## REPORT BY THE

## Comptroller General

OF THE UNITED STATES

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# The Potential For Diversifying Oil Imports By Accelerating Worldwide Oil Exploration And Production

RELEASED

Diversifying U.S. imported oil sources to reduce U.S. dependency on unstable countries in the Middle East and North Africa is not a viable short-range solution due to the lack of alternative suppliers with sufficient excess production capacity in the world. Mid- to longrange potential (5 to 15 years from now) is uncertain but more promising, partly because of increasing production from Mexico and partly because of the concentration of current oil company exploration efforts outside the Middle East and North Africa.

There is still considerable petroleum potential throughout the world, but realization of this potential depends upon accelerated exploration, especially in less developed countries. Governments' actions, such as expropriation and high rates of taxation, have discouraged private investment in oil exploration in many of the more promising areas.



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## COMPTROLLER GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES WASHINGTON, D.C. 20548

B-200899

The Honorable Max Baucus United States Senate

The Honorable Donald J. Pease House of Representatives

This report is in response to questions which evolved from your joint letter of December 14, 1978, concerning oil source diversification policy. As agreed, we have broadened the scope to include the potential for developing additional worldwide sources of petroleum production.

At the request of your offices, we did not obtain agency comments. Further, as arranged with your offices, unless you publicly announce its contents earlier, we plan no further distribution of this report until 30 days from the date of its issuance. At that time, we will send copies to interested parties and make copies available to others upon request.

Comptroller General of the United States

THE POTENTIAL FOR DIVERSIFYING OIL IMPORTS BY ACCELERATING WORLDWIDE OIL EXPLORATION AND PRODUCTION

## DIGEST

Despite huge oil price increases, gains in OPEC power, the 1973 Arab oil embargo, and the continued turmoil in the Middle East, the United States sharply increased its dependence on foreign petroleum sources during the 1970s. U.S. dependency upon imported oil not only increased from about 35 percent of consumption in 1973 to over 43 percent in 1979 but also became more concentrated upon the Middle East and North Africa.

This review examines the potential for the United States to diversify its sources of imported oil and the incentives and disincentives for private U.S. oil companies to diversify their individual foreign oil sources in order to reduce dependency upon the Middle East and North Africa.

## POTENTIAL FOR DIVERSIFYING FOREIGN SUPPLY SOURCES IS LIMITED

The potential for immediate large-scale diversification of U.S. imported oil sources is nil. There is not enough unused productive capacity currently outside the major Middle East and North African producing countries to support a major shift of U.S. import patterns without a counter-balancing shift by other major importers. However, most of the other major importing countries already are more dependent upon the Middle East and North Africa than is the United States, and they are not likely to further jeopardize their own security to improve that of the United States.

The prospects for diversification in the midterm future are somewhat better, although still uncertain. The normal lagtime of 7 to 10 years between discovery and production means that any new discovery today will not be an important supply source until the late 1980s. Mexico and a few other non-OPEC areas offer the brightest prospects, with the potential of finding giant fields of Middle East size in Mexico. Although Mexico could become an important source of imported oil in the coming years and reduce U.S. dependency on Middle East and North African imports, Mexican oil itself will not eliminate the need for these imports. (See ch. 2.)

## OIL COMPANIES' INCENTIVES TO DIVERSIFY FOREIGN SOURCES

Diversification does not mean abandoning traditional oil sources; it means reducing reliance upon them by supplementing them with other sources to the point that dependency upon insecure regions, such as the Middle East and North Africa, is sufficiently reduced so that a supply disruption would not be critical to national security.

GAO visited 21 oil companies whose officials stressed that they see no disincentives to supply-source diversification. On the contrary, they said diversification is necessary to achieve a secure and continuous supply of crude oil.

The Middle East continues to present a geologic lure to oil companies. Known reserves are larger and the potential for discovering more large fields is better there than anywhere else in the world. However, the changing relationship of the international oil companies with Middle East producing governments through the power of OPEC has created a powerful incentive for the companies to diversify their sources of petroleum and has largely removed the opportunity for new equity ventures in the Organization of Arab Petroleum Exporting Countries and Iran.

The consensus of the oil industry is that, given the opportunity, it is in the interest of the oil companies to expand or shift their production activities to countries which are more stable than those of the Persian Gulf region. The opportunities for significant shifts in supply sources, however, have been limited, and few U.S. companies to date have been able to significantly reduce their dependence on Middle East and/or North African sources.

Although most of the U.S. companies GAO studied still rely heavily on the Middle East-North African regions for their crude oil production and/or purchases, their exploration activities in 1978, the year GAO analyzed, were concentrated elsewhere. While 73 percent of the total production (excluding North America and Communist areas) of the companies studied came from the Middle East and North Africa, only 18 percent of their

acreage under contract, 11 percent of the exploratory wells, and 30 percent of their geophysical exploration was in those areas. GAO concluded that individual U.S. oil companies are attempting to diversify their oil supply sources. (See ch. 3.)

## THE POTENTIAL FOR DISCOVERING NEW PETROLEUM SOURCES

Most petroleum experts generally agree that about one trillion barrels of crude oil remain to be discovered—an amount roughly equal to that already discovered. Although a number of studies converge on the figure of two trillion barrels as the world's ultimate crude oil resource, each estimate is based on certain assumptions. Estimates of undiscovered reserves, therefore, are to be used with caution.

Oil company and Government geologists GAO interviewed said that the following areas outside the Middle East hold the most promise for future oil discoveries. (See ch. 4.)

The Arctic areas: The Beaufort Sea off Alaska and Canada, the Bering and Chukchi Sea areas off Alaska in which the U.S. Geological Survey recently made favorable seismic findings, the Rift Basin off Newfoundland, East Greenland, and the northern basins of the Soviet Union.

Antarctica, which is largely unexplored.

Mexico, which has great potential, the limits of which are still undetermined.

The North Sea, particularly the Norwegian sector above the 62d parallel.

China, which has the largest unexplored nonarctic continental shelf in the world.

Certain developing nations in <u>Latin America and Africa</u>, which have been only moderately explored.

## U.S. GOVERNMENT ACTIONS TO STIMULATE EXPLORATION AND DIVERSIFICATION

The United States differs from most other industrialized countries by relying almost entirely on private oil companies for its petroleum supplies, both imported and domestically produced. In many other countries, petroleum is produced or

imported by the central government, either directly or through one or more government—controlled oil companies. Consequently, U.S. programs or policy actions for effecting changes in the petroleum industry's behavior are designed to work through the private sector.

The United States has one official program which directly influences petroleum exploration in other countries—the Overseas Private Investment Corporation. In fiscal year 1978, the Corporation formed a Minerals and Energy Staff to identify and assist in implementing projects in petroleum—importing developing countries, working through both its insurance and finance programs. A principle objective was to help oil—importing countries develop their petroleum resources, thus reducing their dependence on imported oil and serving the U.S. national interest by opening up new sources of oil supply.

A Presidential interagency task force currently is studying what is being done and what can or should be done to stimulate oil and gas exploration and development in developing countries. Its report to the President is expected to be issued in 1980.

The United States also participates in a number of international organizations which have or are developing programs to stimulate petroleum exploration and production in developing countries. The World Bank is the only such organization with a specific operational program; the Inter-American Development Bank has a program under development, and the U.N. Development Fund has a similar proposal under discussion. (See ch. 5.)

## OBSTACLES TO FOREIGN PETROLEUM EXPLORATION

There are obvious incentives for accelerating petroleum exploration and production worldwide, as manifested in the steep oil price increases since 1973. Accelerated exploration and production is essential to increase the potential for diversifying oil imports, but certain obstacles, or disincentives, must be overcome. In the past, natural physical obstacles such as deep water, arctic conditions, or remote continental interiors, have limited or prevented exploration in some promising areas. In recent years,

however, the oil industry has made great technological advancements and nearly any place in the world can now be reached.

Most of the obstacles remaining were created by government actions and must be reduced or removed by government actions. Obstacles include:

- --Political risk: Most companies GAO surveyed said the problem has been getting worse in recent years as developing countries increasingly have nationalized company assets when oil is discovered. A more subtle form of political risk is unilateral contract revisions by the host government. In many cases, the differing objective of host government and potential investor makes agreement on contract terms an inherently difficult and time-consuming process. Host governments often have strong political as well as commercial motivations and may want to avoid a public appearance of weakness in dealing with foreign multinational corporations. (See p. 64.)
- -- Uncertainty of U.S. tax policies: company noted changes in laws governing income from foreign petroleum operations and changes to the foreign tax credit now under consideration. Company officials said that major investment factors, such as projected net profits, rate of return on investment, and discounted cash flow, cannot be accurately projected when U.S. tax policy is unstable. These projections are important factors in corporate decisions when negotiating contract terms or formulating bid proposals to a foreign government. According to U.S. oil companies and Department of Energy studies, the uncertainty of U.S. foreign tax credit treatment has complicated and delayed the negotiation and completion of exploration and development contracts by U.S. companies in Peru, Bolivia, Guatemala, Indonesia, the Philippines, and Thailand. (See p. 66.)
- -- Excessive taxation by host governments:
  A number of officials said high local tax rates discouraged their companies from seeking exploration opportunities in several countries. (See p. 67.)

--Limited access to prospective areas: Private oil companies have been denied access to areas because of exclusionary policies of the host governments, international boundary or territorial disputes, and/or home-government foreign policy. (See p. 68.)

#### **OBSERVATION**

Diversification of foreign supply sources has been suggested by many sources within and outside the Federal Government as a possible means of reducing the adverse effects of current U.S. foreign oil dependency. GAO concludes that diversification is not a viable short-range strategy but that it holds some potential in the mid- to long-range period (beyond 5 years) if new sources can be developed in countries that are currently nonproducers or low producers and if current producers outside the Middle East and North Africa, such as Mexico and the North Sea countries, continue to increase their export capacities.

The key to discovering and developing new production sources is the aggressive acceleration of worldwide petroleum exploration. This can be achieved only if obstacles to such exploration which have been raised by governments are removed or reduced. These obstacles include the expropriation of private assets when exploration is successful, excessive rates of taxation by host governments, an uncertain U.S. tax policy relating to foreign income, and exclusionary host-government policies.

Both the Congress and the executive branch need to consider U.S. oil company operations in foreign countries as an issue to be factored into relationships with those countries. branches should seek better understanding of the needs and concerns of the oil companies and their potential host-government partners, especially with the less developed countries. The United States should then seek, through both bilateral and multilateral channels, to favorably influence the attitudes and policies of the governments of the less developed countries concerning private investment in petroleum exploration and development. The United States also should explore ways of helping these countries increase the commercial viability for

private development of small oil fields with little or no export potential—perhaps through risk-sharing agreements or reciprocal tax incentives. (See p. 71.)

## AGENCY COMMENTS

As requested by the offices of Senator Baucus and Congressman Pease, GAO did not obtain agency comments on this report.

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	ABBREVIATIONS	
bpd CIA DOE FESAP GAO IDB IEDP LDC mbpd OAPEC	barrels per day Central Intelligence Agency Department of Energy Foreign Energy Supply Assessment Program General Accounting Office Inter-American Development Bank International Energy Development Program less developed country million barrels per day Organization of Arab Petroleum Exporting Countries	
OPEC OPIC UNDP USGS	Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries Overseas Private Investment Corporation United Nations Development Program U.S. Geological Survey	

## CHAPTER 1

#### INTRODUCTION

For some 7 years, the system of international petroleum production and supply has been undergoing drastic and systematic revision at the hands of the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) to the detriment of the petroleum importing industrialized and developing nations of the free world. Oil prices and production levels are firmly controlled by OPEC, which has also announced its intention of wresting control of crude oil sales from the private oil companies upon which the United States depends for its oil supply.

The decade of the 1970s was marked by sharply increased U.S. dependence upon foreign petroleum sources. (See table 1.) This dependency has (1) increased since the Arab oil embargo and price hike of 1973, (2) become more concentrated upon Middle East and North African oil exporting nations, 1/ and (3) contributed significantly to current economic and political problems, including reduced security of oil supplies, impairment of foreign policy options, and balance-of-payments deficits. The turmoil in Iran, the Soviet move into Afghanistan, and the current Iran-Iraq conflict have made more visible the risks of U.S. dependence on such a volatile region.

## SHORT-TERM DEPENDENCY IS UNAVOIDABLE

The United States will have to cope with a critical dependence upon imported oil for some years to come due to the decline in U.S. petroleum production and the long leadtimes needed to develop the technology and/or facilities for large-scale conversion to other sources, such as solar, synfuels, and nuclear energy.

The ultimate solution to the world's energy needs, in our opinion, is development of such renewable sources as solar energy and its derivative forms. Developing the necessary technology to the point of commercial feasibility and deploying it throughout the U.S. national energy system, however, will require a considerable length of time. Large-scale use of solar energy is generally thought to be at least 20 years away.

Other, less desirable energy sources will also require considerable leadtimes to deploy to a degree sufficient to appreciably reduce U.S. reliance upon petroleum. It will require up to 15

<sup>1/</sup>For purposes of this report, the term "Middle East" includes the countries of the Arabian Peninsula, Iran, Iraq, Syria, Lebanon, Israel, and Jordan. "North Africa" includes Egypt, Libya, Tunisia, and Algeria.

Table 1 Comparative U.S. Crude Oil Dependency 1973-79

		1973			1976			1979	
	Thousand bpd (note a)	% of con- sumption	% of crude oil imports	Thousand bpd (note a)	% of con- sumption	% of crude oil imports	Thousand bpd (note a)	% of con- sumption	% of crude oil imports
Production , Net imports (note b) Total consumption	9,208 3,242 12,450	74.0 26.0 100.0		8,132 5,279 13,411	60.6 39.4 100.0		8,533 6,177 14,710	58.0 42.0 100.0	
Major sources of crude oil imports (note c)									
Middle East  Iran (note e)  Iraq (note e,f)  Kuwait (note e,f)  Qatar (note e,f)  Saudi Arabia (note e,f)	205 17 44 41 599	1.65 0.13 0.35 0.33 4.81	5.91 0.49 1.27 1.18 17.26	298 26 1 24 1,222	2.22 0.19 0.01 0.18 9.11	5.64 0.49 0.02 0.45 23.11	295 88 4 31 1,338	2.01 0.60 0.03 0.21 9.09	4.55 1.36 0.06 0.48 20.65
United Arab Emirates (npte e,f) Other <b>(note d)</b>	88 <b>994</b>	0.71 7.98	2.54	254 1,825	1.89 1 <u>3.60</u>	4.80 <u>34.51</u>	280 9 2,045	$\frac{1.90}{0.06}$ $\frac{13.90}{0.06}$	4.32 0.14 31.56
North Africa Algeria (note e,f) Egypt (note g) Libya (note e,f)	124 153 277	0.99 1.23 2.22	3.57 4.41 7.98	408 17 444 8 <b>6</b> 9	3.04 0.13 3.31 6.48	7.72 0.32 8.40 16.44	603 55 638 1,296	4.10 0.37 4.34 8.81	9.31 0.85 9.85 20.01
Other Africa Gabon (note e) Nigeria (note e)	409 409	3.29 3.29	11.78 11.78	26 1,014 1,040	0.19 7.56 <u>7.75</u>	0.49 19.18 19.67	42 1,066 1,108	0.28 7.25 7.53	0.65 16.46 17.11
Latin America Ecuador (note e) Mexico Venezuela (note e)	33 8 405 446	0.27 0.06 3.25 3.58	0.95 0.23 11.67 12.85	51 87 241 <u>379</u>	0.38 0.65 1.80 2.83	0.96 1.65 4.56 7.17	31 432 292 755	0.21 2. <b>94</b> 1. <b>9</b> 8 5.13	0.48 6.67 4.51 11.66
<u>Far East</u> <u>Indone</u> sia (note e)	249	2.00	7.17	537	4.00	10.16	376	2.56	5.80
Europe United Kingdom Norway		-	-	13 35 48	0.10 0.26 0.36	0.25 0.66 0.91	197 75 272	1.34 0.51 1.85	3.04 1.16 4.20
Canada Other Non-OPEC/OAPEC Total	998 98 3,471	8.02 0.79 27.88	28.75 2.82 100.00	371 218 5,287	2.77 1.63 39.42	7.02 4.12 100.00	267 359 6.478	1.82 2.44 44.04	4.12 5.54 100.00
Total OAPEC Total OPEC Total Non-OPEC/Non OAPEC	1,066 2,367 1,104	$\frac{8.56}{19.01}$ $\frac{8.87}{}$	30.71 68.19 31.81	2,396 4,546 724	$\frac{17.87}{33.90}$ $\frac{5.40}{}$	45.32 85.98 13.70	2,982 5,084 1,394	$\frac{20.27}{34.56}$ $\frac{9.48}{}$	46.03 78.48 21.52

a/Barrels per udy.
b/Crude oil imports less crude oil exports. Imports include imports for the Strategic Petroleum Reserve.
c/1973 country figures are for September only. 1976 and 1979 figures are the daily average for the year.
d/Includes Bahrain and Syria.
e/Member of OPEC.
f/Member of OAPEC.
g/Member of OAPEC until April 1979.
Source: International Energy Statistical Review, Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), ER IESR 80-012, Aug. 26, 1980.

years to perfect the technology and construct the equipment to produce synthetic fuel from coal and shale. These technologies will also require massive amounts of capital, threaten serious environmental damage, and may compete with agriculture for already scarce water. Construction of nuclear plants is also time and capital-consuming--about 7 to 10 years in construction time alone. Although nuclear plant safety may be debatable, nuclear power still poses some unanswered questions concerning ultimate waste disposal and there is already world concern over the growing shortage of uranium--itself a finite resource, like petroleum.

