports or exports of the United States makes extraterritorial application of antitrust law appropriate. Id. at 423. These criteria have been criticized as inconsistent with international law, an unreasonable imposition of American political and economic values on other nations, and unclear in application. Jennings, Extraterritorial Effects of Antitrust, 1957 Brit. Y.B. Int'l L. 146; Stanford, Application of the Sherman Act to Conduct Outside the United States: A View from Abroad, 11 Cornell Int'l L.J. 195, 210-11 (1978). See generally B. Hawk, supra, at 19-59. Later cases have revised the standard. See, e.g., Timberlane Lumber Co. v. Bank of Am. Nat'l Trust & Sav. Ass'n, 549 F.2d 597, 615 (9th Cir. 1976) ("not limited to trade restraints which have both a direct and substantial effect on [United States]
the context of the Act.\textsuperscript{121} The only guidance provided by Congress is that the Act is patterned after the District of Columbia long-arm statute\textsuperscript{122} and that "direct effects" criteria should be applied consistent with section 18 of the Restatement, Second, of the Foreign Relations Law of the United States.\textsuperscript{123}

As construed by the courts, the District of Columbia statute requires that either the tortious act and its effect occur within the District\textsuperscript{124} or the injury occur within the jurisdiction and the defendant have "regular business contacts" with the District.\textsuperscript{125} If this statute is applied rigidly in the context of the Act, transnational pollution injury might not meet the direct effects criterion. The first section clearly could not be satisfied because the act that caused the injury occurred outside the territorial waters of the United States.\textsuperscript{126} Meeting the requirements of the second section would depend on whether the firm responsible for the oil spill has "regular business contacts." Sufficient business contacts probably exist over Pemex,\textsuperscript{127}

\textsuperscript{122} Id. at 13, reprinted in [1976] U.S. Code Cong. & Ad. News at 6612.
\textsuperscript{123} Id. at 19, reprinted in [1976] U.S. Code Cong. & Ad. News at 6618.
\textsuperscript{124} Margoles v. Johns, 483 F.2d 1212, 1214 (D.C. Cir. 1973) (construing D.C. Code Encyl. § 13-423(a)(3) (West Supp. 1970)). In Margoles, defamation published in Wisconsin caused injury in the District of Columbia. Id. at 1213. The court interpreted "tortious injury" restrictively to include both the act and the injury. Thus, a connection with the forum greater than the act's injurious consequences was necessary before the court would exercise jurisdiction. Id. at 1219-20.
\textsuperscript{126} See notes 1-2 supra and accompanying text.
\textsuperscript{127} Although the District's tortious injury requirement is rather restrictive, the District's "transacts business" requirement is interpreted to extend jurisdiction to the farthest reaches permitted under the due process clause. Margoles v. Johns, 483 F.2d 1212, 1218 (D.C. Cir. 1973); Dorothy K. Winston & Co. v. Town Heights Dev., Inc., 376 F. Supp. 1214, 1216 (D.D.C. 1979). Additionally, the "regular business contacts" requirement permits jurisdiction even when defendant's contacts bear no relation to the tort that forms the basis of the cause of action. Aiken v. Lustine Chevrolet, Inc., 392 F. Supp. 883, 885 (D.D.C. 1975). Pemex may have satisfied the District's statute because of Pemex's long history of commerce with the United States. S.T. Tringali Co. v. Tug Pemex XV, 274 F. Supp. 227, 230 (S.D. Tex. 1967) (Pemex is "constantly sending its vessels into American ports."); F.W. Stone Eng'r Co. v. Petroleos Mexicanos, 352 Pa. 12, 42 A.2d 57 (1945) (various construction contracts). This commercial connection with the forum will be substantially augmented by the purchase of 120 offshore drilling rigs from the United States. See note 9
but possibly not over other nations participating in offshore oil drilling. Courts, however, do not universally apply the District of Columbia statute. In fact, some never mention it at all.\textsuperscript{128} Thus, the extent to which compliance with the District of Columbia statute is required is unclear.

The Act also incorporates the direct effects standard of section 18(b)\textsuperscript{129} of the Restatement, which provides that

\begin{quote}
[a] state has jurisdiction to prescribe a rule of law attaching legal consequences to conduct that occurs outside its territory and causes an effect within its territory, if . . . (i) the conduct and its effect are constituent elements of activity to which the rule applies; (ii) the effect within the territory is substantial; (iii) it occurs as a direct and foreseeable result of the conduct outside the territory; and (iv) the rule is not inconsistent with the principles of justice generally recognized by states that have reasonably developed legal systems.\textsuperscript{130}
\end{quote}

Courts, in construing "substantial," "direct," and "foreseeable," determine "direct effects" primarily by the locus of the injury.\textsuperscript{131} In\textit{ Harris v. VAO Intourist},\textsuperscript{132} the court held that the death of a United States national while abroad was necessarily indirect.\textsuperscript{133} Something

\textit{supra}. Pemex also contracted with Sedco, Inc. for the bareboat charter of the drilling rig involved in this particular accident.\textit{ Ixtoc Hearings, supra note 1}, at 20 (statement of Stephen Mahood). All of these connections lead to the conclusion that Pemex has satisfied the business contacts requirement by purposefully availing itself of the laws of the United States. See\textit{ Nikkei Int'l, Inc. v. Nigeria}, No. 77 Civ. 2348, slip op. at 24-30 (S.D.N.Y. Aug. 19, 1980) (letter of credit contract signed with U.S. bank sufficient contact);\textit{ National Am. Corp. v. Nigeria}, 448 F. Supp. 622, 637 (S.D.N.Y. 1978) (same), \textit{aff'd}, 597 F.2d 314 (2d Cir. 1979); cf. note 120 \textit{supra} (contacts are constitutionally sufficient to warrant exercise of jurisdiction).


