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# Petroleum Tax Competition Subject to **Capital Rationing**

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### Petroleum Tax Competition Subject to Capital Rationing

#### Abstract

The recent dramatic fall in oil prices has led to extensive capital rationing in international oil companies, and subsequent fierce competition between resource extraction countries to attract scarce investment. This situation is not adequately addressed by the large literature on international taxation and multinational companies, since it fails to take account of capital rationing in its assumption that companies sanction all projects with a positive net present value. The paper examines the effect of tax design on international capital allocation when companies ration capital. We analyse capital allocation and government take for four equal oil projects in three different fiscal regimes: the US GoM, UK upstream and Norway offshore. Implications for optimal tax design are discussed.

JEL-Codes: H210, H250, F230, Q400, G120, G310.

Keywords: taxation, international companies, project metrics, project valuation, oil projects.

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#### 1. Introduction

The tax competition literature assumes that the aim of company investment decisions at all points in time is simply to realise every project with a positive net present value (NPV). See, eg, Olsen and Osmundsen (2011), Kind, Midelfart and Schjelderup (2005), and Haufler and Wooton (1999). However, tax competition is often exacerbated by capital rationing. Countries must now struggle to attract investment from limited company investment budgets. The assumption made in the current literature precludes a vital element in tax competition. Capital rationing amplifies the intensity of tax competition. In addition, the capital rationing metrics applied by multinational companies alter the nature of the localisation game.

The challenge of optimal tax design when companies ration capital is of relevance in many industries. We apply a case from the petroleum sector, where a volatile oil price imposes dramatic capital rationing at times. According to Wood Mackenzie Ltd,<sup>1</sup> because of the slump in prices, the oil and gas industry will cut USD 1 trillion from planned spending on exploration and development. Worldwide investment in the development of oil and gas resources will be cut by 22 per cent, or USD 740 billion, from 2015 to 2020. This is lower than was anticipated before prices plunged in 2014, with the deepest cuts in the USA. A further USD 300 billion will be eliminated from exploration spending. Oil companies ration capital even when the oil price is rising, since they know from experience that overly rapid growth leads to lower quality, inadequate project management and cost overruns (Osmundsen et al (2006)).

Several reasons may prompt companies to delay or refrain from investing in projects with a positive NPV. In the current situation, oil companies have cut investment budgets in response to a dramatic reduction in cash flow owing to an oil price reduction which reached 70 per cent at the most. Since companies prefer to fund a considerable part of new investment from their cash flow, they therefore cut capital spending. They are reluctant to cut back on dividends promised to shareholders, and are careful not to increase debt levels due to credit rating concerns and fear

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 $<sup>\</sup>underline{http://www.bloomberg.com/news/articles/2016-06-15/oil-industry-to-cut-1-trillion-in-spending-after-price-slumple}{p}$ 

of financial stress. Another main reason for refusing to sanction projects with positive NPVs, which does not relate to the market or to any financial position the company might occupy, is the organisational aspect of using resources other than financial ones in an optimal way. In other words, the decision may be linked to capacity constraints with regard to experienced project personnel and managers. Given continued low prices and great uncertainty about the future level of oil prices, this tightening of investment requirements may be the only way to avoid large losses. It is also a signal to the organisation that it needs to find new technical solutions which may reduce costs and make projects more robust at lower price levels. Large nonlinearity from possible losses probably exists, and is perceived much greater than losses from not sanctioning projects with positive NPVs based on very uncertain expected prices. This may make it appropriate for companies to delay or refrain from sanctioning projects with positive NPVs.

At a general business level, a literature demonstrates that internal funds are an important determinant for company investment. See, eg, Hubbard et al (1995). Several studies compare different upstream petroleum fiscal systems, but without accounting for capital rationing – eg, Blake and Roberts (2006). Not much can be found in the academic literature on capital rationing. Instead, it largely addresses the evaluation of investment projects involving both uncertainty and flexibility (see, eg, Bjerksund and Ekern, 1990). The focus here is on an investment opportunity where the deferrable investment decision may be made contingent on future information emerging about the risky output price. Decision criteria take the form of adjusted breakeven prices (BEPs). The real option approach is relevant in the current situation, where an increase in oil price volatility may call for investment deferral, but does not come close to explaining the level of capital rationing we experience in the petroleum industry. The Norwegian-based oil company AkerBP recently announced that new projects must satisfy a BEP of USD 35 per barrel, while most analysts estimate a real oil price of USD 60 per barrel. A large difference in project value exists between an expected price scenario of USD 60 per barrel and the AkerBP sanction criterion of a BEP below USD 35/bbl. Where projects with a positive NPV at the expected price of USD 60/bbl are concerned, the option value of waiting (based on any reasonable oil price model) can only justify a minor part of this project value difference. The remainder represents capital rationing. The current dramatic fall in oil prices has prompted the oil companies to impose strict capital constraints, with cancellations and delayed project decisions as the result. In Norway, for example, Statoil as operator for the Snorre Extension and Johan Castberg oil projects has again postponed a green light on the grounds that it needs to undertake additional optimisation and evaluation.

For a discussion of current issues pertaining to petroleum investment projects in the absence of capital constraints, see Osmundsen et al (2015). The investment decision when some constraint exists becomes rather more complicated than accepting all projects with an NPV greater than zero (Ingersoll and Ross, 1992). Myers (1974) showed that the weighted average cost of capital is not appropriate when capital constraints apply, and that a solution must be found at the corporate portfolio level.

In this paper, we describe the actual investment policy of multinational oil companies and the effect of tax design on investment location decisions. Oil companies apply capital rationing – ie, a positive NPV is not sufficient to get a project sanctioned. We describe the profitability hurdles (metrics) which projects must surpass and, by applying them to model petroleum fields, analyse how tax design affects capital allocation between countries in a context where capital is being rationed. According to Wood Mackenzie, the international petroleum companies have a high level of requirements for the internal rate of return (IRR) in new projects, "with 15 per cent considered the standard industry benchmark for a robust project".<sup>2</sup> This is way above the cost of capital for oil and gas projects, which is about nine per cent.<sup>3</sup> Capital rationing is typically implemented not only by the IRR, but also by imposing BEPs below the expected oil price or a hurdle for NPV in the form of an NPV index (NPVI). We describe these decision criteria and analyse their effect on capital allocation across countries with different tax systems.