There is no apparent way for the United States to attain energy independence quickly. Today's policies, therefore, must be designed to reduce potential adverse effects of dependency and to provide the petroleum supplies needed to sustain the economy until alternative sources can be implemented.

## THE CONCEPT OF SUPPLY SOURCE DIVERSIFICATION

It has been suggested that the United States could improve its security of supply and achieve greater foreign policy independence by diversifying its major sources of imported oil. The recent discovery of large oil reserves in Mexico has spurred speculation in the press and the Congress that perhaps the United States could divert much of its Middle East oil imports to Mexico on the premise that Mexico would be a more secure and stable source. The advantage of diversified supply sources was recognized in the President's National Energy Plan II, which stated:

"\* \* \* since near-term domestic production cannot displace imports altogether, the U.S. should seek to diversify world oil supplies and enhance their security of supply. The U.S. should support multilateral assistance to increase production in non-OPEC countries, and encourage immediate efforts to assess the potential oil resources that various non-OPEC countries possess."

In general, the major advantages of U.S. oil supply source diversification would be

- --increased security and continuity of supply,
- --increased political independence, and
- --greater supplier security.

The primary advantage to more evenly diversified foreign oil supply sources is the increased security of supply that could be thereby achieved. At present, the largest portion of our foreign

supplies comes from the Middle East and is highly vulnerable to political disruptions, military conflict, and terrorist actions.

In 1979, about 78 percent of U.S. crude oil imports came from members of OPEC and about 46 percent came from members of the Organization of Arab Petroleum Exporting Countries (OAPEC). Over 31 percent of U.S. crude oil imports came from countries around the Persian Gulf, which means that it was shipped through the Straits of Hormuz near the tip of Oman. This passage is absolutely vital to Persian Gulf shipping; some 77 ships pass through it daily, most of them oil tankers. The deep channel required by fully loaded tankers is very narrow, and traffic could easily be disrupted by air or sea forces or terrorist actions.

Greater political freedom could be gained by reducing the leverage of any single producer or bloc of producers over U.S. oil supplies. As long as the United States remains tied to the Arab world for the bulk of its oil imports, U.S. foreign policy will be influenced and constrained by that dependency and Arab supplier countries will be tempted to use oil prices and supply restraint as weapons against the United States to resolve political differences.

Also, as long as the United States continues to depend upon a single supplier country or region for a significant share of its imported oil (such as the Middle East, which supplies nearly 14 percent of total U.S. oil consumption) that region and its governments may very likely become a target for those wishing to damage the United States or to influence U.S. policy decisions. Recognizing that the United States would more than likely feel an obligation to provide for the security of its major supplier, others could provoke the United States into costly military ventures or otherwise distort its foreign posture by threatening the supplier country.

## OBJECTIVES, SCOPE, AND METHODOLOGY

Senator Max Baucus and Congressman Donald J. Pease requested this study of the potential for diversifying U.S. oil imports (especially to Mexico) to reduce reliance upon the Middle East. As agreed, we have expanded the scope to include the potential for developing new petroleum sources throughout the world. The objectives of the review, therefore, were to examine the potential for achieving supply source diversification, incentives and disincentives for the private oil companies that provide U.S. supplies to diversify their individual foreign oil sources and reduce dependency upon the Middle East and North Africa, the connection between diversification and accelerated petroleum exploration and production, incentives and disincentives for exploration, and progress toward such diversification.

We coordinated our work with that of other congressional agencies, using their published reports wherever possible, researched available literature, and examined records of the Departments of Energy and State. We also interviewed officials of the Departments of Energy (DOE), State, and Treasury; U.S. Geological Survey; International Energy Agency; Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development; European Economic Community; 17 U.S.-based oil companies; and 4 foreign oil companies.

Except for our interviews, all source and reference material supporting this report is already in the public domain. We based our analysis upon written and statistical material from Federal agencies (the Departments of Energy and State, Central Intelligence Agency, U.S. Geological Survey); private organizations (Resources for the Future, the Ford Foundation, Petroconsultants, Ltd.—a private petroleum consulting and data firm); publications (The Oil and Gas Journal, World Oil); and oil companies. Projections of undiscovered petroleum potential of non-OPEC less developed countries are based on published reports of the World Bank, Congressional Budget Office, and Central Intelligence Agency. We did not make an independent assessment of their validity.

We did not visit any of the developing countries to determine their perceptions, concerns, and circumstances surrounding the impediments cited by the oil companies as deterrents to exploration. We, therefore, did not assess whether the obstacles we cite in this report actually contributed to or precluded any specific nation from developing its resources as quickly as it may have wished.

This review is restricted to imported oil. Imports, however, are merely an inverse function of domestic production related to demand. National security would be enhanced by wider diversification of imported oil sources; it would also be enhanced by reducing the level of imports.

While this report concerns only conventional crude oil, we should distinguish between conventional and unconventional crude oil and its potential future importance. Unconventional oil includes heavy oil (crude oil which is usually so thick that it will not flow unless heated), tar sands, and oil shales. Unconventional oil sources may be of tremendous future importance to the United States because of their magnitude and geographic location. The combined conventional and unconventional petroleum resources of the United States, Canada, and Latin America are many times larger than those of the Middle East. Most of the American continent's unconventional oil is located in Canada's tar sands, Venezuela's Orinoco tar belt, and U.S. oil shale.

Unfortunately, most experts agree that most of these vast resources cannot be recovered economically or quickly, even at today's oil prices. Research and technological improvements are continuing, however, so these unconventional oil sources may yet be of major commercial importance.

#### CHAPTER 2

#### THE POTENTIAL FOR DIVERSIFYING SUPPLY

#### SOURCES IS LIMITED

Despite the advantages of diversifying sources of foreign oil supplies, the potential for achieving a significant degree of national diversification is limited unless substantial new sources of oil can be found and developed outside the Middle East and North Africa. At present, there is not enough productive capacity outside these areas to displace their oil to a significant degree. There appears to be more potential for significant diversification in the mid to long term (roughly 5 to 15 years from now), but whether this can be achieved by then depends on the expansion of current productive capacity outside the Middle East and North Africa and the development of new producers outside these regions.

Mexico holds forth a degree of hope for the mid term, although its rate of oil production may be geared more to its own economic development needs than to U.S. energy needs. Even so, Mexican oil could account for about 12 to 17 percent of U.S. oil imports by 1985 and as much as 22 percent by 1990, compared with the current 6.7 percent.

## SHORT-TERM POTENTIAL IS NIL

Immediate supply source diversification would be possible if (1) world productive capacity outside the Middle East and North Africa significantly exceeded demand and all or most producers were eager to produce up to capacity or (2) other major importers were willing to rearrange their own sources of imported oil to accommodate supplier changes by the United States. Unfortunately, neither condition exists at present. The world's surplus productive capacity currently resides in OPEC, particularly in Middle East countries, as illustrated in table 2.

As of June 1980, OPEC could sustain a production level of 32,680,000 bpd, it had an arbitrary, self-imposed production ceiling of 30,815,000 bpd, and it was producing at a rate of 27,170,000 bpd. This represents unused available production of 3,645,000 bpd or a potential increase of 13.4 percent over current production, and unused actual sustainable capacity of 5,510,000 bpd or a potential increase of 20.3 percent. These figures may be a little too optimistic since they include prerevolution data for Iran. Iran's physical productive capacity has been reduced, since the Shah's departure, but the degree of loss is uncertain. The figures also do not reflect losses undoubtedly incurred by both Iran and Iraq in their current conflict.

Excluding Middle East producers reduces the unused available production to 1,015,000 bpd and the unused actual sustainable capacity to 1,215,000 bpd, of which Venezuela accounts for 150,000 bpd and 350,000 bpd, respectively.

Table 2

OPEC Surplus Crude Oil Productive Capacity

	Productive of	capacity	Current	St	irplus	capacit	<u>-y</u>
	Sustainable	Ceiling	production	Mic	dle	1	<b>To</b> n
	(note a)	(note b)	(6/80)		<u>ast</u>		-East
				*	**	*	**
			—(thousand	bpd)—			
Country							
Algeria	1,150	1,150	1,000	_		150	150
Ecuador	225	225	230	-		(5)	(5)
Gabon	225	225	200	-	-	25	25
Indonesia	1,650	1,650	1,545	-	-	105	105
Iran	3,500***	3,500	1,500	2,000	2,000	-	
Iraq	3,500	3,500	3,300	200	200	-	-
Kuwait	2,500	1,500	1,300	1,200	200	-	_
Libya	2,200	2,200	1,700	_	_	500	500
Neutral Zone	600	600	545	55	55		
Nigeria	2,200	2,200	2,110	-		90	90
Qatar	600	600	440	160	160		-
Saudi Arabia	9,500	9,500	9,500	-	_	-	
United Arab Emirates:							
Abu Dhabi	2,035	1,370	1,400	635	(30)	***	
Dubai	370	370	340	30	30	-	_
Sharjah	25	25	10	15	15	-	
Venezuela	2,400	2,200	2,050			<u>350</u>	<u>150</u>
TOTAL	32,680	30,815	27,170	4,295	2,630	1,215 1	,015

<sup>&</sup>lt;u>a/Maximum</u> sustainable or operational capacity is the maximum production rate that can be sustained for several months; it considers the experience of operating the total system and is generally some 90-95 percent of installed capacity. This capacity concept does not necessarily reflect the maximum production rate sustainable without damage to the fields.

Source: International Energy Statistical Review, Aug. 26, 1980, CIA.

b/Ceiling capacity reflects production ceilings applied by some countries.

These ceilings usually represent constraint only on annual average output, thus production may exceed the ceilings in a given month or quarter.

<sup>\*</sup> Difference between current production and sustainable capacity.

<sup>\*\*</sup> Difference between ceiling and current production.

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> The Iranian fields have suffered from maintenance neglect and loss of experienced personnel. The sustainable capacity has definitely deteriorated from the prerevolution level of 5,500,000 bpd, but the precise amount is unknown. Therefore, we show only the ceiling capacity of 3,500,000 bpd.

Table 2 indicates the limited potential for shifting U.S. imports within OPEC away from the Middle East; there is some small potential for increasing imports from Venezuela, Nigeria, Gabon, Indonesia, Algeria, and Libya. Of the non-Arab countries in this group, Venezuela has the largest current unused productive capacity but its production is limited by insufficient reserves. is probably in the decline phase of its oil development and needs to locate more reserves to be able to maintain its capacity. Indonesia's annual production is steadily declining as new discoveries have failed to match its production rate for several years; its small unused production capacity is likely to disappear in the near future. The unused capacity of the remaining non-Arab countries (Nigeria and Gabon) amounts to only 1.78 percent of current U.S. imports. Libya recently hinted at a drastic reduction of exports. Increasing the U.S. reliance upon Libya or other North African Arab countries would not improve the U.S. position.

Table 3 shows the surplus productive capacity as percentages of 1979 U.S. crude oil imports of 6,478,000 bpd. From this comparison we see that idle capacity available to sustain U.S. source diversification efforts is limited. Even if countries that have surplus capacity were willing to produce and export the excess to the United States, only in the case of Venezuela could there be a marked increase over the current share of U.S. imports.

Table 3

OPEC Surplus Crude Oil Productive Capacity
Outside the Middle East and North Africa
Compared with Share of U.S. Imports

			P	ercent increase
	Percent share	Surplus	Surplus	of U.S. share
	of U.S. 1979	sustainable	ceiling	if surplus
Area	imports	capacity	capacity	included
		(b	pd)	
Africa:				
Gabon	0.65	25,000	25,000	0.39
Nigeria	16.46	90,000	90,000	1.39
Far East:				
Indonesia	5.80	105,000	105,000	1.62
Latin Americ	a:			
Venezuela	4.51	<u>350,000</u>	<u>150,000</u>	5.40/2.32
Total	27.42	<u>570,000</u>	<u>370,000</u>	8.80/5.72
	<del></del>			

No producers outside OPEC have unused productive capacity that could be employed to increase exports to the United States. Mexico is producing at capacity and plans to increase its capacity gradually to mesh with its domestic fiscal policies, as we discuss later. Canada is no longer self-sufficient in crude oil and has severely restricted its exports to the United States in favor of meeting its own needs first. Norway has been following a policy of restrained development to minimize economic and social disruptions to its own economy; it is beginning to accelerate its exploration, development, and production to meet greater revenue needs, but the market will not feel the results for at least 7 years. The United Kingdom has not yet held back production, but is known to be studying a policy proposal to reduce production in order to conserve its oil for its own needs as long as possible.

Other major oil importers are not likely to be willing to sacrifice themselves for the sake of the United States by shifting their import patterns more toward the Middle East so the United States can shift away from it. Most of these countries are far more dependent upon the Middle East for their total oil needs than is the United States. Table 4 compares the sources of oil imports of the United States and other major oil importers.

## MID-TERM PROSPECTS ARE UNCERTAIN

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From what is known today about world oil resources, it is doubtful that significant diversification away from the Middle East-North Africa area can be achieved unless new discoveries are made in other areas. The normal lag-time of 6 to 12 years between pre-drilling exploration, exploratory drilling, development drilling, installation of production facilities, and building of necessary transportation and marketing infrastructure preclude any new oil discovery from being an important supply source until the late 1980s.

Oil production in the non-OPEC developing countries is expected to rise rapidly over the next few years. On the other hand, rising consumption in these countries is expected to absorb most, if not all, of the growth. Mexico, of course, has the brightest prospects, with the potential of finding giant fields the size of Middle East fields; and Egypt is expected to be able to produce over one million bpd in the 1980s. A January 1979 World Bank report projects that, by 1985 non-OPEC less developed countries will produce 8.4 million bpd and export 3.6 million bpd, compared to projected 1980 exports of 2.7 million bpd.

If these projections prove correct, it leaves less than one million bpd of incremental exports from 1980 to 1985 for which the United States could compete. Even if the United States could obtain access to half this amount—a highly optimistic assumption since this supply will undoubtedly be the subject of intense bidding between major consumers seeking diversification—it would not materially reduce U.S. dependence on the Middle East and North Africa.