133. \textit{Id}. at 1062; Upton v. Iran, 459 F. Supp. 264 (D.D.C. 1978). \textit{aff'd}, 607 F.2d 494 (D.C. Cir. 1979). The\textit{ Upton} court, in a wrongful death action, analogized the Act's long-arm provision to the District of Columbia long-arm statute and found that the deaths or injuries to Americans abroad did not have "direct effects" on the United States. \textit{Id}. at 266. The court stated that "[t]he common sense interpretation of a 'direct effect' is one which has no intervening element, but, rather, flows in a straight line without deviation or interruption." \textit{Id}. Because the fact of death, rather than
more substantial and direct than the effect on grieving survivors was necessary to exercise jurisdiction. Furthermore, the effects of defamation\textsuperscript{134} and the breach of a letter of credit\textsuperscript{135} were deemed to be substantial and direct when the United States was the locus of the injury.\textsuperscript{136} Under the rationale of these cases, the standards of section 18 would be met in transboundary pollution cases. The spoilation of the Texas coast with its concommitant damages is a more "substantial" impact than the consequences of a breach of a letter of credit\textsuperscript{137} or a defamatory remark.\textsuperscript{138} Moreover, the locus requirement is satisfied because the United States directly incurs the injury.\textsuperscript{139} As with the District of Columbia statute, however, courts have not universally applied the Restatement and have reached decisions without ever expressly mentioning it.\textsuperscript{140}

In most instances of transboundary pollution, the jurisdictional requirements of both the District of Columbia long-arm statute and section 18 will be met.\textsuperscript{141} In the instances when the standards of the District of Columbia are not met, jurisdiction under the Act is still appropriate because the District of Columbia statute guides and does not bind.\textsuperscript{142} Any doubt as to jurisdiction for transboundary pollution is dispelled by the legislative history of the Act, which cites Trail Smelter\textsuperscript{143} as an example of injury that will be redressed.\textsuperscript{144}

\textsuperscript{134} See Yessenin-Volpin v. Novosti Press Agency, 443 F. Supp. 849, 855 (S.D.N.Y. 1978). The Yessenin court suggested that injury to the good name and reputation of a United States resident caused by the writing and publication of articles outside the United States would constitute a "direct effect" for the Act's purposes.\textit{Id}.\textsuperscript{135} In National Am. Corp. v. Nigeria, 448 F. Supp. 622 (S.D.N.Y. 1978), aff'd, 597 F.2d 314 (2d Cir. 1979), the breach of a New York letter of credit payable to a New York beneficiary would have met the statutory requirement of "direct effects" because the alleged injury occurred in the United States and was substantial\textsuperscript{136}. In Verlinden B.V. v. Central Bank of Nigeria, 488 F. Supp. 1284, 1298 (S.D.N.Y. 1980), the court reasoned that jurisdiction was not permissible.\textit{Id}. As in\textit{Harris}, the situs of the injurious effect was controlling.\textit{Id}.\textsuperscript{137} See note 135 supra and accompanying text.\textsuperscript{138} See note 134 supra and accompanying text.\textsuperscript{139} See notes 1-2 supra.\textsuperscript{140} Upton v. Iran, 459 F. Supp. 264 (D.D.C. 1978), aff'd, 607 F.2d 494 (D.C. Cir. 1979).

\textsuperscript{134} See note 127, 137-39 supra and accompanying text.\textsuperscript{141} See note 128 supra.\textsuperscript{142} For a discussion of Trail Smelter, see notes 18-27 supra and accompanying text.

\textsuperscript{143} Immunities of Foreign States: Hearings on H.R. 3493 Before the Subcomm. on Claims and Governmental Relations of the House Comm. on the Judiciary, 93d Cong., 1st Sess. 20 (1973) (statement of Charles Brower). "There is also no immunity if the case involves '[a]n act outside the territory of the United States in connection
CONCLUSION

The transboundary pollution situation presents unique problems for both the international and domestic judicial systems. Although re- dress is available for injured United States nationals under the Act, international regulation of pollution creating activities is critically needed before the deterioration of the marine environment exceeds man's ability to provide effective restitution. A policy relying on mere financial compensation is, at best, logically indefensible and, at worst, reprehensibly short-sighted. Conclusion of the Conference on the Law of the Sea may well provide the prescient global policy that will allow seabed exploitation without irreparable harm to the environment.

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with a commercial activity of the foreign state elsewhere and that act has a direct effect within the territory of the United States. This exception would embrace extraterritorial conduct having effects within the United States such as an action for pollution of the air by a factory operated commercially by a foreign state. It is, in fact, a situation which we have had on our borders from time to time.” Id. See also Restatement (Second) Foreign Relations Laws of the United States § 18 (1965) (jurisdiction appropriate to redress transboundary injury). See generally, Note, Extraterritorial Jurisdiction Over Foreign States: The “Direct Effect” Provision of the Foreign Sovereign Immunities Act of 1976—Carey v. National Oil Corporation, 13 J. Int’l L. & Econ. 633 (1979).