According to economic theory, the correct solution when an investment regime with constraints has been is introduced is to apply a portfolio model for choosing the combination of projects in the opportunity set with the highest overall NPV. We look at solutions with two levels of capital constraint for four different projects in three different fiscal regimes. These projects are categorised as large, large marginal, medium and small. The UK offshore, the US Gulf of Mexico (GoM) and Norway offshore are the fiscal regimes chosen. The optimising solution, which may only be applied at the highest corporate level, is often simplified by looking at key metrics such as the IRR, the NPVI and the BEP of the projects (Emhjellen et al, 2006). This is done to achieve decentralised evaluation in organisations which make investment decisions on

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> https://www.woodmac.com/analysis/12134873

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Osmundsen et al (2015).

a daily basis and in different countries with varying fiscal regimes. The reasoning is that formal optimisation of the project portfolio can only be undertaken at the highest corporate level, and that the organisation therefore needs simplified metrics for decentralised testing of project profitability. These also function as financial targets for the organisation and create discipline, with a reduced number of projects being presented to management for decisions.

When comparing fiscal regimes for the petroleum sector, the concept of government take is often applied. This is defined as the percentage of net cash flow accruing to the government over the life cycle of a project, including income taxes, royalties, profit petroleum share, bonus payments, value-added taxes, excise duties, excess profit taxes, remittance taxes, state oil company carried interests, import duties, etc. These payments differ in their timing, so a discounted government take needs to be calculated.

We examine the extent to which NPVI, IRR and BEP will yield different project selections than those obtained by optimising portfolio NPV, given the capital constraint of USD 70 billion in investment.

Project robustness in terms of resilience to a fall in oil price is currently the focus of attention in the oil companies. A low BEP gives an indication, but we also examine the changes in the after-tax return for the projects in the three fiscal regimes with high and low oil prices. We find that the tax systems in the UK and Norwegian fiscal regimes help to alleviate the effects of the price drop on the projects.

The paper is organised as follows: Section 2 presents the data and calculates the NPV before and after tax in order to illustrate the difference in government take between Norway, the UK and the US Gulf of Mexico. We also find the solution for the portfolio which maximises NPV given two natural limits on capital budgets, USD 40 billion and USD 70 billion in investment, when total possible investments are 117 billion USD. In section 3, we describe the three different metrics we use to evaluate the projects in terms of ranking. Section 4 examines the portfolio ranking of model oil and gas projects on the basis of the metrics, and juxtaposes these against those obtained by maximising total portfolio NPV, given the constraints. Section 5 presents the analysis of project returns with changes in prices and discusses company behaviour in terms of project robustness and project selection. We conclude in section 6.

#### 2. The data, government take and project selection

The data consist of four oil projects which we have named "large", large marginal", "medium" and "small", reflecting the barrels of oil equivalent they can produce. These are representative of the industry. The large and medium fields are typical in that they are stand-alone developments, while the small field is typical in that it is tied back to an existing development for fluid processing. The large marginal field has less volume compared with total cost. This is often related to greater water depth, higher temperature, more difficult geology or a combination of such factors. Table 2.1 summarises the total Capex cost and total volume.

Table 2.1: The oil projects

	CAPEX(Mill USD)	Oil(Mill Bbl)
Large	15000	1200
Large Marignal	15000	840
Medium	8000	500
Small	1000	35
Small	1000	35

As can be seen from table 2.1, the projects have not only very different capital investment requirements but also varying volumes to produce. Investment ranges from USD 1 to 15 billion, while production volumes vary from 35 to 1200 million barrels. The complete data for the projects, including the calculations, are provided in appendix I. Although some could argue that the effect of debt financing through interest deductions will differ for the three fiscal regimes, we have chosen to use the same weighted average cost of capital (WACC) at a nominal 10 per cent. This is because financing is undertaken at the corporate level. Debt level is evaluated and decided, and the most reasonable financing independent of country is evaluated. The WACC chosen is reasonable for the industry, although some analysts might consider it to lie at the lower end of what is applied in the upstream sector.

The fiscal regimes of the three countries differ. The US offshore tax regime has a royalty of 12.5 per cent on gross production income and a corporate tax rate of 35 per cent. Depreciation depends on the type of investment but is typically front-end loaded within eight years, but no earlier than production start. In our analysis, we have chosen depreciation rules for the "facilities" category with the following annual percentages from the first year of production to

year eight: 14.3, 24.5, 17.5, 12.5, 8.9, 8.9, 8.9 and 4.5. Operating cost is expensed. No deduction is made for interest, since this is assumed to be included in the cost of capital.<sup>4</sup>

The UK tax system has an ordinary tax rate of 30 per cent and an offshore tax rate of 32 per cent. All operating and investment costs are expensed in the year they occur. In addition comes an additional depreciation allowance against the offshore tax of 62.5 per cent for investments in the year they are made. There is no deduction for interest.

In Norway, the ordinary tax rate is 25 per cent while the additional offshore tax rate is 53 per cent. Operating costs may be deducted from these taxes, while investment is depreciated on a straight-line basis over six years from the year of investment. In addition comes an extra depreciation allowance of 22 per cent of investment against the offshore tax (5.5 per cent annually for four years). Interest on upstream investment is deductible from both corporate tax and offshore tax, restricted to the maximum interest payable on a loan equal to 50 per cent of the remaining tax value of the capital expenditure. Interest payments can be deducted from the total tax of 78 per cent. In our analysis, only the interest against offshore tax is included in the valuation. The interest deduction from ordinary tax is assumed to be included in the cost of capital.

A tax analysis for the three regimes is performed on four model fields. See appendix I. We apply a real oil price of USD 60 (2015) per barrel and a two per cent inflation rate. Table 2.2 below presents NPV and the government take for the consolidated case and a ringfenced case. A consolidated case is one where a company in a taxpaying position can let the cost of the project be offset against its other income for tax purposes. A ringfenced case is one where the company is not in a tax position and the costs must be carried forward for offsetting against future project income. The latter position is relevant for new entrants as well as some of the existing companies in the current circumstances, given the large drop in product prices.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> It is normal in the GoM fiscal regime with signature bonuses applicable to large prospective areas. We do not account for these, since the data is privileged and the proportion of an area bonus applicable to a particular project is difficult to assess.