Table 4
Selected Countries: Crude Oil Imports by Source
as a Percentage of Imports

			West		
	a 1973 1979	a Japan	a Germany	a <u>France</u> 1973 1979	a <u>Italy</u> 1973 1979
	<u>19/3</u> <u>19/9</u>	a 1973 1979	<u>1973</u> <u>1979</u>	19/3 19/9	19/3 19/9
Middle East					
Iran Iraq Kuwait Qatar Saudi Arabia UAE Other	5.9 4.6 0.5 1.4 1.2 0.1 1.2 0.5 17.3 20.7 2.5 4.3 0.1 28.6 31.7	31.9 9.7 - 5.4 10.0 9.6 - 2.9 23.6 34.5 10.5 10.2 - 72.3	10.8 1.9 2.1 4.4 2.5 0.8 0.5 30.9 16.7 7.1 7.0 1.1 0.8 57.0 40.4	7.7 4.9 13.3 19.4 11.2 3.9 2.4 3.0 22.1 35.4 9.8 6.8 0.4 1.7 66.9 75.1	11.0 1.9 15.2 19.5 8.5 9.5 0.8 1.0 27.5 29.2 - 2.3 
North Africa					
Algeria Egypt Libya	$ \begin{array}{r} 3.6 & 9.3 \\ - & 0.8 \\ \underline{4.4} & 9.8 \\ \underline{8.0} & 19.9 \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{ccc}  & 0.1 \\  \hline  & 0.6 \\  \hline  & 0.6 \\  \hline  & 0.2 \end{array}$	10.4 9.1 - 0.3 18.2 16.1 28.6 25.5	$ \begin{array}{c cccc} 8.0 & 4.0 \\   \hline   & 4.6 & 3.2 \\   \hline   & 12.6 & 7.2 \\ \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{ccc} 2.4 & 2.5 \\ 23.8 & 13.1 \\ \hline 26.2 & 15.6 \end{array} $
Other Africa					
Gabon Nigeria	- 0.6 11.8 16.5 11.8 17.1	2.1 - 2.1 -	$\begin{array}{ccc} 1.4 & 0.7 \\ 7.3 & 13.5 \\ \hline 8.7 & 14.2 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{ccc} 1.2 & 1.0 \\ 9.0 & 7.7 \\ \hline 10.2 & 8.7 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{ccc} 0.1 & 0.1 \\ 0.4 & 2.6 \\ \hline 0.5 & 2.7 \end{array}$
Latin America					
Ecuador Mexico Venezuela	0.9 0.5 0.2 6.7 11.7 4.5 12.8 11.7	$\begin{array}{cccc} - & - & - \\ - & 0.1 & 0.2 \\ \hline 0.1 & 0.2 & 0.2 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} -1.8 \\ -1.3 \\ \hline -1.8 \\ \hline -1.3 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} -1.3 \\ \hline -1.3 \\ \hline -0.8 \\ \hline \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{ccc}  & & & & \\  & 0.7 & & 1.1 \\  \hline  & 0.7 & & 1.1 \end{array}$
<u>Far East</u>					
Indonesia	7.2 5.8	13.1 14.4			
Europe					
United Kingdon Norway	$\begin{array}{cccc}  & - & 3.0 \\  & - & 1.2 \\  & - & 4.2 \end{array}$		$\begin{array}{ccc} - & 11.0 \\ - & 3.2 \\ \hline - & 14.2 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{ccc}  & - & 2.2 \\ 2.0 & \underline{1.2} \\ \underline{2.0} & \underline{3.4} \end{array}$	
Canada Other Non-OPEC	28.8 4.1 2.8 5.5	8.1 12.9	3.9 4.0	7.0 4.8	9.6 17.2
Total	100.0 100.0	100.0 100.0	100.0 100.0	100.0 100.0	100.0 100.0

<u>a</u>/September 1973 (pre-crisis level).

Source: International Energy Statistical Review, CIA, August 26, 1980.

## Mexico as a future source

Supplemental oil and gas from Mexico, abundant as they could potentially be, will not be the solution to U.S. energy problems. They could, however, partly compensate for declining domestic production and help moderate U.S. dependence on the Middle East and North African oil. Actually, Mexico has already substantially increased its oil exports to the United States, as shown below.

(Daily average in thousands of bpd)

1975	1976	1977	<u>1978</u>	1979
71	87	179	318	434

In 1979, 6.6 percent of U.S. crude oil imports came from Mexico.

Those who are looking toward Mexico as the solution to U.S. energy problems, however, may be disappointed by most estimates of future production. According to Mexico's original 6-year plan, (1976-1982), production would increase from 1.1 million bpd in 1977 to 2.2 million bpd by 1982; but this schedule was revised to reflect the 1982 target being met by 1980. The Mexican Government has stated that after 1980 oil production would not be increased beyond Mexico's capacity to use the oil export revenues. Therefore, production levels beyond 1980 are uncertain. Under Mexican law, no president may serve more than one 6-year term or commit his successor to his policies. Since President Lopez Portillo's term expires in 1982, estimates beyond the near term are highly speculative and depend upon assumptions made regarding future political and economic developments.

At present, Mexico's official energy policy is to first satisfy its domestic needs, then to export any surplus production in order to build an economic development fund, and to restrain overall production in order to limit export income to a level that the Mexican economy can digest without suffering fiscal distress. Therefore, the volume of Mexico's petroleum exports will depend upon both production and internal consumption, which in turn will depend upon Mexico's rate of economic growth and development. Domestic oil consumption will be affected by the success of the government's program to convert domestic energy consumption from oil to natural gas. Although Mexico may not rival Saudi Arabia as the world's leading petroleum exporter, it will have sufficient quantities available to place it among the world's primary petroleum exporting countries.

Mexican oil consumption has more than doubled during the 1970s, reaching over one million bpd in 1978. Increases in demand should continue throughout the 1980s, because as petro-revenues are used to develop the economy more energy demand will be created, particularly for oil and gas. The mix of oil and gas consumed will depend on the success of the oil-to-gas conversion program.

Almost 87 percent of Mexico's surplus crude oil was sold to the United States in 1978, with most of the remainder going to Israel (5.8 percent), Spain (4.0 percent), Canada (0.6 percent) and Brazil (0.4 percent). Mexico has announced plans to further diversify its oil customers, thereby reducing the percentage of sales to the United States to about 60 percent by 1981. Table 5 shows the projected U.S. share of estimated Mexican oil exports for the next decade.

Table 5

Estimated Quantities of Mexican Oil

Available to the United States

1980 to 1990

<u>Year</u>	Estimated exportable Mexican oil (note a) (000 bpd)	U.S. market share (note b) (percent)	Available to the <u>United States</u> (000 bpd)
1980	500 - 1,100	66	330 - 730
1981	900 - 1,200	60	5 <b>4</b> 0 - 720
1982	1,100 - 1,300	60	660 - 780
1983	1,200 - 1,400	60	720 - 840
1984	1,300 - 1,600	60	780 - 960
1985	1,400 - 2,000	60	860 - 1,200
1986	1,700 - 2,100	60	1,020 - 1,260
1987	1,900 - 2,300	60	1,140 - 1,380
1988	2,000 - 2,400	60	1,200 - 1,440
1990	3,000	60	1,800

 $\underline{a}/$  Based on DOE and Congressional Research Service estimates.  $\underline{b}/$  Our assumptions based on announced PEMEX goals.

These estimates can be seen in perspective by comparing them with the total U.S. crude oil consumption shown in table 6. Mexican oil imports could become an increasing share of U.S. consumption over the next decade.

If these projections are realistic, Mexico could become a major source of imported oil in the coming years, thereby providing the opportunity for a partial shift of U.S. dependency away from the Middle East and North Africa. Given the constraints of Mexico's production plans, however, Mexican imports will not be capable of entirely replacing U.S. Middle East oil imports.

For further imformation on U.S.-Mexican energy relationships, see GAO reports, "Prospects for a Stronger United States-Mexico Energy Relationship" (ID-80-11, May 1, 1980) and "Oil and Natural Gas From Alaska, Canada, and Mexico--Only Limited Help for U.S." (EMD-80-72, Sept. 11, 1980).

Table 6

# Potential Mexican Crude Oil Exports to the United States as Percent of U.S. Consumption and Imports 1979 to 1990

Year	Projected range of exports to the United States (000 bpd)	Projected U.S. crude oil consumption (note a) (000 bpd)	Export range as percent of U.S. consumption	Projected U.S. net crude oil imports (note a) (000 bpd)	Export range as percent of U.S. net crude oil imports
1070	h /424	b/14,497	3.0	b/6,177	7.0
1979	b/434				5.3 - 11.5
1980	333 - 730	14,656	2.3 - 5.0	6,325	
1981	540 - 720	14,817	3.6 - 4.9	6 <b>,</b> 477	8.3 - 11.1
1982	660 - 780	14,980	4.4 - 5.2	6,632	10.0 - 11.8
1983	720 - 840	15,145	4.8 - 5.5	6,791	10.6 - 12.4
1984	780 - 960	15,312	5.1 - 6.3	6,954	11.2 - 13.8
1985	860 - 1,200	15,480	5.6 - 7.8	7,121	12.1 - 16.9
1986	1,020 - 1,260	15,650	6.5 - 8.1	7,292	14.0 - 17.3
1987	1,140 - 1,380	15,822	7.2 - 8.7	7,467	15.3 - 18.5
	_ •	15,996	7.5 - 9.0	7,646	15.7 - 18.8
1988	1,200 - 1,440	•	•	•	22.4
1990	1,800	16,350	11.0	8,018	22.4

a/Growth rates of 1.1 percent of U.S. crude oil consumption and 2.4 percent for U.S. net crude oil imports are based upon projections in Exxon's report "World Energy Outlook", Dec. 1979, and are used here solely for comparative purposes.

b/These are actual figures, according to the U.S. Energy Information Adminis-

tration's "Monthly Energy Review," June 1980.

#### Canada as a future source

Canada is committed to energy self-reliance and plans to make every effort to use or reserve oil and gas for future internal use before exports are considered. Any oil and gas exports from Canada, then, will be approved for short periods and priced at world levels. Overall, the size of any exports will not be significant to U.S. needs.

Oil exports will continue to be phased out, and after 1981 the United States will receive only relatively small amounts of oil through exchanges and short-term limitations on the use of heavy oil in Canada. These exports will be important to the Northern Tier States; however even these exports will be reduced starting in the mid-1980s when Canada will be able to use this oil internally.

Notwithstanding the optimism on potential gas resources in Canada, gas exports will likely maintain their current market position in the United States through the 1980s (5 percent of U.S. consumption). After 1990, exports may begin to decrease as more gas is needed in Canada.

GAO reports, "Prospects for Cooperation and Trade of Energy Resources Between the United States and Canada" (ID-80-2, Nov. 8, 1979) and "Oil and Natural Gas From Alaska, Canada, and Mexico-Only Limited Help for U.S." (EMD-80-72, Sept. 11, 1980), contain further information on U.S.-Canadian energy relations.

#### CONCLUSION

The potential for immediate large-scale diversification of U.S. imported oil sources is nil because there is not enough unused productive capacity outside the major Middle East and North African producing countries to support a major shift of U.S. import patterns without a counterbalancing shift by other major importers. Most of the other major importing countries are already more dependent upon the Middle East and North Africa than is the United States and are not likely to sacrifice their own security to improve that of the United States.

The prospects for diversification in the mid-term future are somewhat better, although still uncertain. The normal lag-time of 6 to 12 years between discovery and production means that any new oil discovery will not be an important supply source until the late 1980s. Mexico and some other non-OPEC areas offer the brightest prospects. Mexico could become an important source of imported oil in the coming years, accounting for possibly as much as 22 percent of U.S. oil imports by 1990, but it will not replace Middle East imports unless U.S. oil consumption unexpectedly declines sharply.

This situation is likely to prevail throughout the foreseeable future unless major new discoveries are made outside the Middle East and North Africa.

#### CHAPTER 3

#### DIVERSIFICATION AT THE COMPANY LEVEL

Oil company officials we talked with see supply source diversification as necessary to achieve a secure and continual supply of crude oil. We should emphasize that diversification does not mean abandoning traditional oil sources but, rather, reducing reliance upon them by supplementing with other sources to the point that dependency upon the Middle East and North Africa is not so great as to be critical should a supply disruption occur.

The Middle East continues to present a geologic lure to oil companies, since both known reserves and the potential for undiscovered reserves are larger there than anywhere else in the world. However, the changing relationship of the international oil companies with the major producing governments has created a powerful incentive for the companies to diversify their sources of petroleum and has largely removed the opportunity for new equity ventures in OAPEC countries and Iran.

The opportunities for significant shifts in supply sources, however, have been limited; and few U.S. companies that are dependent upon the Middle East and North Africa have achieved any significant reduction to date in their dependence on those areas. When Venezuela and Ecuador nationalized their oil industries in the mid-1970s, a number of U.S. and foreign companies lost production facilities and have not maintained their Latin American sources through purchase contracts. Venezuela, for example, is selling directly to a number of U.S. utilities and refiners which previously purchased Venezuelan oil from companies that lost equity production in Venezuela. This has made these companies even more dependent upon the Middle East and other sources.

#### INCENTIVE TO DIVERSIFY SOURCES

OPEC's rise to power has changed oil company strategies. Some OPEC members have fully nationalized company assets; most have gradually increased their equity participation and have gained operational control of company facilities in their respective countries.

Retreating from their loss of ownership production, some companies attempted to preserve their traditional sources of supply through long-term supply contracts with the host governments. Many of these contracts were unilaterally abrogated by the OPEC governments within the last few years and converted to short-term contracts as OPEC tightened its control over disposition of its oil. With the advent of the high spot-market prices of the past year, some of these short-term contracts have been unilaterally terminated by the governments so they could sell the oil on the spot market-sometimes to the company left holding a worthless purchase contract.

OPEC producer countries now appear to be on the verge of moving their campaign against the oil companies one step further. The November 12, 1979, issue of the "Oil and Gas Journal" reported that the managing director of Petroleos de Venezuela said that (1) OPEC hopes to decrease the roles of crude oil traders and other oil trade intermediaries, (2) OPEC is restructuring world oil trade by insisting on more direct sales between it and consumers, and (3) the great bulk of sales of crude oil from exporting countries "\* \* \*, will, when the process has been completed, be made directly by the government entity in charge of international marketing to refiners on a long-term contract basis."

Thus, the oil companies, especially the "international majors," are seeing their role diminish by oil producers asserting control over the disposition of their oil. The majors have lost much of their power to determine crude oil production volumes and prices and are widely regarded as becoming captive to the policies and directions of the producing countries.

Some OPEC nations also have recently adopted new terms of sale which insist on the use of the oil companies' advanced technology and capital in the search for oil and gas. For example:

- --Algeria has adopted an exploration surcharge of \$3 a barrel. If the purchaser elects to explore in Algeria and is approved by the government, the amount paid in surcharge will be applied against its exploration costs.
- --Libya has drastically cut its contract sales for 1980 and is entering into new production-sharing exploration agreements; companies that are successful would be given preference in purchasing government oil as well as their production shares.

Other OPEC nations want access to the West's refining technology. For example, Saudi Arabia has entered into crude oil processing agreements in Europe with the British Petroleum Company, Ltd. (BP), Mobil, and Petrola (Greece).

The weakening of the major international oil companies is reflected in the decrease of company-owned and produced crude oil (equity crude) the major international companies have at their disposal. Table 7 shows a DOE analysis of the declining trend for six major U.S. oil companies between 1972-76.

Decline of Selected Companies' Equity Production of Petroleum Liquids Relative to Total Supply (note a)

1972 to 76

(Volume in thousands of bpd)

	1972		1973		1974		1975		1976	
	Volume	Percent		Percent	Volume	Percent	Volume	Percent	Volume	Percent
Exxon Equity Total supply	5,734 6,145	93.3	5,525 6,718	82.2	4,271 6,367	67.1	3,684 5,411	68.1	2,683 5,576	48.1
Gulf Equity Total supply	3,086 3,086	100	2,429 3,012	80.6	1,700 2,585	65.8	1,001 1,952	51.3	702 1,730	40.6
Mobil Equity Total supply	2,312 2,399	96.4	2,043 2,507	81.5	1,278	51.9	1,227	54.8	1,170 2,156	54.3
Royal Dutch/Shel (note b) Equity Total supply	3,826 6,408	59.7	3,855 6,729	57.3	3,435 5,917	58.1	2,821 4,786	58.9	2,113 4,732	44.7
Socal Equity Total supply	3,324 3,324	100	3,052 3,736	81.7	2,144 3,814	56.2	1,867 3,025	61.7	2,026 3,542	57.2
Texaco Equity Total supply	3,296 4,021	82.0	3,215 4,535	70.9	2,355 4,507	52.3	2,034 3,770	54.0	2,066 4,015	51.5

a/Excludes purchases in the third-party crude oil market and the spot market.

b/Does not include data from Shell Oil Company, a U.S.-based company.