		NPV	NPV after tax	NPV after tax	NPV tax	NPV tax	Gov. take	Gov. take
		Before tax	Consolidated	Ring fenced	Consolidated	Ring fenced	% Cons.	% Ringf.
USA GoM	Large maginal	4863	456	381	4407	4482	90,6 %	92,2 %
Norway	Large marginal	4863	1002	337	3861	4526	79,4 %	93,1 %
Norway	Small	483	107	74	376	409	77,8 %	84,7 %
Norway	Medium	5978	1392	1211	4586	4767	76,7 %	79,7 %
Norway	Large	12600	2982	2530	9618	10070	76,3 %	79,9 %
USA GoM	Small	483	133	106	350	377	72,5 %	78,1 %
USA GoM	Medium	5978	2140	2132	3838	3846	64,2 %	64,3 %
USA GoM	Large	12600	4812	4786	7788	7814	61,8 %	62,0 %
UK Up.	Large	12600	6529	6049	6071	6551	48,2 %	52,0 %
UK Up.	Medium	5978	3227	2997	2751	2981	46,0 %	49,9 %
UK Up.	Small	483	332	307	151	176	31,3 %	36,4 %
UK Up.	Large marginal	4863	3393	2671	1470	2192	30,2 %	45,1 %

Table 2.2: NPV and government take

Project calculations are displayed in Table 2.2. The first observation is that the government take for the large field is very high in Norway, at more than 76 per cent of the project's NPV, and considerably lower in the UK at 48.2 per cent consolidated. The US GoM lies in between at 62 per cent. The second observation is that the US tax for the large marginal field is very high, with a government take of more than 90 per cent. The Norwegian tax for the large marginal field is 79.4 per cent given a consolidated tax position and considerably higher when ringfenced (93.1 per cent). The UK has by far the lowest tax burden for this project, at 30.2 per cent consolidated and 45.1 per cent ringfenced. Where the medium-sized field is concerned, Norway again has by far the highest government take – about 10 per cent above the USA and roughly 30 per cent higher than the UK. With the small field, Norway's government take is about five per cent higher than the USA, and the UK again shows very low percentages of 31.3 and 36.4 per cent (ringfenced).

We now analyse the optimal portfolio with the goal of maximising portfolio NPV. The total portfolio consists of these nine projects, and we allow for the oil companies holding only a partial equity interest in the projects, since this is often the real position given the presence of other partners and the ability to alter the equity interest through purchase or sale. We also focus on consolidated NPV, since this predominantly is the situation – at least for mature oil companies. Total investment and NPVs are presented in table 2.3.

		Capex	NPV
		Mill USD 0	Consolidated
Norway	Large	15000	2982
Norway	Large Marignal	15000	1002
Norway	Medium	8000	1392
Norway	Small	1000	107
USA GoM	Large	15000	4812
USA GoM	Large Marignal	15000	456
USA GoM	Medium	8000	2140
USA GoM	Small	1000	133
UK Up.	Large	15000	6529
UK Up.	Large Marignal	15000	3393
UK Up.	Medium	8000	3277
UK Up.	Small	1000	332
Sum	Total	117000	26555

Table 2.3: Project NPV and investments

We first analyse this on a wholly owned basis. Since all the projects have a positive NPV after tax, they would all be sanctioned and developed in a world with no constraints. The total investment would be USD 117 billion and generate an NPV of USD 26.6 billion. Capital budgets permit all the projects analysed – ie, tax competition in this instance is instigated by capital constraints.

The value of the portfolio of projects may be written as:

$$NPV_p = \sum_{i=1}^N V_i X_i$$

In equation 2.1,  $V_i$  denotes the NPV of project *i*, and X<sub>i</sub> the relative percentage invested in project *i*, (i=1,..N).

We introduce partial ownership and a budget constraint. By allowing for a reduced equity share in the projects, the mathematical optimising solution will indicate the attractiveness of the projects for a company in the different fiscal regimes given the capital budgeting constraint. We examine first a limit of USD 40 billion on the capital budget. With this investment constraint, equation 2.1 is maximised subject to:

$$X_i \ge 0$$
$$X_i \le 1$$

and

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} I_i X_i \le 40.000 \,,$$

where  $I_i$  is the undiscounted investment (capital expenditure – Capex) in project I, and  $X_i$  is the percentage invested in *i*.

Table 2.4 presents the portfolio optimisation result with a capital constraint of USD 40 billion.

		Capex	NPV	Percentage	NPV given	Capex given
		Mill USD (	Consolidate	ed Included	constraint	constraint
UK Up.	Large	15000	6529	100 %	6529	15000
USA GoM	Large	15000	4812	100 %	4812	15000
UK Up.	Medium	8000	3277	100 %	3277	8000
UK Up.	Small	1000	332	100 %	332	1000
USA GoM	Medium	8000	2140	13 %	268	1000
Norway	Large	15000	2982	0 %	0	0
Norway	Large marignal	15000	1002	0 %	0	0
Norway	Medium	8000	1392	0 %	0	0
Norway	Small	1000	107	0 %	0	0
USA GoM	Large marignal	15000	456	0 %	0	0
USA GoM	Small	1000	133	0 %	0	0
UK Up.	Large marignal	15000	3393	0 %	0	0
Sum	Total	117000	26555		15218	40000

Table 2.4 NPV optimisation given constraint of USD 40 billion

The first observation is that no Norwegian project is included. These projects do not have a sufficiently high NPV after tax compared with the investment needed. All projects in the UK are included except the large marginal field. The US large project is included 100 per cent and the US medium project absorbs the rest of the investment and is included with 13 per cent of the project. The total NPV is USD 15.2 billion.

If the capital limit is raised to a higher level, 70 USD billion, the result changes to the one presented in table 2.5.

		Capex	NPV	Percentage	NPV given	Capex given
		Mill USD	Consolidate	ed Included	constraint	constraint
UK Up.	Large	15000	6529	100 %	6529	15000
USA GoM	Large	15000	4812	100 %	4812	15000
UK Up.	Large marignal	15000	3393	100 %	3393	15000
UK Up.	Medium	8000	3277	100 %	3277	8000
USA GoM	Medium	8000	2140	100 %	2140	8000
Norway	Large	15000	2982	53 %	1590	8000
UK Up.	Small	1000	332	100 %	332	1000
Norway	Large marignal	15000	1002	0 %	0	0
Norway	Medium	8000	1392	0 %	0	0
Norway	Small	1000	107	0 %	0	0
USA GoM	Large marignal	15000	456	0 %	0	0
USA GoM	Small	1000	133	0 %	0	0
Sum	Total	117000	26555		22073	70000

Table 2.5 NPV optimisation given constraint of USD 70 billion.

The optimisation selects all the projects in the UK, the large and medium US projects and the large Norwegian project (but with only 53 per cent). The Norwegian fiscal regime is not favourable when companies operate with a before-tax capital constraint. However, the US tax on a large marginal field is the highest and almost no NPV is left in the project after tax. That makes it very unattractive for capital allocation with a constraint.

Simple metrics like the NPVI, the IRR and the BEP per barrel are used as project sanction criteria in the industry. We now analyse how project choice based on these metrics, with the same capital constraint, might differ from project optimisation solutions obtained by mathematical programming. First, we present the three metrics.

#### 3. The three metrics

International oil companies do not use formalised portfolio models for decision making. This is too bureaucratic. Instead, simplified project metrics are calculated by individual divisions and communicated to central management. Projects must reach certain metric thresholds to be sanctioned.

The first metric we present is the IRR, which is described in many finance textbooks (see Brealey and Myers, 2011, and Copeland and Weston, 2005). It is defined as the rate of return which gives an NPV of zero:

$$NPV = \sum_{t=0}^{T} \frac{X_t}{(1 + IRR)^t} = 0, \qquad (3.1)$$

where  $X_t$  is the expected net cash flow after tax in period *t*.

The second metric is the NPVI, defined as the after-tax NPV of the project<sup>5</sup> divided by the before-tax NPV of investment (Kind, Tveteras and Osmundsen, 2005):<sup>6</sup>

$$NPVI = \sum_{t=0}^{T} \frac{X_t}{(1+r)^t} / \sum_{t=0}^{T} \frac{I_t}{(1+r)^t},$$
(3.2)

where  $I_t$  is expected investment in period *t* and *r* is the WACC. It is our understanding that this metric is used by the dominant international oil companies in periods when oil prices are fairly stable.

The third metric is the BEP of the project (Jovanovic, 1999). It is often used by the oil industry in times like the present, when oil prices are volatile.<sup>7</sup> This is a variant of (3.1) in that the variable to be estimated, BEP, is in the numerator:

$$NPV = \sum_{t=0}^{T} \frac{(x_t P)(1-s) - C_t}{(1+r)^t} = 0 \quad .$$
(3.3)

Where  $x_t$  is production in period *t* and *s* is the marginal tax rate,  $C_t$  is total cost – ie, the sum of investment and operating cost – and *r* is the WACC. P is the constant price which gives an NPV equal to zero after tax – ie, the BEP. The solution is obtained by iteration.

An example of applying BEP as an investment decision criterion is provided by Statoil. The oil company presented a BEP requirement of USD 50 per barrel for all projects at its Capital Market Day in June 2015. This was clearly a capital rationing mechanism, since it operated at the same time with an expected oil price of USD 80 per barrel in its expected NPV estimate.<sup>8</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> For simplicity, we have assumed 100 per cent equity financing.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Companies apply traditional NPV values – ie, all cash flow components are discounted by the same discount rate.

For a discussion of differentiated discount rates applied to partial cash flows, see Osmundsen et al (2015). <sup>7</sup> The financial press frequently reports on BEPs in different extraction regions, and much attention is currently being paid to the BEP of US tight oil. See, eg,

http://uk.businessinsider.com/cash-cost-breakeven-oil-prices-2015-12?r=US&IR=T.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Dagens Næringsliv (Norwegian Business Daily), 24 August 2015.

# 4. Maximising portfolio NPV with capital constraints juxtaposed against metric selections

To illuminate the capital allocation problem facing the international oil companies, the marginal tax rates for the projects in the various tax regimes have been estimated. These tax rates differ from the total government-take tax rate estimated in table 2.2, which can be regarded as an average tax rate. The marginal tax rate is estimated by calculating the effect on tax of investing 10 per cent more in each of the projects. With a capital constraint, this is the capital budgeting decision which faces the companies, since they can choose to invest or divest in each of the fiscal regimes. The result is presented in table 4.1

	Base NPV	New NPV	Base NPV	New NPV	Change NPV	Change PV	Marginal tax
	before tax	<u>before tax</u>	after tax	after tax	after tax	<u>Capex</u>	<u>rate</u>
Uk, Small	483	406	332	314	-18	77	76,62 %
Uk, Medium	5978	5419	3277	3135	-142	559	74,60 %
Uk, Large marginal	4863	3875	3393	3133	-260	988	73,68 %
Uk, Large	12600	11613	6529	6269	-260	987	73,66 %
Norway Large marginal	4863	3875	1002	725	-277	988	71,96 %
Norway, Large	12600	11613	2982	2705	-277	987	71,94 %
Norway, Medium	5978	5419	1392	1235	-157	559	71,91 %
Norway, Small	483	406	107	85	-22	77	71,43 %
US Gom, small	483	406	134	77	-57	77	25,97 %
US Gom, Medium	5978	5419	2140	1717	-423	559	24,33 %
US Gom, Large margina	4863	3875	456	-299	-755	988	23,58 %
US Gom, Large	12600	11613	4812	4056	-756	987	23,40 %

Table 4.1 Marginal tax rate in the fiscal regimes for each project

The results show quite similar marginal tax rates for the three projects in each fiscal regime, but substantial differences between these regimes. While Norwegian and UK marginal tax rates are above 71 per cent, the figure in the USA ranges from 23 to 26 per cent. The results of the metric calculation and juxtaposition with the mathematical optimisation solution are presented in table 4.2. Where the metrics are concerned, it is reasonable to assume that everything will be invested in the project with the best score until the budget limit is reached.