Source: An Analysis of Current Trends in United States Access to World Oil, Department of Energy, July 1, 1978.

A more recent and telling estimate shows that where equity oil was once measured in millions of barrels per day for the leading multinational companies, not one of them is expected to have as much as one million barrels per day of equity crude outside North America in 1980.

Table 8

Selected Countries' Principal Sources of Equity Oil Production Outside North America

Estimates for 1980 (000 bpd)

	Exxon	Texaco	Mobil	Socal (note a)	Gulf	Phillips	Occidental (note a)	Conoco (note a)	<u>BP</u>	Royal Dutch Shell	Атосо
Middle East Abu Dhabi Dubai Oman Turkey	40 - - - - 40	-	40	-	: : =	: :	- - - -	104 - 104	155 - 155	80 - 100 25 205	-
North Africa Egypt Libya	80 80	<u>-</u>	40 40	-	-	5 	109 109	161 161	-	-	140  140
Other Africa Angola Nigeria	-	10 10	80 80	10 10	50 170 220	35 35	<u>:</u>	===	=	280 280	
Europe United Kingdom Norway Other	195 35 230	40 - - 40	65 15 80	45 5 50	20 - - - 20	180 180	111 	20 - 7 - 27	525 - 525	195 - 45 <u>240</u>	-
Far East Australia Indonesia Malaysia	200 45 245	285 - 285	30 - 30	10 285 - 295	- -	10 -	-	- 6  6	- -	: =	-
Latin America Argentina Colombia Peru Trinidad	· -	-	-	5 - - 5	-	- - -	- 61 - 61	: : :	-	-	50 - 94 144
Other	10	25	_	10	15					10	_25
Total	605	360	270	370	255	230	281	298	680	735	309

 $<sup>\</sup>frac{a}{2}$ Data corrected by company.

Source: International Petroleum Finance, New York, Vol. 3, Feb. 11, 1980, as reported in OPEC Bulletin, Feb. 25, 1980.

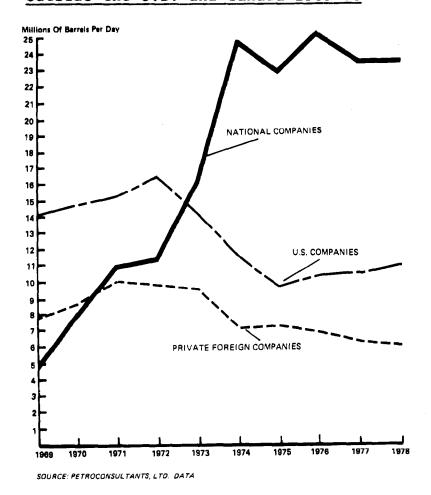
Our analysis of the general trend over the 10 years 1969 through 1978 shows a rise in both net 1/ crude oil production and acreage holdings of U.S. companies until about 1973 to 1974 and a marked decline from that point on.

Most U.S. companies ended the 10-year period with lower figures in both categories. Foreign privately owned companies followed the same pattern. On the other hand, many national oil companies were created during this time, and national companies improved their positions, as shown in figures 1 and 2.

 $<sup>1/\</sup>text{The terms "net"}$  and "gross" are often used in describing acreage holdings and petroleum production of individual oil companies. They are also used, but less frequently, in defining the amount of exploratory work done by an individual company, such as the number of exploratory (wildcat) wells completed or the number of crew-months or party-months of geophysical exploration completed (i.e. seismic surveys, field gravity surveys, etc). Oil companies frequently form joint ventures with other companies to explore and develop contract area holdings as a means of spreading the risk. Under such arrangements, each company will hold or own a certain share (expressed as a percentage, usually in proportion to its investment) of the contract acreage and will share any production developed or exploration losses incurred. "Gross acreage" means the total amount of acres of all ventures in which an individual company is participating; "net acreage" refers only to an individual company's share of a given venture or the total of the percentage shares of all ventures in which it participates. "Gross production" is a company's beneficial share of production from properties operated by the company and others. Gross production excludes quantities belonging to other joint lease owners or participants but includes royalties and quantities due others upon production. "Net production" is equivalent to gross production less royalties and quantities due others upon production, whether or not there are options to take payment in kind in lieu of cash.

Net Free World Crude Oil Production Outside the U.S. and Canada 1969-78

Figure 1

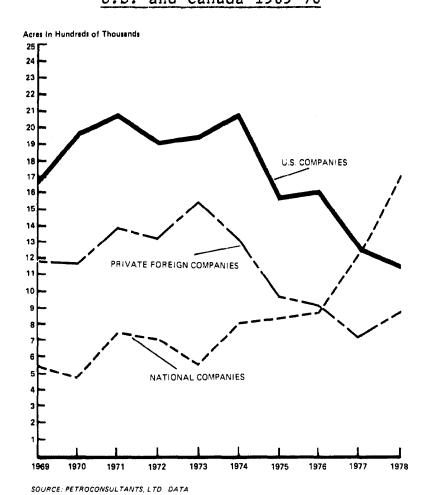


While many governments, both producers and importers, have established their own national oil companies, most of the expertise, technology, and equipment for exploring and producing oil and gas still rests with the international oil companies. U.S. experts consider the national companies of only two or three producing governments comparable in exploration and production ability to major international companies. Exploration and production in the extreme frontier areas (deep water, arctic regions, and remote continental interiors) where much of the remaining potential lies is almost exclusively the domain of the international majors.

International oil companies, therefore, remain essential to consuming and producing nations alike because of their production expertise, access to processing facilities, distribution systems, and access to the great oil markets which permit them to handle very large volumes of oil.

Net Free World Acreage Held Outside the U.S. and Canada 1969-78

Figure 2



## WHERE U.S. OIL COMPANIES ARE EXPLORING AND PRODUCING

Oil company officials told us that supply source diversification was an important company objective and that they were trying to accomplish it. To determine their progress, we analyzed selected U.S. companies' foreign crude oil production and exploration based on data from the companies and from Petroconsultants, Ltd. We included non-U.S.-based BP and Royal Dutch/Shell for comparison.

### Trends in crude oil sources

U.S. companies' crude oil production and purchases over a period of years indicate mixed success in diversifying sources as of the end of 1979, the most recent year we examined. (See table 9.) While most companies have experienced changes in their supply source pattern, only Occidental and Phillips achieved a definite degree of diversification during the period examined—1969 through 1979. Royal Dutch/ Shell had a fairly well-balanced source pattern at the beginning of the period and gradually improved it, even though, like many other companies, it suffered a significant loss of Latin American sources.

Table 9 Trends in Sources of Petroleum Liquids (note a)
Selected Companies
(Volume is thousands of bpd)

	1969 Volume %	1970 Volume %	1971 Volume %	1972 Volume %	1973 Volume %
EXXON  United States Canada (note b) Latin America Middle East *North Africa Other Africa Far East/Asia Europe Total	867 18 154 3 1,404 30 2,267 48  1 + 37 1 4,730 100	946 18 170 3 1,455 27 2,654 50  59 1 35 1 5,319 100	932 18 183 3 1,396 27 2,594 49  123 2 28 1 5,256 100	970 18 225 4 1,265 24 2,742 51 131 2 22 1 5,360 100	947 16 275 5 1,395 23 3,140 53  164 3 19 + 5,940 100
*Libya included	with Middle	East			
TEXACO (note c) United States Canada Latin America Middle East North Africa Other Africa Far East Europe Total	866 29 90 3 335 11 1,165 39 185 6 - 310 11 36 1 2,987 100	939 29 112 4 303 9 1,294 40 162 5 1 - 382 12 35 1 3,228 100	940 27 124 3 268 8 1,638 46 131 4 5 - 373 11 3,516 100	916 23 147 3 275 7 2,100 52 117 3 5 - 429 11 32 1 4,021 100	876 19 187 4 331 7 2,519 56 96 2 5 - 492 11 29 1 4,535 100
SOCAL (note c) United States Canada Latin America Middle East North Africa Other Africa Far East Other Total	547 24 64 3 79 3 1,077 47 185 8 299 13 50 2 2,301 100	547 22 74 3 86 3 1,284 50 162 6  353 14 53 2 2,559 100	536 19 79 3 80 3 1,648 57 131 4 5 + 360 12 51 2 2,890 100	528 16 104 3 63 2 2,043 61 117 4 5 + 415 12 48 2 3,323 100	509 14 125 3 67 2 2,418 65 84 2 4 + 483 13 46 1 3,736 100
CONOCO United States Canada Latin America Middle East North Africa Other Africa Far East Europe Total	179 34 64 12 7 1 15 3 263 50 528 100	188 30 71 11 6 1 43 7 316 51  624 100	197 32 76 13 5 1 53 9 275 45  606 100	206 33 87 14 4 1 64 10 265 42  626 100	205 34 94 15 4 1 88 15 211 35  1 + 603 100
SUN United States Canada Latin America Middle East Africa Far East Europe Total	206 59 13 4 118 33 15 4  352 100	215 59 14 4 112 31 22 6  363 100	225 62 14 4 102 28 24 6  365 100	236 64 15 4 91 25 27 7  369 100	228 62 15 4 90 24 35 10  369 100

Source: Annual reports.

<sup>+</sup> Less than 0.5 percent. a/Includes crude oil, condensates, and natural gas liquids from both equity production and long-term purchases.  $\frac{b}{L}$  Includes heavy oil production (1975-3,000 bpd; 1976-5,000 bpd; 1977-5,000 bpd; 1978-8,000 bpd; 1979-20,000 bpd).  $\frac{c}{L}$  Gross production - all others are net.

1974 Volume %	1975 Volume %	1976 Volume %	1977 Volume %	1978 Volume %	1979 Volume %
890 16 224 4 1,243 22 3,152 55  164 3 15 + 5,688 100	846 17 174 4 947 19 2,797 56 - 181 4 14 + 4,959 100	812 15 154 3 1,013 19 3,132 59  188 4 26 + 5,325 100	795 16 148 3 841 16 3,062 60 196 4 49 1 5,091 100	829 17 138 3 659 14 2,752 59 	791 18 160 4 660 15 2,431 55
807 18 183 4 271 6 2,755 61 3 - 4 - 458 10 26 1 4,507 100	759 20 143 4 222 5 2,217 59	699 18 125 3 173 4 2,582 64 12 397 10 27 1 4,015 100	640 16 124 3 172 4 2,528 63 22 1 422 1,1 25 1 3,931 100	582 16 123 3 133 4 2,280 64 20 1 392 11 22 1 3,551 100	526 14 168 5 128 4 2,377 65 
472 12 122 3 65 2 2,652 70 1 + 455 12 49 1 3,816 100	437 14 111 4 50 2 1,969 65 	420 12 93 3 12 + 2,552 72 17 + 420 12 29 1 3,543 100	408 12 96 3 11 + 2,419 71 	394 12 96 3 9 + 2,348 71 19 1 395 12 28 1 3,289 100	386 12 108 4 7 - 2,242 70 - 382 12 74 2 3,199 100
204 42 89 18 2 1 95 20 91 19 - 1 + 482 100	194 43 78 17 2 1 96 21 84 18 + + 455 100	185 39 70 15 	175 36 78 16  123 25 113 23  1 + 1 + 491 100	165 34 71 15	159 33 74 15  106 22 118 24  8 2 17 4 482 100
219 66 13 4 66 20 33 10  331 100	219 68 11 3 53 17 37 12  320 100	209 83 10 4 	198 80 9 4  40 16  247 100	184 79 10 4  39 17  233 100	168 85 11 6  17 9 1 +  197 100

	196 Volume		197 Vo Tume		197 Volume		197 Volume		1973 Volume	
OCCIDENTAL United States Canada Latin America Middle East North Africa Other Africa Far East Europe Total			<b></b> Data no	t read	dily avail	ab 1e —	10 - - 442 - - - 452	2 - 98 - 100	10 - - 258 - - - 268	96 - 100
ARCO United States Canada Latin America Middle East North Africa Other Africa Far East Other Total	421 34 127 58 - - 38 678	62 5 19 9 - - 6 100	406 36 118 68 - - 31 659	62 5 18 10 - - 5 100	397 36 111 77 - 1 25 647	61 6 17 12 - + 4 100	401 37 95 87 - - 8 24 652	61 6 15 13 - 1 4 100	391 42 89 94 - 18 22 656	60 6 14 14 - - 3 3 100
GULF United States Canada Latin America Middle East North Africa Other Africa Far East Europe Total	524 75 205 1,664 220 - 6 2,694	19 3 8 62 - 8 - + 100	544 80 201 1,787 316 - 6 2,934	18 3 7 61 - 11 - 100	509 88 197 1,986 - 377 - 6 3,163	16 3 6 63 - 12 - +	477 104 206 1,842 - 452 - 5 3,086	15 3 7 60 15 - 100	440 113 253 1,693 509 - 4 3,012	15 4 8 56 - 17 - + 100
PHILLIPS United States Canada Latin America Middle East North Africa(E) Other Africa Far East Europe Total  BRITISH PETROLEU United States Middle East	40 <u>337</u>	79 8 1 12 -	271 23 12 20 - 326	83 7 4 - 6 - 100	266 22 14 - 26 - 3 331	80 -7 -4 -8 -1 100	268 22 13 - 23 - 11 337	79 -7 4 -7 -3 100	257 25 9 - 36 - 11 338	76 7 3 - 11 - 3 100
North Africa Other Africa Europe (North 9 Other Total	Gea)				Data not	readil,	y availab	le —	100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	
ROYAL DUTCH/SHELL United States Canada Latin America Middle East North Africa Other Africa Far East Europe Other Total	771 238 1,115 2,094 495 219 167 51 15 5,165	15 5 22 40 10 5 3 1 +	835 251 1,167 2,340 558 452 236 44 28 5,911	14 4 20 40 9 8 4 1 + 100	870 248 1,135 2,495 470 602 312 23 31 6,186	4 18 40 8 10 5 +	927 271 1,008 2,618 480 650 369 35 50 6,408	14 4 16 41 7 10 6 1 1 100	996 317 1,008 2,825 295 680 473 72 63 6,729	15 5 15 42 4 10 7 1 1 100

197 Volun		Volum Volum	975 ne %	1976 <u>Volume                                    </u>	1977 Volume %	1978 <u>Volume %</u>	1979 Volume %
8 - -	5 - -	7 2 -	5 1	7 4 2 1 4 2	8 3 2 1 5 2	7 2 2 1 32 9	5 1 2 1 58 16
166	95	135	94	161 92	171 68	171 53	153 44
174	100	144	100	$\frac{1}{175}$ $\frac{1}{100}$	67 26 253 100	114 35 326 100	132 350 100
383 28 60 97	64 5 10 17	370 23 54 123	62 4 9 21	363 71 11 2 106 21	408 72  119 21	527 82  83 13	538 95
25 2 595	4 100	22 2 594	100	30 6 2 + 512 100	35 6 2 + 564 100	31 5 2 + 643 100	29 5 2 + 569 100
476 99 226 1,345	18 4 9 50	426 91 197 993	21 4 10 49	399 22 81 5 165 9 832 46	402 24 76 4 96 6 744 44	400 25 75 5 73 5 716 45	
520 3 2,669	19 + 100	320 3 2,030	16	323 18  2 + 1,802 100	368 22 + 1,688 100	324 20 1 + 5 + 1,594 100	
256	75 -	244	67	246 63	255 64	259 59	263 60
23 9	7 3	17 6	5 2	6 2	6 1 5 -	5 1 4 -	  1
38	11	5 30	9	5 - 34 10	39 11 6 1	41 10 18 4	37 9 6 1
12 338	100	63 36 <b>5</b>	17 100	93 25 390 100	93 <u>23</u> 404 <u>100</u>	$\frac{117}{444}$ $\frac{26}{100}$	$\frac{126}{436} \frac{29}{100}$
3,620	82	2,720	- 79	2,520 71	2,060 61	720 19 1,700 46	
660	15	480	14	420 12 180 5	440 13 410 12	360 10 460 12	
160 4,440	3 100	20 220 3,440	1 6 100	$\frac{420}{3,540}$ $\frac{12}{100}$	480 14 3,390 100	480 13 3,720 100	
964 317 844 2,433 128 704 405 75 47 5,917	16 5 14 41 2 12 7 1 100	937 282 633 1,923 33 520 287 96 75 4,786	20 5 13 40 1 11 6 2 2 100	962 20 349 8 256 5 1,995 42 123 3 479 10 316 7 136 3 116 2 4,732 100	966 20 377 8 247 5 1,972 41 146 3 455 9 384 8 274 6 26 1 4,847 100	1,006 21 345 7 280 6 1,721 37 113 2 382 8 417 9 385 8 65 1 4,714 100	

## Areas being explored today

We analyzed Petroconsultants' production and exploration data for areas other than North American and Communist countries for 1978, the most recent year available. We found that, although most of the companies still rely heavily on the Middle East and/or North Africa for their crude oil production and/or purchases, their exploration activities show much more of a worldwide distribution. Except for Aramco 1/, the companies did very little exploration in the Middle East in 1978, and much of it was outside OPEC as well. For ease of presentation, we have divided the companies into three groups.