		<u>N L</u>	<u>NLm</u>	<u>N M</u>	<u>N S</u>	<u>US L</u>	<u>USLm</u>	<u>US M</u>	<u>US S</u>	<u>UK L</u>	<u>UKLm</u>	<u>UK M</u>	<u>UK S</u>	<u>Sum</u>
Capex	Musd	15000	15000	8000	1000	15000	15000	8000	1000	15000	15000	8000	1000	117000
NPV a.tax	consol.	2982	1002	1392	107	4812	456	2140	133	6529	3393	3277	332	26555
<b>NPV</b> optims	solution	1590				4812		2140		6529	3393	3277	332	22073
Metric 1	IRR	16,0 %	11,0 %	15,9 %	16,3 %	15,1 %	8,8 %	15,1 %	16,6 %	28,2 %	20,1 %	31,4 %	64,4 %	
Capex		15000		8000	1000	6000			1000	15000	15000	8000	1000	70000
NPV a.tax		2982		1392	107	1925			133	6529	3393	3277	332	20070
Metric 2	NPVI	0,30	0,10	0,25	0,14	0,49	0,05	0,38	0,17	0,66	0,34	0,58	0,43	
Capex		8000				15000		8000		15000	15000	8000	1000	70000
NPV a.tax		1590				4812		2140		6529	3393	3277	332	22073
Metric 4	BE	35,4	48,9	37,7	44,1	42,4	58,7	44,9	51,6	25,6	34,9	26,5	27,8	
Capex		15000		8000		8000				15000	15000	8000	1000	70000
NPV a.tax		2982		1392		2566				6529	3393	3277	332	20471

Table 4.2 Maximising the NPV solution with capital constraint juxtaposed against metric solutions

Reading from left to right, the columns provide the information on the projects (project titles abbreviated) with respect to the headings on the left-hand side of the table. On the right-hand side, the sum of the Capex and the total NPV solution (in bold) are given for each of the solutions.

The NPVI metric gives the same investment allocation as the mathematical programming solution (as expected with an undiscounted before-Capex constraint) – ie, it includes the same projects 100 per cent and, at the margin, reduced the investment in the Norwegian large project to 53 per cent. This solution generates a total portfolio NPV of USD 22 073 million. The BEP solution gives a lower total NPV (USD 20 471 million). The IRR metric yields the lowest total NPV solution of USD 20 070 million. It includes two of the smaller projects with a sufficiently high IRR (the US small project and the Norwegian small projects with IRRs of 16.6 and 16.3 per cent respectively). The IRR solution at the margin reduces investment in the US large project to 40 per cent. The BEP allocation also implies a reduction of this project, but only to 53 per cent. All the solutions include the UK projects, even the large marginal project not included for the two other fiscal regimes in any of the metrics.

The capital requirement and investment financing for a company will always be linked to its after-tax cash flow. If a company has real capital constraints and desires to maximise the value of its investment opportunities in different fiscal regimes, it will need to examine after-tax metrics or use after-tax constraints. Before-tax constraints and before-tax metrics like the NPVI do not account for the tax effects of investment. This metric, however, that implicitly presumes a before-tax capital constraint, can be justified if critical personnel is the scarce factor, as the need for personnel is typically linked to the level of before tax investment.

Returning to the present situation, with scarce capital, appendix II displays the optimal portfolio choice – ie, maximum NPV with an after-tax investment constraint corresponding to a before-tax budget limit of USD 70 billion (with marginal tax rates as specified in table 4.1). The optimising solution is given the minimum of the sum of the present value of after tax cost allowed where the corresponding sum of the before tax is 70 billion. This sum of the after tax cost is 22.7 billion USD. The portfolio NPV is now reduced from USD 22 073 million to USD 20 472 million. The reason is that the goal of minimising the sum of the present value of the after tax costs cuts back on investments that have positive NPVs even more than the before tax constraint. The solution is equal to the portfolio investment choice obtained using the BEP metrics in table 4.2. The BEP metric, which is the before-tax price necessary to make the present value of the after-tax cash flow equal to zero, is therefore a reasonable simplifying metric for choosing a portfolio based on after-tax constraint.

Note that the design of the tax systems has a large impact on the cash flow profiles of the companies. The portfolio cash flow resulting from the NPV optimisation with a before-tax constraint and the solution with after-tax constraint in appendix II and the difference in cashflow between these portfolios are given in appendix III. The before-tax constraint gives a much higher financing need in the early years, since the oil company does not account for the fact that the resource extraction countries are carrying part of the investment via the tax system (tax credits). Companies operating in several tax regimes will probably consider the after-tax effect when seeking finance for their activities. In such a situation, fiscal regimes providing early deductions - as in Norway and the UK - will be much more competitive with fiscal regimes like the US GoM which have late deductions. For the first five years, from 2018 to 2022, the accumulated "investments" needed after tax is USD 4 441 million greater for the portfolio with the before-tax constraint on investments than the after tax constraint on investments. However, the return on the difference in the portfolios based on the cash-flow difference for all the years from 2018 to 2047 is 13.7 per cent. With the after-tax constraint, this return is deemed to be insufficiently high. The after tax constraint selection using the IRR metric gives an even lower financing need than the portfolio selection based on the breakeven price metric. The accumulated cashflow need is 7.525 billion USD less in just four years (until 2021) with the IRR metric. However, the return That illustrates how companies with capital constraints may require very high returns for projects to be sanctioned.

All the metrics in table 4.2 are used at times by oil and gas companies when evaluating projects, but companies are now using the BEP metric as the project selection criterion. The BEP seems to attract particular attention when the long-term price pattern represents the major concern. That is descriptive of the current position, with a volatile oil market. The companies seem to follow their expressed strategy of electing to delay projects which do not satisfy their breakeven targets. Attention is concentrated on cost reduction and project optimisation to meet the BEP. On its Capital Market Day in June 2015, Statoil made particular mention of the need for projects to have a positive NPV at USD 50 per barrel. As has been shown above, the BEP gave the same solution as portfolio maximisation with an after-tax constraint. The metric is therefore a good approximation for portfolio maximisation with an after-tax budget constraint.

#### 5. Project return robustness

Since attention at oil companies is focused on the breakeven oil price and project robustness to price risk, it is interesting to examine the robustness of the after-tax return of the projects to a change in the oil price. This may indicate how far the tax system alleviates price risk relative to the before-tax return – to what degree does the tax system change the impact of the after-tax return compared with the before-tax return? The BEPs estimated for the projects give an indication. Based on the IRR before tax, the tax cash flow and the after-tax cash flow, however, a clear indication can be obtained of where the fiscal regime has the biggest or smallest impact on the systematic price risk (given the fact that most of the systematic risk is related to oil price). Given that negative cash flows from the project may be offset against other income (consolidated), a tax regime based on a cash-flow tax would give the same changes in before-and after-tax return. This is not the case for the three fiscal regimes we analyse. In table 5.1 below, we show the IRR for the projects at base price (USD 60/bbl) and at the lower level of USD 40/bbl and the higher of USD 80 /bbl.

Table 5.1 Project returns in fiscal regimes given realised oil prices

	<u>60 Usd</u>	<u>60 Usd</u>	<u>40 Usd</u>	<u>40 Usd</u>	<u>80 Usd</u>	<u>80 Usd</u>	% change	% change	<u>% change</u>	<u>% change</u>
	<u>B.t.</u>	A.t.c.	<u>B.t.</u>	A.t.c.	<u>B.t.</u>	<u>A.t.c.</u>	<u>40 B.t.</u>	<u>40 A.t.</u>	<u>80 B.t.</u>	<u>80 A.t.</u>
Norway, Large	22,8 %	16,0 %	12,8 %	9,9 %	30,7 %	21,0 %	-43,9 %	-38,1 %	34,6 %	31,3 %
Norway Large marginal	14,6 %	11,0 %	5,4 %	5,8 %	21,6 %	15,2 %	-63,0 %	-47,3 %	47,9 %	38,2 %
Norway, Medium	24,1 %	15,9 %	12,0 %	9,1 %	33,9 %	21,7 %	-50,2 %	-42,8 %	40,7 %	36,5 %
Norway, Small	39,8 %	16,3 %	6,9 %	6,6 %	70,4 %	27,9 %	-82,7 %	-59,5 %	76,9 %	71,2 %
US Gom, Large	22,8 %	15,1 %	12,8 %	7,3 %	30,7 %	21,1 %	-43,9 %	-51,7 %	34,6 %	39,7 %
US Gom, Large marginal	14,6 %	8,8 %	5,4 %	1,3 %	21,6 %	14,2 %	-63,0 %	-85,2 %	47,9 %	61,4 %
US Gom, Medium	24,1 %	15,1 %	12,0 %	5,9 %	33,9 %	22,3 %	-50,2 %	-60,9 %	40,7 %	47,7 %
US Gom, small	39,8 %	16,6 %	6,9 %	-2,1 %	70,4 %	34,6 %	-82,7 %	-112,7 %	76,9 %	108,4 %
Uk, Large	22,8 %	28,2 %	12,8 %	18,4 %	30,7 %	35,7 %	-43,9 %	-34,8 %	34,6 %	26,6 %
Uk, Large marginal	14,6 %	20,1 %	5,4 %	11,3 %	21,6 %	26,9 %	-63,0 %	-43,8 %	47,9 %	33,8 %
Uk, Medium	24,1 %	31,4 %	12,0 %	19,3 %	33,9 %	40,9 %	-50,2 %	-38,5 %	40,7 %	30,3 %
Uk, Small	39,8 %	64,4 %	6,9 %	30,5 %	70,4 %	98,2 %	-82,7 %	-52,6 %	76,9 %	52,5 %

Results for the return change are displayed in table 5.1. This shows that, while the tax system is dampening the effect of a price change in Norway and the UK, it is actually increasing the risk of oil projects in the USA in terms of a higher change in after-tax returns than before-tax returns. The risk reduction on the after-tax return is somewhat greater in the UK than in Norway, but the return gain with higher prices is also the lowest. For all the fiscal regimes, the return change is highest for the small project.

#### 6. Conclusion

Taxation theory presumes that companies sanction all projects with a positive NPV. This is at odds with reality, where companies ration capital. We examine capital allocation in multinational oil companies by applying model fields in the USA, the UK and Norway, and analyse how capital allocation by international oil companies is affected by the various tax systems.

Starting off with a mathematical portfolio optimisation model, we find that no Norwegian projects are developed with the tightest capital constraint (USD 40 billion), while three in the UK and two in the USA will be. With a less stringent capital constraint of USD 70 billion, the same two projects in the USA are developed, all four in the UK, and only the large project in Norway. One might therefore question the competitiveness of the Norwegian fiscal regime in current market conditions. The US authorities should worry about cream-skimming, since projects perceived to be marginal by capital-rationing oil companies – and which therefore fail to be sanctioned – may be profitable for society.

Capital rationing is often implemented by simple decentralised profitability metrics. We have analysed capital allocation under different metrics and tax systems. Juxtaposing the metric results against the results from portfolio NPV maximisation with capital constraints, we find that the NPVI metric provides the same choice as portfolio optimisation with a before-tax constraint. The IRR metric has its own solution with the lowest portfolio NPV. The BEP metric gives an intermediate solution and the same solution as that obtained with a minimising present value of after-tax cost constraint. The solutions obtained by the NPVI (before tax) and the BEP (after-tax) metrics indicate large differences in the company's financing needs.

Subjecting project profitability to a robustness test in terms of resilience to a fall in oil prices demonstrates that the British and Norwegian fiscal regimes alleviate some price risk by reducing the change in after-tax return compared with the before-tax return. The opposite is true of the fiscal regime in the US GoM, which increases company risk.

A topic for future research is to expand the strategic tax competition literature to take account of investment metrics in the description of company investment allocation. The current literature so far simply assumes that all projects with a positive NPV are sanctioned. Changing company behaviour in the models is likely to alter investment allocation and optimal tax design.

The international tax literature also implicitly assumes that government and companies have the same requirement for the rate of return. Since capital rationing implies a requirement greater than the opportunity cost of capital, the tax analysis must account for the fact that society may require much lower rates of return than the oil companies. An intertemporal model framework is called for. Norway has a real rate of return requirement of seven per cent, for instance, whereas a current stipulation of international oil company requirements is 15 per cent.<sup>9</sup> Thus, it may prove beneficial for government to carry a large fraction of the initial investment, as is the case in the British and Norwegian petroleum tax systems, and secure higher tax revenue later in the project life cycle. The risk premium demanded by the companies for their capital investment may thereby be reduced and expected government revenue maximised. This conclusion is reversed for developing countries with a limited ability to carry risk and an immediate need for revenue. That is also what we observe in the latter countries, with royalty

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> https://www.woodmac.com/analysis/12134873

payments, for example, and international oil companies carrying investment on behalf of the state oil company.

In Norway and to some extent the UK, petroleum revenue comprises a significant fraction of government income. Tailoring a special tax system for this industry thus makes sense. In the USA, the petroleum industry is one sector among many, and attention has often focused on production rather than revenue. Tailoring of the petroleum taxation has therefore not been on the agenda to the same extent. In spite of a large capital exposure for the oil companies, the USA attracts big investment and secures substantial revenues. This mainly reflects geological prospectivity, which has been excluded from the present paper, as well as less stringent regulation. Differences in prospectivity are also an important factor when comparing the British and Norwegian tax systems. The UK sector is more mature and less prospective by nature, and must offer more generous fiscal terms to attract investment. Norway's continental shelf has a more diversified maturity, but certain areas seem to fail to attract sufficient new investment and may need improved fiscal terms.