- Group I: Companies averaging over 1 million bpd net production—Exxon, Texaco, Mobil, and Socal. These four are also partners in Aramco and are the only private companies with interests in Saudi Arabia proper. (Getty Oil Company is exploring and producing in the Neutral Zone shared by Saudi Arabia and Kuwait. The Japanese-owned Arabian Oil Company is producing from offshore areas of the Neutral Zone.)
- Group II: Companies averaging between 250,000 and 1 million bpd net production--Gulf, Occidental, Conoco, and The Standard Oil Company of Indiana (Amoco).

<sup>1/</sup>The Arabian American Oil Company was organized in 1933 as the California-Arabian Standard Oil Company by Socal to develop its original discovery in Saudi Arabia. Aramco has remained the sole concession-holder in Saudi Arabia (except in the Neutral Zone). Texaco became a 50-percent shareholder in 1936, the name was changed to Aramco in 1944, and Exxon and Mobil purchased interests in In 1973, the Saudi Government acquired a 25-percent interest in production assets, rights, and operations in exchange for payment to the companies for their asset book value and the right to buy back the major part of the government's share of the oil produced at specified prices, which were less than market prices. In 1974, Aramco agreed to an increase in government ownership to 60 percent, with the understanding that complete government takeover would follow. Agreement on terms for full transfer of assets to Saudi Arabia was essentially reached in 1976. agreement has not yet been finalized, although Saudi Arabia paid for the final 40 percent in 1980. Under the agreement, Aramco would continue to operate the Saudi oil fields under a service contract and would share exclusive marketing rights with the Saudi Government.

Group III: Companies averaging less than 250,000 bpd net production—Atlantic Richfield Company (ARCO), Getty, Phillips, and Cities Service Corporation (CITCO).

Our analysis is summarized in tables 10 and 11 which show the relative Middle East vs. non-Middle East and OPEC vs. non-OPEC concentration of these companies' 1978 oil production sources compared with their exploration activities as measured by (1) net acreage held under lease contract (a prerequisite to active exploration) at the end of 1978, (2) net number of exploratory wells completed during 1978, and (3) net number of crew-months of geophysical exploration work in 1978. Table 10 shows that, although the sampled companies as a group obtained 73 percent of their net crude oil production from the Middle East and North Africa, only 20 percent of their net acreage under contract, ll percent of their net exploratory well completions, and 31 percent of their net geophysical work was in those areas. Table 11 shows that 82 percent of the group's net crude oil production came from OPEC countries, while 24 percent of their net acreage holdings, 44 percent of their net exploratory well completions, and 40 percent of their net geophysical work was in OPEC countries.

Figures 3 through 14 illustrate the same information by company.

Occidental and Gulf, both Group II companies, present interesting studies in diversification efforts. Occidental started overseas oil exploration and production in Libya in the 1960s. that time, Libya was Occidental's sole source of production. Company officials told us that Occidental realized the vulnerability of its small financial base and heavy dependency on Libyan production well before it became the focal point of OPEC's successful maneuver to break the oil companies' attempt at a unified stand against OPEC's original 1971 demands for price increases. At that time Libya threatened to shut Occidental down completely if it did not agree to negotiate independently. Although Occidental had obtained exploration concessions in the North Sea, Peru, Venezuela, and Nigeria in 1971 and had made discoveries in the North Sea and Peru, it was not able to develop production from these areas by 1971. From 1971 to 1978, most of its capital has gone into developing its North Sea and Peru discoveries.

Occidental has encountered a number of obstacles in developing its concession in Peru. It had to design special drilling rigs that could be lifted in sections by helicopter into the nearly inaccessible interior jungles. According to Occidental, its projected favorable rate of return was cast into doubt when the U.S. Internal Revenue Service determined that projected taxes that would be paid to Peru would not qualify for the foreign tax credit against Occidental's U.S. income taxes. More recently, Peru unilaterally changed the contract terms from a 50/50 production-sharing arrangement to an effective 84 percent for Peru and 16 percent for Occidental by requiring Occidental to pay income tax on its 50-percent share at a tax rate of 68.5 percent.

By the mid-1970s, Gulf was producing a major share of its crude oil supply from its concessions in Kuwait and Iran. then, its holdings in both countries have been nationalized. Kuwait originally agreed in 1974 to continue to provide oil to Gulf through a participation agreement which was to run for 5 years but was terminated by Kuwait in 1975. Gulf continues to purchase crude oil from Kuwait, however. In like manner, Gulf's Iranian source has also been converted from production to purchases; in the light of the current situation in Iran, it must be considered a most tenuous source. Gulf also suffered nationalization actions in South America and completely lost its crude oil sources in Ecuador and its equity production in Venezuela. Although it has embarked upon a number of explorations in such places as Oman, Pakistan, and Angola, Gulf has not been successful in replacing its previous production sources. Its total worldwide crude oil supply through both production and purchases has dropped from an average 2,669,000 bpd in 1974 to 1,594,000 bpd in 1978.

#### Table 10

Selected U.S. Oil Company Crude Oil Production and Exploration Activities Comparison by Middle East, North Africa, and Other Areas Excluding North America and Communist Areas 1978 (note a)

	_Middle East	North Africa	Subtotal Middle East & North Africa	All Other	Middle East North Africa		oubtotal Middle East & North Africa	
	Number %	Number %	Number %	Number %	Number %	Number %	Number 2	
	-		EXXON	and the same and t		A	MOCO	
Acreage Exploratory wells Geophysical work Production	8,830 5 1.9 3 14.3 16 1,416,164 75	0 0 1.8 2	35,400 21 1.9 3 16.1 18 1,506,569 80	132,959 79 70.8 97 73.9 82 386,065 20	2,125 9 0 0 .1 .5 154,795 21	5,596 23 7.0 38 2.2 11 363,795 51	7,721 32 7.0 38 2.3 11.5 523,590 72	
			MOBIL			G	ULF	
Acreage Exploratory wells Geophysical work Production	5,941 12 1.9 9 10.1 21 384,987 81	12,630 26 3.7 16 18.1 37 29,986 3	18,571 38 5.6 25 28.2 58 914,973 84	29,733 62 16.6 75 20.6 42 176,369 16	4,618 10 2.5 10 5.0 19 326,027 59	722 2 .9 3 9.3 34 0 0	5,340 12 3.4 13 14.3 53 326,027 59	
			TEXACO			000:	DENTAL	
Acreage Exploratory wells Geophysical work Production	8,807 10 1.9 5 13.3 31 1,419,924 71	8 <b>9</b> + 0 C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C	8,896 10 1.9 5 13.3 31 1,419,924 71	81,658 90 32.8 95 29.8 69 577,885 29	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	12,880 51 2.0 13 7.0 32 172,270 49	12,880 51 2.0 13 7.0 32 172,270 49	
			SOCAL			со	NGCO	
Acreage Exploratory wells Geophysical work Production	8,742 7 1.9 6 13.3 27 1,386,592 77	89 + 2 6 0 0 0 0	8,831 7 3.9 12 13.3 27 1,386,592 77	110,437 93 27.5 88 36.2 73 424,244 23	347 1 0 0 .5 3 109,000 47	18,493 39 2.3 21 12.1 66 114,000 49	18,840 40 2.3 21 12.6 69 223,000 96	
			GROUP I TOTAL			GROUP	II TOTAL	
Acreage Exploratory wells Geophysical work Production	32,320 8 7.6 5 51 22 5,107,667 75	39,378 9 5.7 3 19.9 9 120,391 2	71,698 17 13.3 8 70.9 31 5,228,058 77	354,787 83 147.7 92 160.5 69 1,564,563 23	7,090 5 2.5 3 5.6 7 589,822 32	37,691 26 12.2 18 30.6 35 655,065 35	44,781 31 14.7 21 36.2 42 1,244,887 67	

<sup>+</sup> Less than 0.5 percent.

Source: Developed from Petroconsultants' Ltd. data, except for Arco, Conoco, Getty, and Phillips which was provided by companies.

Table 11
Selected U.S. Cil Company Crude Dil Production and Exploration Activities
Comparison by OPEC and Non-OPEC Areas
Excluding North America and Communist Areas

		Texa		[978] (	note a)	Mob		Exxon		
	GPEC		NON-OP	EC	GPEC		NUN-OP	NON-OPEC		
	Number	<u>%</u>	Number	%	Number	6/ /0	Number	%	Number	%
Group I										
Acreage held Exploratory wells Geophysical work Production	18,084 23.6 29.6 1,888,023	20 68 69 95	72,470 11.1 13.5 109,768	30 32 31 5	28,059 11.3 22.1 1,042,113	58 51 45 95	20,245 10.9 26.7 49,229	42 49 55 5	40,688 17.9 20.6 1,522,465	24 25 23 80
Group 11		AMC	000			Gulf				Occidental
Acreage held Exploratory wells Geophysical work Production	1,241 0.3 0.4 154,795	5 2 2 21	23,151 18.0 19.3 568,345	95 98 98 79	11,264 19.0 12.2 446,113	25 74 45 81	34,205 6.7 14.9 107,130	75 26 55 19	16,942 3.0 7.0 172,270	67 20 32 49
Group III		ARCC	)			Gett	у			Phillips
Acreage held Exploratory wells Geophysical work Production	6,216 3.2 13.0 113,934	22 91 87 98	21,791 0.3 2.0 1,856	78 9 13 2	7,059 1.9 3.5 135,518	42 46 30 67	9,644 2.2 8.1 65,575	58 54 70 33	3,298 10.2 16.1 57,000	5 57 54 36

Unit No. Key for Tables 10 and 11

Acreage held is in thousands of acres. Exploratory wells is the number completed during 1978. Geophysical work is in the number of crew-months during 1978. Production is in average barrels per day during 1978.

a/All figures are net.

Source: Developed from Petroconsultant's Ltd. data, except for Arco and Getty which are company data.

All Othe		Middle 6		North Af		Subto Middle E North At	ast & frica	All Oth		Middle E	-	North Afric	-	Subtota Middle Ea North Afr	st &	All Oth	
Number	<u>%</u>	Number	<u>%</u>	Number	<del>%</del>	Number	<u>%</u>	Number	% 	Number	<u>%</u>	Number 2		Number	<del>%</del>	Number	<u>%</u>
					AF	RCO	******					TOTAL	OF	ALL GROUPS			
11.2 17.4	68 62 88.5 28	558 C 0 82,853	2 0 0 72	0 0 0 0	0 0 0	558 0 0 82,853	2 0 0 72	27,449 3.5 15 32,937	100 100	41,265 10.6 59.9 5,913,152	6 4 16 64	93,640 14 17.9 7 57.6 15 779,818 9	,	134,905 28.5 117.5 6,692,970	11 31	554,473 231.0 261.4 2,489,716	80 89 <b>6</b> 9 27
					GE	TTY		1									
40,129 22.3 12.8 227,216	87 47	1,104 .4 3.3 125,156	7 10 28 62	680 0 0 0	4 0 0 0	1,784 .4 3.3 125,156	28	14,919 3.7 8.3 75,937	90 72								
					PHIL	LIPS											
12,585 4 13.1 8 15.1 6 180,969 5	87 <b>6</b> 8	19 0 0 5,444	0 0 0 3	15,891 0 7.1 4,362	24 0 27 2	15,910 0 7.1 9,806	24 0 27 5	50,041 18.0 19.1 177,995	100 73								
					CI	TCO											
5.7	60 79 31 4	174 .1 0 2,210	2 3 0 10	0 0 0 0	0 0 0	174 .1 0 2,210	2 3 0 10	9,698 3.1 7.5 20,666	97 100								
				GRO	UP II	I TOTALS											
	79 58	1,855 .5 3.3 215,663	2 2 5 41	16,571 0 7.1 4,362	14 0 12 1	18,426 .5 10.4 220,025	16 2 17 42	101,507 28.3 49.9 306,935	83								

		SUCAL					GROUP I	TOTAL		TOTAL - ALL GROUPS			
NON-OP	EC	OPEC		NON-OPEC		GPEC	GPEC		NON-OPEC		OPEC		
Number	70	Number	<u>%</u>	Number	<u>%</u>	Number	%	Number	<u>%</u>	Number	6/	Number	<u>*</u>
127,671 54.9 69.4 370,169	76 75 77 20	17,711 15.1 26.9 1,780,475	15 48 54 98	101,557 16.2 22.6 30,361	85 52 46 2	104,542 67.9 99.2 6,233,076	25 42 43 92	321,943 93.1 132.2 559,527	75 58 57 8	165,834 113.3 153.2 7,575,880	24 44 40 82	522,529 144.5 225.6 1,625,298	76 56 <b>6</b> 0 18
			CONOC	0		GI	ROUP II	TOTAL					
8,523 12.1 15.1 180,969	33 80 68 51	8,834 5.4 3.5 250,510	19 59 19 99	37,785 3.8 14.7 2,284	81 41 31 1	38,281 27.7 23.1 1,023,688	28 41 27 54	103,664 40.6 64.0 858,728	72 59 73 46				
			CITCO			GF	ROUP III	TOTAL					
62,653 7.6 12.1 120,000	95 43 46 64	6,438 2.4 0.3 2,664	69 77 4 12	2,834 0.7 7.2 19,612	31 23 96 88	23,011 17.7 30.9 319,116	19 62 51 61	96,922 10.8 29.4 207,043	81 38 49 39				

Figure 3 DISTRIBUTION OF CRUDE OIL PRODUCTION AND EXPLORATION ACTIVITIES OUTSIDE NORTH AMERICA AND COMMUNIST AREAS

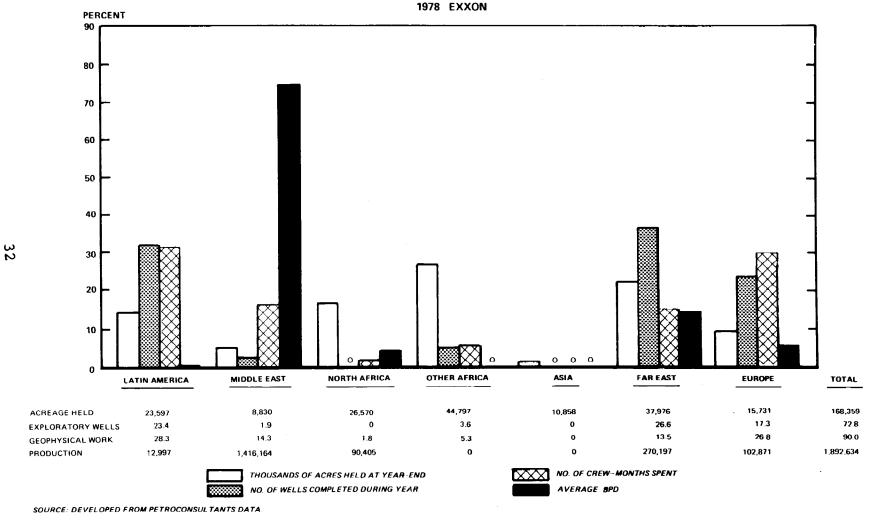
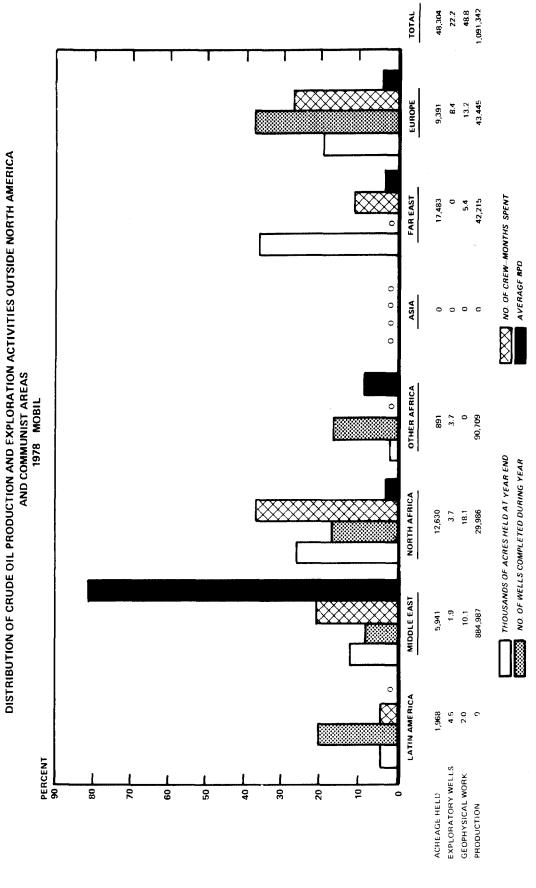


Figure 4



SOURCE: DEVELOPED FROM PETROCONSULTANTS DATA.

Figure 5 DISTRIBUTION OF CRUDE OIL PRODUCTION AND EXPLORATION ACTIVITIES OUTSIDE NORTH AMERICA AND COMMUNIST AREAS

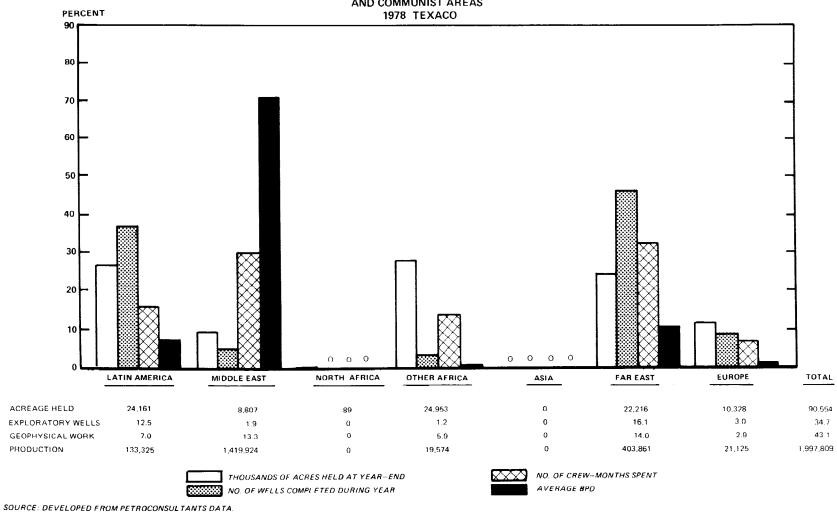


Figure 6

DISTRIBUTION OF CRUDE OIL PRODUCTION AND EXPLORATION ACTIVITIES OUTSIDE NORTH AMERICA AND COMMUNIST AREAS

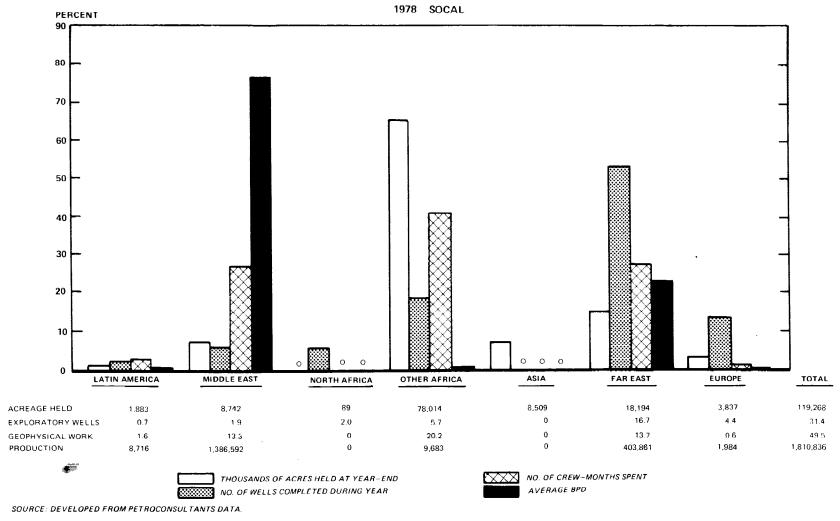


Figure 7

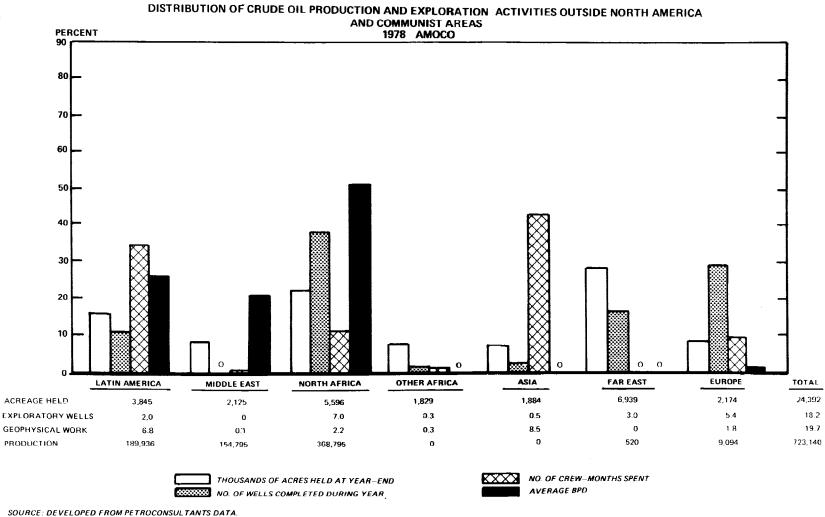


Figure 8

DISTRIBUTION OF CRUDE OIL PRODUCTION AND EXPLORATION ACTIVITIES OUTSIDE NORTH AMERICA AND COMMUNIST AREAS

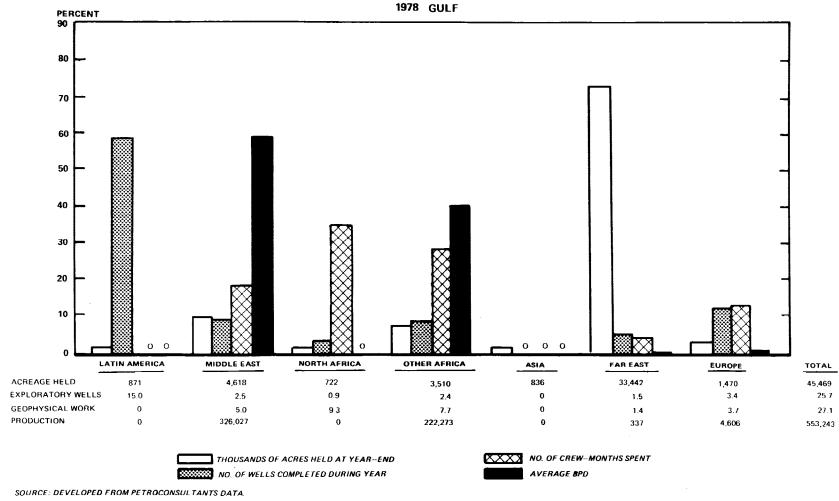


Figure 9

DISTRIBUTION OF CRUDE OIL PRODUCTION AND EXPLORATION ACTIVITIES OUTSIDE NORTH AMERICA AND COMMUNIST AREAS

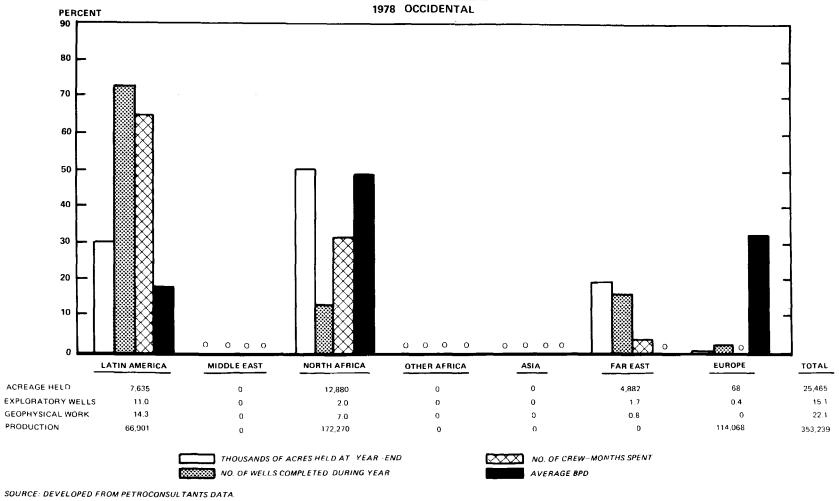
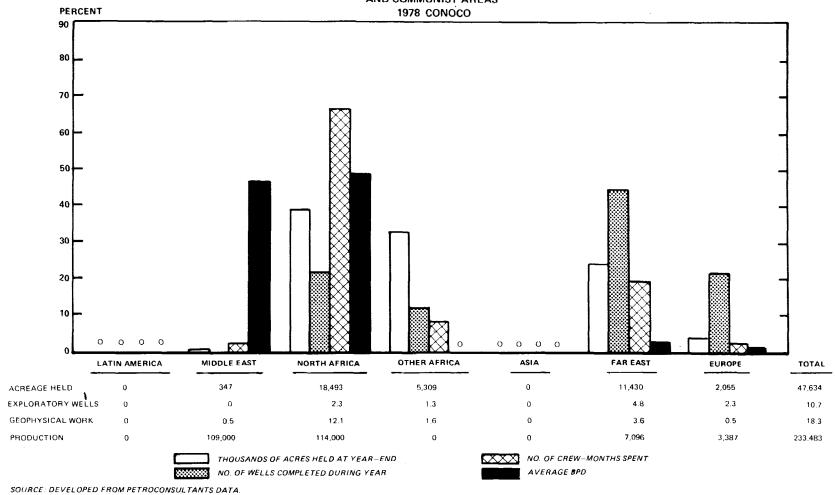
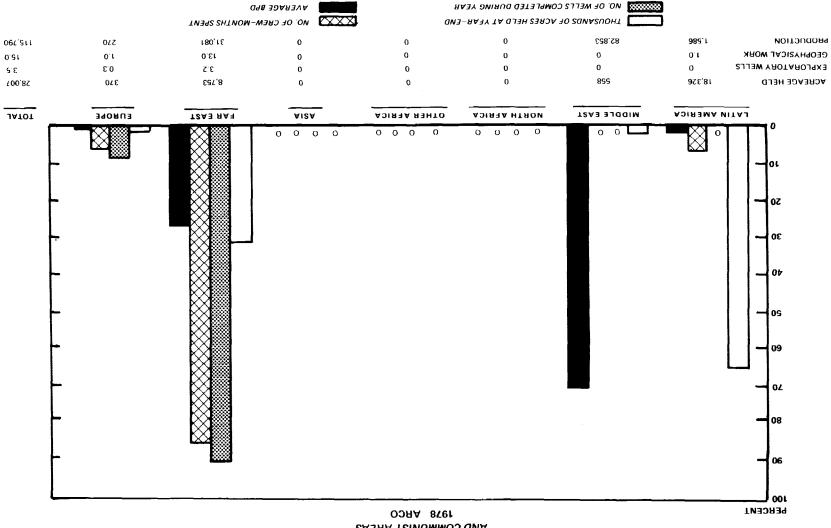


Figure 10

DISTRIBUTION OF CRUDE OIL PRODUCTION AND EXPLORATION ACTIVITES OUTSIDE NORTH AMERICA AND COMMUNIST AREAS



## DISTRIBUTION OF CRUDE OIL PRODUCTION AND EXPLORATION ACTIVITIES OUTSIDE NORTH AMERICA AND COMMUNIST AREAS



SOURCE: DEVELOPED FROM PETROCONSULTANTS DATA.

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Figure 12

DISTRIBUTION OF CRUDE OIL PRODUCTION AND EXPLORATION ACTIVITIES OUTSIDE NORTH AMERICA AND COMMUNIST AREAS

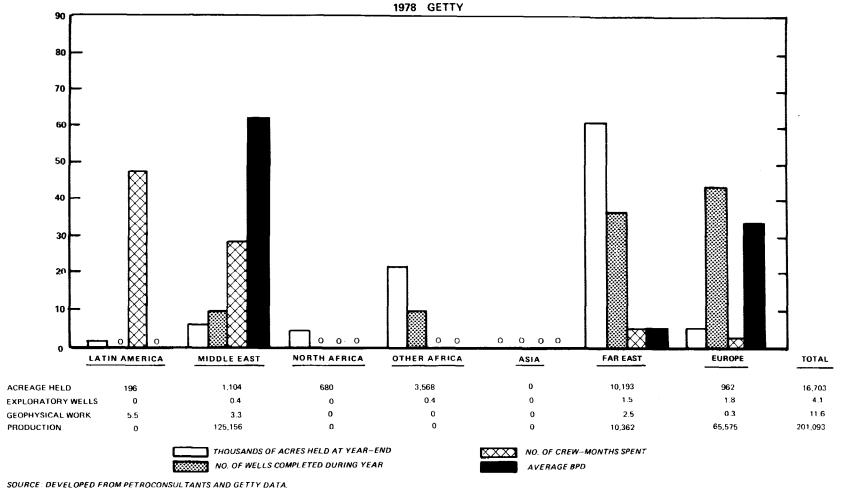


Figure 13

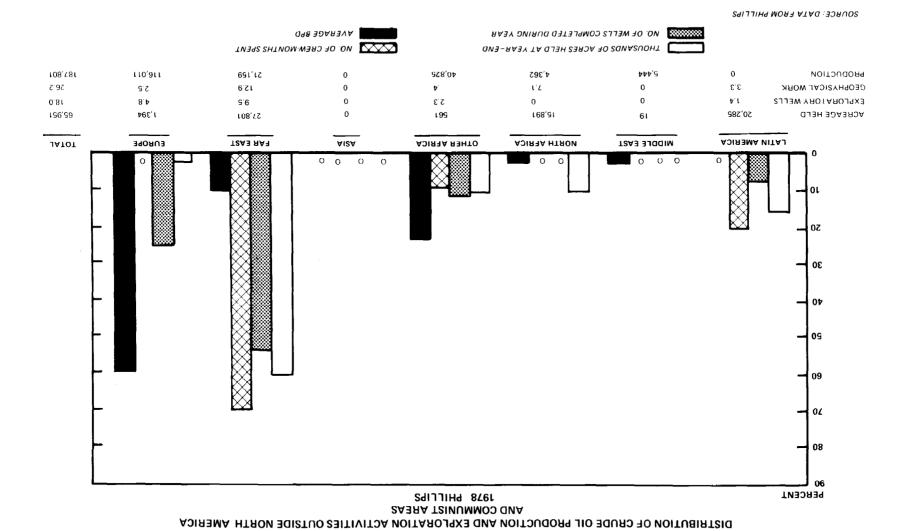
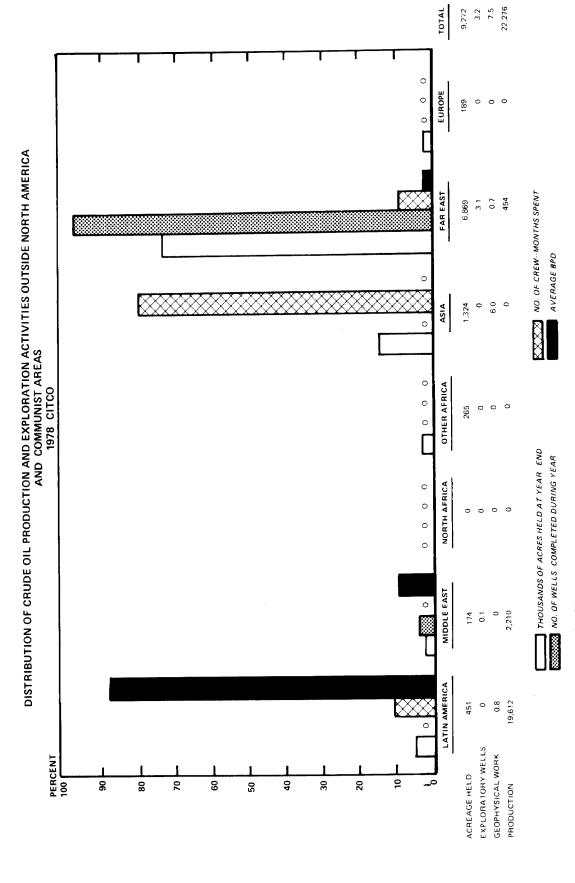


Figure 14



SOURCE: DEVELOPED FROM PETROCONSULTANTS DATA.