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	318	348	415	479	540	634	724	844	959	1681	2161	3349	3271	3196	1469	2400	2000	-1200	11851	ng f. c	tax SF	stream	
	268	293	350	403	455	534	610	711	808	900	886	1072	1047	-145	-902	-768	-640	-384	5597	cons. cons. M.usd ring f. ring f. ring f. cons. cons.	CT tax A.tax B.tax SPTtax CT tax A.tax SPTtax CT tax A.tax		
															441			-360	-		T tax A		
	318	348	415	479	540	634	724	844	959	1069	1173	1273	1243	2382	-126	-912	-760	-456	10147	cons.	tax		

2047 2048	2046	2045	2044	2043	2042	2041	2040	2039	2038	2037	2036	2035	2034	2033	2032	2031	2030	2029	2028	2027	2026	2025	2024	2023	2022	2021	2020	2019	Sum				
<b>8</b> ,4	8,4	9,2	10,1	10,9	11,8	12,6	15,1	17,6	20,2	22,7	26,9	31,1	35,3	39,5	43,7	47,9	52,1	56,3	60,5	64,7	68,9	74,8	74,8	16,8					840	M.bbl	Oil	Norwa	
931	913	985	1053	1118	1181	1240	1459	1669	1870	2063	2397	2717	3023	3317	3598	3866	4123	4368	4602	4825	5038	5361	5256	1158					840 68130	M.usd	Income Opex	Norway Upstream	
642	642	646	650	655	659	663	676	889	701	713	734	755	776	797	818	839	860	881	902	923	944	974	974	684					19200	M.usd		tream	
																								3750	3750	3750	2250	1500	15000	M.bbl M.usd M.usd M.usd M.usd	Capex		
289	271	338	403	464	522	577	784	981	1169	1349	1662	1961	2247	2519	2779	3027	3263	3487	3700	3902	4093	4387	4282	-3276	-3750	-3750	-2250	-1500	· • ·		B.tax		
218 113	238	289	338	384	429	531	889	839	982	1174	1413	1641	1859	2067	2264	2453	2332	1444	570	186										ring f.	Tax		
71 -113	33	49	65	79	93	47	95	142	187	175	249	320	388	453	515	574	931	2043	3130	3716	4093	4387	4282	-3276	-3750	-3750	-2250	-1500	-	ring f.	A.tax		
218 113	238	289	338	384	429	531	889	839	982	1174	1413	1641	1859	2067	2264	2453	2632	2559	2229	1827	1494	1184	-562	-1997	-1584	-955	-446	-127		cons.	Tax		APPE
71 -113	33	49	65	79	93	47	95	142	187	175	249	320	388	453	515	574	630	928	1471	2075	2600	3203	4843	-1279	-2166	-2795	-1804	-1373		cons. 1	A.tax		ENDE
289	271	338	403	464	522	577	784	981	1169	1349	1662	1961	2247	2519	2779	3027	3263	3487	3700	3902	4093	4387	4282	-3276	-3750	-3750	-2250	-1500	33930	M.usd ring f.	B.tax	_	APPENDIX I: Large marginal oil field
117	114	123	132	140	148	155	183	209	234	258	300	340	379	415	451	484	516	547	576	604	631	671	658	145							Roya. Co.Tax A.tax	US Gulf of Mexico	arge 1
0	60	55	75	95	113	131	148	210	270	327	382	477	567	654	736	815	068	727	560	625	685	286							6888	ring f. ring f.	Co.Tax	lf of M	nargi
173	96	160	195	229	261	291	453	561	665	764	086	1144	1301	1450	1592	1728	1856	2213	2563	2673	2777	3430	3624	-3421	-3750	-3750	-2250	-1500	l~ I			exico	nal oil
117	114	123	132	140	148	155	183	209	234	258	300	340	379	415	451	484	516	547	576	604	631	671	658	145					~ 1		Roya. C		field
60	55	75	95	113	131	148	210	270	327	382	477	567	654	736	815	068	727	560	625	685	556	382	-17	-635						cons.	Co.Tax A.tax		
112	102	140	176	210	243	274	391	502	809	709	885	1054	1214	1368	1514	1653	2019	2380	2498	2612	2906	3333	3641	-2786	-3750	-3750	-2250	-1500		cons. N		_	
289	271	338	403	464	522	577	784	981	1169	1349	1662	1961	2247	2519	2779	3027	3263	3487	3700	3902	4093	4387	4282	-3276	-3750	-3750	-2250	-1500	33930	A.usd I	B.tax S	J	
93	87	108	129	148	167	185	251	314	374	432	532	628	719	908	126														5097	ing f. r	p.TaxC	JK Up	
85 29	88	108	127	145	162	194	255	313	369	436	529	617	701	782	859	932	722	140											7591	M.usd ring f. ring f. ring f.	o.Tax	UK Upstream	
112 -29	96	122	147	170	193	199	278	354	426	481	602	717	827	931	1795	2095	2540	3347	3700	3902	4093	4387	4282	-3276	-3750	-3750	-2250	-1500			A.tax S		
93	87	108	129	148	167	185	251	314	374	432	532	628	719	908	688	969	1044	1116	1184	1249	1310	456	-312		-1200	-1200	-720	-480		cons. c	p.TaxC		
29 29	88	108	127	145	162	194	255	313	369	436	529	617	701	782	859	932	1001	1067	1130	1190	1257	1306	529	-1030	-1125	-975 -	-600	-300		cons. c	Sp.TaxCo.Tax A.tax Sp.TaxCo.Tax A.tax		
112 -29	96	122	147	170	193	199	278	354	426	481	602	717	827	931	1031	1127	1217	1304	1386	1464	1526	2625	4065	-827	-1425	-1575	-930	-720	15894	cons.	A.tax		