#### CHAPTER 4

## POTENTIAL FOR DISCOVERING

#### NEW PETROLEUM SOURCES

Future diversification on a significant scale will be possible only if large amounts of petroleum can be discovered and produced in countries outside the Middle East and North Africa, preferably those that are not currently oil exporters. Expansion of such production also could:

- --Increase aggregate world oil and gas supplies, thereby limiting the demand on existing suppliers and reducing the probability and magnitude of oil price increases.
- --Further U.S. security interests (including nuclear nonproliferation objectives) by enhancing the political, economic, and energy security of oil-dependent importers.
- --Reduce the need for the United States to importune its existing suppliers to extend production beyond the levels they consider optimal.
- --Increase economic development in those less developed countries where oil and gas is found and alleviate the burdens imposed by oil price increases.
- --Extend the period available for improving and installing the alternate technologies that will become increasingly important over the long run.

Most experts generally agree on the estimated remaining undiscovered volume of oil and gas in the world. They also agree that there is still much potential for additional discoveries but differ widely over whether current exploration levels are adequate to realize this potential.

## ESTIMATES OF UNDISCOVERED OIL AND GAS

With notable exceptions, there is generally a consensus among petroleum experts that about as much conventional oil remains to be discovered as the one trillion barrels already discovered.

A number of studies over the past several years by the Rand Corporation, U.S. Geological Survey (USGS), Mobil, BP, Exxon, and others converge around a figure of 2 trillion barrels as the total world petroleum resource base.

A review of estimates during the past three decades reveals that the range in the late 1940s was 400 billion to 600 billion barrels; in the 1950s it was 1,000 billion to 1,500 billion barrels, and during the past two decades there has been considerable

convergence toward the current consensus of about 2 trillion barrels. (See table 12.)

Estimates of World Ultimate
Crude Oil Recovery

Table 12

Date of estimate	<u>Estimator</u>	Organization	Billion barrels
1962	L.G. Weeks	Consultant	2,000
1965	T.A. Hendricks	USGS	2,480
1967	W.P. Ryman	Esso (Exxon)	2,090
1968	_	Shell Oil Company	1,800
1969	M. King Hubbert	National Academy of Sciences	1,350-2,100
1969	L.G. Weeks	Consultant	2,200
1970	J.D. Moody	Mobil	1,800
1971	H.R. Warman	BP	1,200-2,000
1972	J.D. Moody and		_,
	H.H. Emmerick	Mobil	1,800-1,900
1972	Richard L. Jodry		1,952
1972	H.R. Warman	BP	1,800
1973	Wim Vermeer	Shell Oil Company	1,930
1973	H.R. Warman	BP	1,915
1974	J.D. Moody and		, -
	R.W. Esser	Mobil	2,000
1974	M. King Hubbert	USGS	2,000
1975	J.D. Moody and		•
	R.W. Esser	Mobil	2,030
1975	-	Exxon	1,945
1975	B. Grossling	USGS	2,600-6,500
1975	P. O'Dell	Erasmus University, Rotterdam	3,575 <b>-4</b> ,233
1977	M. King Hubbert	Congressional	3/3/3 4/233
1311	n. King nabbere	Research Service	2,000
1977	_	World Energy	27000
		Conference	1,900
1978	Richard Nehring	Rand Corporation	1,700-2,300
1979	A.A. Meyerhoff	Consultant	2,230

During our review, the most often cited estimate was that of a survey conducted for the 1977 World Energy Conference in Istanbul, Turkey. Questionnaires soliciting estimates were sent to over 40 government, industrial, and scientific organizations in the Eastern and Western Hemispheres. At the time of the meeting, opinions had been forwarded from 29 organizations, including many oil companies. The average of the estimates received was 1,900 billion barrels with two-thirds of the replies averaging 1,760 billion barrels, excluding deep-water Arctic and Antarctic zones.

#### Uncertainty of estimates

The convergence of the majority of experts around 2 trillion barrels as the world's ultimate crude oil resources should be viewed with caution. The uncertainty of these estimates is probably greater than this consensus would lead one to believe because all current estimates of undiscovered resources are based on certain assumptions. The danger is that, although the experts who make these estimates are aware of the large number of uncertainties and qualifications inherent in them, the non-experts who often use them are not.

Many different approaches are applied in attempting to assess the world's ultimate petroleum resource base, but most estimates are based on the use of geological analogies, statistical techniques, or a combination of both.

Numerous data problems are involved in making accurate estimates of world petroleum resources. The oil industry, since its beginning, has found some 30,000 oil and gas fields. For the United States and a few other countries, a considerable amount of information is readily available, but for most countries, the available data is scanty and incomplete or has not been published. Also, most of the data is held privately by individual petroleum companies, which makes it difficult for independent groups to confirm oil company analyses.

Despite the importance of the subject, no systematic and thorough attempts have been made to estimate world petroleum resources by country on a uniform and comparable basis. The Colorado School of Mines and the International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis have proposed developing this information as a cooperative survey with oil companies, governments, and other institutions. To date, they are not funded.

The Department of Energy in association with the USGS has initiated a similar project, called the Foreign Energy Supply Assessment Program, to attempt to compile all known geological information, maps, production and reserve data, exploration drilling statistics, etc., for each productive and prospective petroleum province of the world, both onshore and offshore.

#### PROSPECTIVE OIL AND GAS AREAS

According to the generally accepted theory that petroleum is of organic origin  $\underline{1}/$ , petroleum is formed and can exist only in thick layers of sedimentary rocks. The world's surface can be divided into three major categories.

<sup>1/</sup>This theory is that petroleum was created by the gradual compaction
 of organic material under great pressure and temperatures in layers
 of sedimentary (porous) rocks.

- The present-day ocean floor, which comprises over 70 percent of the earth's surface and is largely nonsedimentary rock.
- Combined continental shields and high mountains, which comprise another 13 percent of the earth's surface; any oil or gas formed in these areas has either been destroyed, leaked out, or both.
- Sedimentary basins, which comprise about 17 percent of the earth's surface.

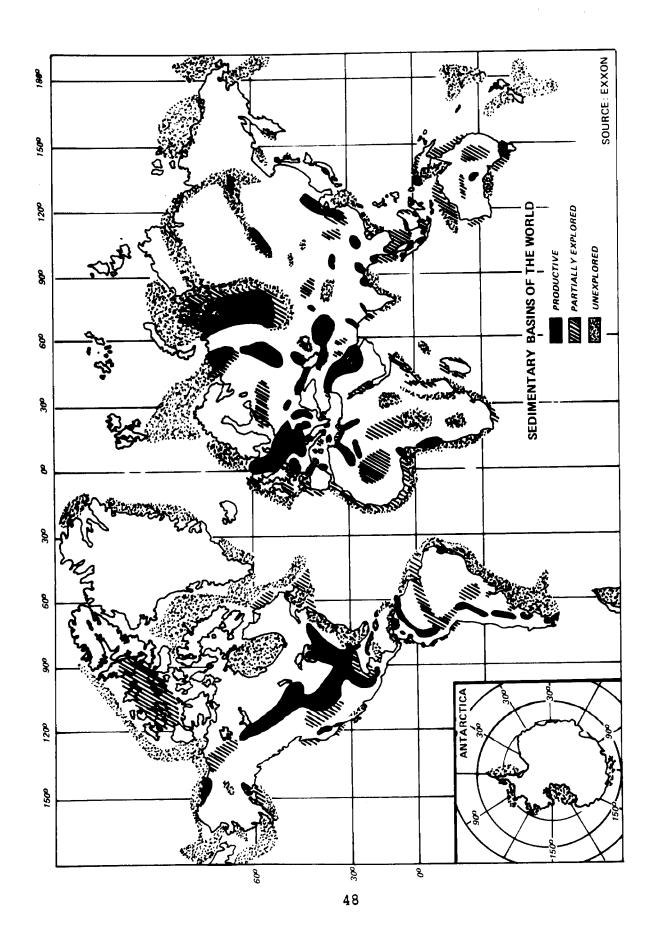
Exxon, in a June 1978 report, claims that sufficient survey work has been done in all the world's basins to indicate their dimensions, the amounts and general types of sediments they contain, and their general structural properties.

Approximately 600 sedimentary basins have been identified on land and under the oceans in continental shelves and slopes by major U.S. oil companies and the USGS. (See map on p. 48) In roughly 400 of these basins, exploratory drilling has been done in varying amounts and with varying degrees of success. About 160 basins are capable of producing commercial quantities of oil and gas, and very large amounts of oil (perhaps more than 50 percent of future discoveries) are expected to be discovered in these basins. The other 240 basins have been drilled without yielding commercial discoveries to date.

The remaining 200 basins have had essentially no drilling as yet—in most cases, because they are in harsh physical environ—ments or because government restraints have restricted access to them. Exxon estimates that perhaps half the essentially unexplored basins may eventually prove productive. Socal, in a recent report, indicates that a significant part of the sedimentary basins are lacking in oil or gas because some of the critical elements needed for oil and gas accumulation were never present. Socal estimates that the known oil and gas occurred in only 4 percent of the earth's surface.

Although estimates of where future discoveries will occur are highly speculative and uncertain, most oil company and government geologists we interviewed said that the following areas outside of the Middle East and North Africa hold the most promise.

- --The Arctic areas including the Beaufort Sea off Alaska and Canada, the Bering and Chukchi Sea areas off Alaska in which the USGS recently made favorable seismic findings, the Rift Basin off Newfoundland, East Greenland, and the northern basins of the Soviet Union.
- -- Antarctica, which is largely unexplored.



- --Mexico, which has great potential, whose limits are still undetermined.
- -- The North Sea, particularly the Norwegian sector above the 62d parallel.
- --China, which has the largest unexplored non-arctic continental shelf in the world.
- --Certain developing nations in Latin America and Africa which have been only moderately explored. The tremendous heavy oil potential of Venezuela should also be noted.

The CIA report, "The World Oil Market in the Years Ahead," August 1979, stated that:

"With adequate exploration, prospects are good for expanding the reserve base of Mexico, Argentina, Brazil, Egypt, India, Peru, and Malaysia. Locating fields of Middle East size, however, appears possible only in Mexico, and perhaps in Egypt. In some countries, notably Syria, Brunei, and Angola, substantial exploratory work is needed just to keep the present reserve base from declining.

"Geological prospects elsewhere in the developing countries are uncertain at best. Areas in Asia with potential may include the Bay of Bengal, onshore Burma, the Andaman Islands, and the South China Sea. The coast of East Africa, particularly along Somalia, has also been left largely untouched. More work is also needed to prove up and expand reserves in the upper regions of the Amazon Basin and offshore areas of Brazil."

#### EXTENT OF EXPLORATION

The analyses of Dr. Bernardo Grossling, formerly of the USGS and now with the Inter-American Development Bank, are often cited by those who claim that large prospective petroleum-producing areas have been neglected. Dr. Grossling's premise is that large prospective areas, particularly in Latin America and Africa, have not been adequately explored. He points out that drilling density varies greatly throughout the world. The United States is by far the most densely drilled area, with the Soviet Union next but lagging far behind. He presents the following data on the number of wells that have been drilled per square mile of prospective area to reveal what he calls a "drilling gap".

# Number of wells per square mile of prospective area

## Region

Conterminous United States	1.17
Soviet Union	.15
Argentina, Mexico, Venezuela	.05
Other Latin America	.01
Middle East	.01
South and Southeast Asia, Indonesia	.01
Africa and Madagascar	.003

Available data reveals that exploration continues to be concentrated in the United States. In 1977, for example, comparison of activity in the United States versus the rest of the free world shows that over 70 percent of the exploratory wells, over 80 percent of the total wells, nearly 80 percent of the total footage drilled, and almost half of the free world's geophysical activity occurred in the United States.

Figure 15 shows that most of the free world's exploratory wells from 1970 to 1978 were drilled in the United States, with a marked increase occurring after 1973. Canada also shows considerable activity, particularly since 1975. The rest of the free world, however, shows no increasing trend in the number of exploratory wells drilled. In 1978, for example, 10,677 exploratory wells were drilled in the United States, 3,144 in Canada and only 1,305 in Latin America, Africa, Europe, and the Far East combined.

Exploration statistics, however, must be interpreted with caution because there is no consensus among experts in or out of the oil industry as to how much activity is adequate.

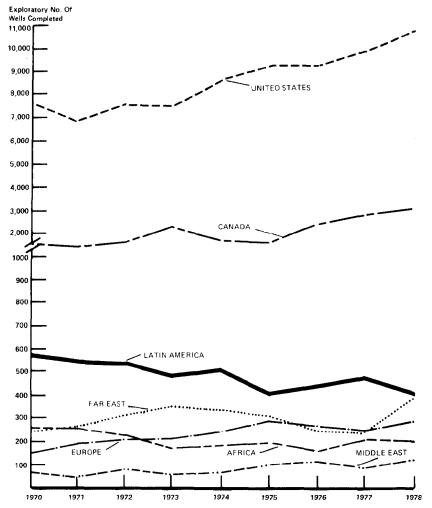
For example, in a June 1978 paper, "Exploration in Developing Countries," Exxon claimed that exploration activity in non-OPEC less developed countries (LDCs) was rather extensive for the 1967-76 decade as a whole. Excluding the United States, Canada, Western Europe, Australia, Japan, and the Communist areas, exploratory wells were drilled in 71 countries. Another 19 countries were explored by seismic survey without drilling, and 20 countries were not explored at all; these 20 are mostly small island nations or those with poor geologic prospects.

In 1976, the most recent year for which data was available for the Exxon study, exploratory drilling took place in 37 countries. Detailed seismic surveys, but no drilling, took place in 15. Oil companies held contract acreage in 30 countries. There was no activity in 31 countries, in some cases because of government policies or political uncertainties.

Our analysis of 1978 activities in non-OPEC LDCs shows that U.S. oil companies held acreage contracts in 57 countries, drilled exploratory wells in 36, and performed geophysical surveys in 27.

Figure 15

FREE-WORLD EXPLORATORY WELL COMPLETIONS 1970-78



Source: Basic Petroleum Data Book, American Petroleum Institute.

Dr. Grossling maintains that political and economic constraints have caused the oil industry to neglect many areas of the world and that areas, such as Latin America and Africa, if drilled as intensively as the United States, would turn out to be far more productive than generally assumed. He does not predict that another Middle East would be found but expects that more intensive exploration would find greater resources than have so far been found.

Although industry and Government geologists we talked to were not as optimistic as Dr. Grossling about prospects in areas that have not been extensively drilled, they recognized the need for increased exploration in LDCs.

A study prepared for the World Bank by l'Institut Français du Petrole classified the adequacy of exploration in 70 developing countries as shown in table 13.