2024	2023	2022	2021	2020	2019	2018	Sum			
	3,5	5,3	8,8	12,3	5,3		35	M.bbl N	Oil I	
	246	362	591	812	341		2352	M.usd M.usd M.usd M.usd	Oil Income Opex Capex B.tax Sp. TaxCo. Tax A.tax Sp. TaxCo. Tax A.tax	
	58	66	84	101	66		375	M.usd I	Opex	Norway
					600	400	1000	M.usd 1	Capex	Upstrea
	189	296	507	710	-325	-400	977		B.tax S	m
	23	96	178	106			403	ring f. 1	p. TaxC	
	16	59	111	73	S		263	ring f. 1	b. Tax	
	149	141	219	532	-330	-400	310	ring f.	A.tax S	
-21	ω	96	198	134	-17	-25	367	cons.	p. TaxC	
-10	6	59	111	81	S	8-	244	cons.	o. Tax	
30	179	141	199	495	-313	-366	366	cons. 1	A.tax	
	189	296	507	710	-325	-400	977	M.usd 1	B.tax	<u>.</u>
	31	45	74	102	43		295	ring f. 1	B.tax Roya. Co. Tax A.tax	JS Gulf
		4	90	127	31		293	ing f. 1	o. Tax	of Mexic
	158	206	343	481	-399	-400	389	ing f. (	A.tax I	<u>co</u>
	31	45	74	102	43		295	cons. (	Roya. C	
	-54	44	90	127	31		239	cons. c	o. Tax /	
	212	206	343	481	-399	-400	443	cons. N	A.tax	
0	189	296	507	710	-325	-400	977 71 254	cons. cons. M.usd ring f. ring f. ring f. cons. cons. cons.	o. Tax A.tax B.tax Sp. TaxCo. Tax A.tax Sp. TaxCo. Tax A.tax	Ū
20	4	7					71	ng f. ri	). TaxCo	UK Upstream
19	67	95	73				254	ng f. ri	). Tax 4	eam
-39	TT	193	435	710	-325	-400	651	ing f. c	A.tax S <sub>I</sub>	
20	72	117	154	20	-185	-85	651 113 293	ons. c	). TaxCo	
19	67	110	173	110	-105		293	ons. c	D. Tax /	
-39	49	89	181	581	-35	-235	571	ons.	A.tax	

# **APPENDIX I: Small field**

	APPENDIX II: Portfolio optimisation with minimum of sum of present value of cost as constraint	olio optimis ation	with minimum o	fsumofpre	sent value o	f cost as c	onstraint	
		Capex	PV after	NPV	Percent	NPV w.	NPV w. PV a.t. cost Capex w.	Capex w.
		Mill USD	tax cost	Cons.	Incl.	constr.	w. constraint	constr.
Norway	Large	15000	4206	2982	100 %	2982	4206 15000	15000
Norway	Large Marignal	15000	4051	1002	0%	0	0	0
Norway	Medium	8000	2301	1392	100 %	1391	2299	7994
Norway	Small	1000	290	107	0%	0	0	0
USA GoM	Large	15000	11479	4812	53 %	2568	6127	127 8006
USA GoM	Large Marignal	15000	11041	456	0%	0	0	0
USA GoM	Medium	8000	6200	2140	0%	0	0	0
USA GoM	Small	1000	751	133	0%	0	0	0
UK Up.	Large	15000	3948	6529	100~%	6529	3948	15000
	Large Marignal	15000	3802	3393	100~%	3393	3802	15000
UK Up.	Medium	8000	2081	3277	100~%	3277	2081	8000
UK Up.	Small	1000	237	332	100 %	332	237	1000
Sum	Total	117000	50386	26555		20472	22700	70000
* DV / - fr + -			~ <b>L</b> 1~ <i>1</i> 1					

\*PV after-tax cost using the marginal tax rates in table 4.1

Accumulated diff. Table 4.2-4.3 -153	CF Difference	CF a.tax	CF a.tax	Years
. Table 4.2-4.3	Table 4.2-4.3 -153	Table 4.3 -5740	Table 4.2	
-153	-153	-5740	-5893	2018
-701	-547	-7173	-7720	2019
-1800	-1099	-9547	-10647	2020
-3210	-1410	-6883	-8293	2021
-4242	-1032	2044	1012	2022
-4441	-198	19802	19603	2023
-3812	629	13194	13823	2024
-2920	892	9801	10693	2025
-1777	1143	8236	9379	2026
-304	1473	6948	8422	2027
1233	1537	5863	7400	2028
2530	1297	5012	6309	2029
3596	1066	4441	5507	2030
4542	946	3923	4868	2031
5363	821	3489	4310	2032
6087	724	3011	3735	2033
6714	627	2532	3159	2034
7240	526	2137	2663	2035
7734	494	1092	1585	2036
7952	219	1295	1514	2037
8140	188	1061	1249	2038
8297	157	826	983	2039
8424	126	590	716	2040
8516	92	619	712	2041
8599	83	547	630	2042
8672	74	475	549	2043
8736	64	402	467	2044
8791	55	329	384	2045
8834	44	390	433	2046
8900	66	-249	-183	2047

APPENDIX III: Portfolio Cash flows

Accum. Diff. With Breakeven port.	Accum. Diff. With NPVI port.	CF Difference with Breake ven port.	CF Difference with NPVI port.	CF a.tax IRR metric port.	Years	
-947	-1100	-947	-1100	-4793	2018	
-2112	-2813	-1165	-1712	-6008		
-5694	-7494	-3582	-4681	-5965	2019 2020	
-7525	-10735	-1831	-3241	-5052	2021	
-5965	-10207	1560	528	484	2022	
-538	-4978	5427	5228	14375	2023	
2676	-1136	3213	3842	9981	2024	
4964	2044	2289	3180	7512	2025	
6807	5030	1843	2986	6393	2026	
8514	8210	1707	3180	5241	2027	
10079	11312	1565	3102	4298	2028	
10079 11440	13970	1361	2658	3651	2029	
12591	16187	1151	2217	3289	2030 2031	
13542	18084	951	1897	2971	2031	
14333	8210 11312 13970 16187 18084 19696 21058	790	1612	2698	2032	
14971	21058	638	1362	2373	2033	
15470	22184	499	1126	2032	2034	
15867		397	923	1740	2035	
15288	23107 23022	-579	\$	1671	2036	
14740	22692	-548	-330	1844	2037	
14259	22399	-481	-293	1542	2038	
13859	22156	-400	-243	1226	2039	
13553	21976	-306	-180	896	2040	
13219	21735	-334	-242	953	$20^{\circ}$	
12907	21505	-312	-229	860	2042	
12620	21292	-286	-213	762	2043	
12364	2 22692 22399 22156 21976 21735 21505 21292 21100 20934 20707	-256	-192	658	2044	
12143	20934	-221	-166	550	2045	
11873		-271	-227	660	2046	
12053	20953	180	246	-429	2047	

APPENDIX IV: Portfolio Cashflow comparisons with IRR