Table 13

Adequacy of Exploration in 70 Developing Countries

	Number of	Exploration						
Type of country	countries	Inadequate	Moderate	Adequate				
Oil producer and net importer Nonproducer with	12	6	4	2				
known reserves	10	3	3	4				
Nonproducer with no discoveries Non-OPEC producer a	45 nd	28	13	4				
exporter	_3	_1	_2	<u>0</u>				
Total	<u>70</u>	<u>38</u>	22	10				

The study concluded that only 7 of the 23 countries with high or very high prospects have been explored adequately, 6 have been explored moderately, and the rest inadequately. Of the 15 countries with fair prospects, only one has been explored adequately, 3 moderately, and 11 inadequately.

Countries whose prospects warrant increased exploration include such comparatively large consumers of petroleum as India, Argentina, Turkey, the Philippines, Colombia, Peru, Pakistan, and Vietnam.

About half the world's known reserves of oil occurs in "supergiant" fields (accumulations of more than 5 billion barrels). Few of the basins explored in recent years contain geological structures where such large fields might be found. Experts we talked with and read indicated that none of the unexplored basins possess geological characteristics that suggest the discovery of another "Middle East" where most of the known supergiant fields have been found. 1/1 The focus of exploration has therefore shifted to smaller fields, and improvements in technology have enhanced the ability of drillers to discover them.

In introducing its program to accelerate petroleum production in the developing countries (see ch. 5), the World Bank stated:

"In principle, therefore, the prospects for increased exploration in the lightly explored basins, situated mainly in developing countries, would appear to be good. However, in currently producing basins, the

<sup>1/</sup>Supergiant fields have been found in Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Iran, Iraq, Abu Dhabi, Libya, Algeria, China, the Soviet Union, Venezuela, the United States (Texas and Alaska), and Mexico. The Mexican fields are the only supergiants discovered in the past decade.

largest and most attractive structural prospects were explored first and there is a strong incentive to re-evaluate older prospects; more intensive exploration may discover smaller, but now profitable fields in these basins. As the industry turns to 'second tier' geological prospects, in many cases prospective areas in developed countries have the advantage that the essential infrastructure is in place and that they are close to the markets. These circumstances probably explain much of the difference in relative drilling intensity between developed and developing countries. A balance that may appear appropriate from a global point of view, or from that of the oil companies interested in supplying the world market, may be inappropriate from the viewpoint of a developing country which attaches high priority to increasing its oil self-sufficiency and would wish to explore its oil potential as quickly as possible."

#### CHAPTER 5

#### U.S. GOVERNMENT ACTIONS TO STIMULATE

#### EXPLORATION AND DIVERSIFICATION

The United States differs from most other industrialized countries by relying almost entirely upon its private oil companies for petroleum supplies, whether imported or domestically produced. In many other countries, the government owns one or more major oil companies. Consequently, U.S. programs or policy actions to effect changes in petroleum industry behavior are designed to work through the private sector. The United States has only one official activity, the Overseas Private Investment Corporation (OPIC), which directly influences petroleum exploration in other countries. Several other U.S. programs which were started for other purposes have various indirect relationships to foreign petroleum exploration.

A Presidential interagency task force is currently studying what is being done and what can or should be done to stimulate oil and gas exploration and development in developing countries. Its report to the President recommending what, if any, action the Government should take is now in draft form and is expected to be issued in late 1980.

#### OVERSEAS PRIVATE INVESTMENT CORPORATION

OPIC was created by the Foreign Assistance Act of 1969 "\* \* \* to mobilize and facilitate the participation of United States private capital and skills in the economic and social development of friendly less developed countries and areas, thereby complementing the assistance objectives of the United States."

OPIC operates two major programs—investment insurance and finance. Under the insurance program, OPIC insures U.S. private investments against certain political and commercial risks, such as expropriation, war, and currency inconvertibility in friendly LDCs. OPIC's finance program provides (1) preinvestment assistance for conducting surveys on a risk—sharing basis to find projects and confirm their viability, (2) loan guarantees, and (3) direct loans to small businesses to promote economically and financially viable projects in friendly LDCs.

Late in fiscal year 1977, OPIC expanded its programs to include minerals and energy projects by offering coverage during exploration, production, and processing. In fiscal year 1978, a Minerals and Energy Staff was established within OPIC to identify and help implement potential projects in petroleum-importing LDCs, using both the insurance and finance programs. A principal objective of this expansion was to help oil-importing countries develop their petroleum resources, thus reducing their dependence on imported oil and serving the U.S. national interest by opening up new sources of oil supply.

By the end of fiscal year 1979, OPIC had issued \$277 million in insurance for petroleum exploration and development projects in Egypt, Greece, and Ghana and an additional \$46.5 million in coverage for the expansion of an oil storage and transshipment facility in Panama. It had also insured an unsuccessful oil exploration project in Jordan, now terminated. Early in fiscal year 1980, OPIC issued insurance for loans to an oil field development project in Pakistan. In its 1979 annual report, OPIC reported that it then had under consideration 45 registrations for potential energy projects in 21 countries.

OPIC's basic legislation specifies operations in less developed countries. Yugoslavia and Romania, however, are exceptions and the People's Republic of China recently was made eligible for OPIC programs.

Other legislation has recently been introduced to overcome problems OPIC has had insuring petroleum projects because of restrictive language in its statute and legislative history which discouraged involvement in petroleum projects.

### OTHER U.S. PROGRAMS

The following U.S. programs, while established for other purposes, may have some degree of influence, either directly or indirectly, on accelerating foreign petroleum exploration.

## International Energy Development Program

The International Energy Development Program (IEDP), established in response to a 1977 Presidential directive, attempts to help developing countries meet their energy needs thorugh increased reliance on indigenous resources while averting premature and/or excessive commitments to nuclear energy programs. The IEDP has also been referred to as the LDC Program.

IEDP's purpose is to (1) analyze LDC energy needs, uses, and resources, (2) encourage exploration and development of their conventional energy resources, (3) provide research, development demonstration, and application of modern energy technologies, and (4) provide training, education, and institutional development. This is being carried out in three phases.

In Phase I, DOE uses Brookhaven National Laboratories and Argonne National Laboratory to collect, collate, and analyze available existing data from U.S. domestic sources on each country to be studied. In Phase II, a team of DOE and USGS experts visit the country, consult its energy officials, and report their findings, conclusions, and recommendations.

Phase I is completed for Egypt, Peru, South Korea, Argentina, Portugal, and Indonesia. Phase II is completed for Egypt and Peru.

A Phase III effort was being planned to consist of extensive followup work by an incountry field team. This team would conduct several years of actual development work with the country's staff and produce a detailed, indepth assessment of the country's energy potential and policy options with specific plans for implementation.

## Foreign Energy Supply Assessment Program

Despite the importance of the subject, no systematic and thorough attempts have been made to estimate the undiscovered petroleum potential of each country of the world on a uniform and comparable basis other than by private petroleum companies for their own use. The USGS proposed such a project several times, but was denied approval and funding by both the Department of Interior and the Office of Management and Budget at different times. Without this information, U.S. policymakers lack a reliable data base for making decisions concerning petroleum potential.

Recognizing this deficiency, DOE in association with the USGS, has initiated the Foreign Energy Supply Assessment Program (FESAP) to provide a reliable and credible information data base on worldwide petroleum resources and potential, by country. This project will attempt to compile all known geological information, maps, production and reserve data, exploration drilling statistics, etc. for each productive and prospective petroleum province outside the United States both on and offshore, and to estimate the recoverable oil and gas potential by country, with no attempt to judge the country's economic/political need to produce oil. The USGS has already done this for the United States and reported its results in USGS Circular 725, "Geological Estimates of Undiscovered Recoverable Oil and Gas Resources in the United States."

FESAP differs from the IEDP in scope, methodology, and purpose. The IEDP covers all energy sources, while FESAP concentrates only on petroleum potential. The IEDP bases its analyses on data existing in the United States and on fairly extensive incountry data research, while FESAP relies upon collecting existing geological data without leaving the United States. The IEDP concentrates on those countries most likely to turn to nuclear power in an effort to divert them to non-nuclear sources; FESAP concentrates on those with the greatest known petroleum potential and then works down to the others. The IEDP's purpose is to stimulate and assist the LDC in deciding on non-nuclear energy sources, while the FESAP's purpose is to provide a data base for U.S. decisionmakers. The two programs are intended to supplement, rather than overlap or interfere with, each other.

A FESAP report has been completed on Nigeria, and studies are in process for Venezuela and Trinidad. The next series of

studies planned will cover the Persian Gulf countries and Indonesia. DOE had hoped to complete the project with a worldwide report by 1985 but, because of staff and budget constraints, now considers this date highly optimistic.

The FESAP's three initial objectives are to:

- --Estimate ranges of current and future oil and natural gas production capacities from existing fields for several key producing countries, based on analyses of available geological and engineering data.
- --Estimate long-term availability of undiscovered oil and gas from several key producing countries, based on analysis of the resource base using geological and engineering analogs.
- --Apply the skills and techniques developed in achieving the two preceding objectives to make similar projections for nonproducing countries.

A fourth objective is to estimate the possible rate of production based on the estimates of discovered and undiscovered oil tempered by reservoir characteristics and development rates.

USGS officials pointed out that the program could be completed sooner if the FESAP were included as a regular work program of the USGS. Under the current arrangements, it is not included in the USGS budget and USGS has been unable to acquire additional staff to accomplish the work. USGS more or less "squeezes" the staff time for FESAP out of its other programs by assigning FESAP work segments to individuals to work on part-time or between other assignments. USGS and DOE each have only one employee assigned fulltime to this project. USGS officials said they would like to have more staff for this project, but cautioned that additional funding could accelerate the work only so far. With sufficient funding, the limiting factor would become the availability of qualified petroleum geologists and engineers. USGS feels that, given the funds, it could undoubtedly find a small number of additional qualified staff, but these individuals are definitely in short supply and high demand at the present time.

### Export-Import Bank

The Export-Import Bank seeks to foster the export of U.S. goods, including those involved in overseas petroleum exploration and production, by providing loans, loan guarantees, and insurance to foreign purchasers of U.S. equipment.

# U.S. PARTICIPATION IN INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

The United States also participates in a number of international organizations which have or are developing programs to stimulate oil and gas exploration and development in LDCs.

The World Bank is the only such organization with an operational program intended specifically to accelerate oil and gas exploration and development in LDCs, but the Inter-American Development Bank has a similar program under development.

#### World Bank

Before 1973, the World Bank did not finance petroleum production projects, mainly because private capital was available and commercial production was uneconomical in most developing countries at 1973 international oil prices. After the large increase in petroleum prices in 1973, the Bank started to review its energy development lending policies.

In July 1977, acting on a recommendation from the London Economic Summit Meeting, the Bank expanded its energy sector lending program to include projects for developing and producing fuel and nonfuel mineral resources, including petroleum. It stopped short of funding exploration.

Under this program, the Bank provided loans for four oil and gas development projects in developing countries as outlined below.

- --In July 1977, the Bank loaned the equivalent of \$150 million to the Government of India to develop the oil and gas reserves of the Bombay High and Basse North fields (discovered in 1974 and 1975 respectively). This \$571 million project is the third phase of India's Oil and Natural Gas Commission development program for the Bombay High offshore area. It is expected to be completed by December 31, 1980.
- --In July 1978, the Bank approved a loan equivalent to \$4.9 million to the Natural Gas Organization of Thailand to finance the foreign exchange cost of a natural gas development engineering project. The project is the first phase in the development of Thailand's natural gas potential and comprises preparatory work to enable construction of a gas pipeline by 1981. The total cost of the project was programed at \$5.7 million.
- --In November 1978, Turkey received a loan equivalent to \$2.5 million to finance the foreign exchange cost of a comparative evaluation study of enhanced oil recovery techniques to be applied to the Bati Raman oil field and detailed design and engineering of a pilot plant for testing the chosen method.

--In December 1978, the Bank approved a development credit loan equivalent to \$30 million to the Islamic Republic of Pakistan to help finance a petroleum development project to (1) boost domestic oil supplies by increasing production from the Dhodak oil field from 1,500 bpd to approximately 9,500 bpd by 1981, (2) assist the Pakistan Oil and Gas Development Corporation to strengthen its capacity for effectively conducting oil operations, and (3) evaluate the potential of the Dhodak field discovery and prepare for its rapid exploitation. The project is scheduled to be completed by December 3, 1981, except for the training segment. The total project cost is \$73 million.

On January 16, 1979, the Bank's Board of Directors approved a program which basically further extended the energy sector lending policy established in July 1977 to include oil and gas exploration projects. The extended program would provide approximately \$500 million over the next 3 years to finance oil and/or gas development and exploration projects in LDCs. In addition to providing financial assistance for oil, gas, and coal production, the program includes advice on national energy planning and assistance for predevelopment activities as outlined below.

- -- Financing expert assistance in national energy planning.
- --Technical assistance loans or credits to provide assistance in commissioning new geological surveys or in evaluating and updating data from earlier surveys.
- -- Engineering loans and credits to finance appraisal drilling for fuel mineral projects.
- --The Bank is willing to help and advise LDC governments and foreign collaborators in concluding agreements for petroleum exploration and production and to finance the eventual production facilities. The Bank is considering loans or credits to member governments of oil-importing LDCs to cover their shares of exploration costs undertaken in association with a foreign enterprise. In countries where foreign investors are unwilling to invest in petroleum exploration, the Bank is prepared to consider lending to cover costs of exploration done by an exploration company under a service contract.

According to a Bank official, this program is to complement the international oil companies' efforts by helping the developing countries to develop marginal oil resources which are not large enough to attract international oil companies.

The Bank estimated that its support of petroleum projects would increase oil production in LDCs by 0.4 million barrels a day in 1981 and 1.4 million barrels a day in 1983.

Even though the Bank contributes only 20 percent of the funds for any one of these projects, it is important because it attracts private capital and facilitates agreements between LDCs and foreign oil companies for petroleum exploration and/or development which might not otherwise be possible.

In August 1980, the World Bank announced that it had committed \$4.5 billion for energy projects in the past 2 fiscal years and that its present plans call for energy loans of \$13 billion from fiscal year 1981 through fiscal year 1985. The Bank's president in his introduction to the Bank's August 1980 report, "Energy in the Developing Countries," stated that the \$13 billion commitment was still some \$12 billion short of "\* \* \* what is both desirable and feasible \* \* \*" and that the Bank's resources today are not adequate to meet the energy needs of the developing countries as well as provide support for their other essential needs. He proposed to "\* \* \* explore whether the establishment of an energy affiliate of the Bank would provide the additional financing that is needed for investing in energy in the developing countries."

# Inter-American Development Bank

The Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) has an established policy of encouraging exploration and/or development of mineral resources, including oil and gas. However, it has provided no funding for oil and/or gas projects to date.

The IDB has proposed to provide \$16 million (through cofinancing) to evaluate Bolivia's natural gas reserves as part of a World Bank program and has proposed to finance a petroleum project in Barbados.

In 1979, the IDB proposed to establish the Inter-American Energy and Minerals Fund to provide eligible public and private investors with (1) insurance against currency inconvertibility, expropriation, and war risk, and (2) political and commercial guarantees of loans to approved projects. The Fund could reinsure its risks under appropriate circumstances. The IDB would administer the Fund and would contribute \$50 million--\$25 million annually from its earnings for the first 2 years, of which a total of \$20 million would be for an insurance reserve, and \$30 million for a guarantee reserve. Guarantees outstanding would not exceed four times the guarantee reserve.

The IDB proposal is currently being revised, and a Treasury Department official said he does not expect it to be voted on by the member countries until 1981.

#### International Energy Agency

The International Energy Agency was not established to deal with petroleum exploration and production in LDCs and has done no work in this area.

#### United Nations

The United Nations Development Program (UNDP) provides funding for conventional energy projects in LDCs, including energy surveys, which help LDC governments to assess their energy resources (including oil and gas) and develop energy policies. The UNDP has also provided funds to train personnel in all related specialized disciplines.

In 1973, the United Nations established the U.N. Revolving Fund for Natural Resources Exploration administered by the UNDP. For economic and other reasons, the Fund has limited its assistance to exploration for hard minerals only.

In 1979, the UNDP Administrator recommended to the UNDP Governing Council that the Fund be authorized to provide assistance in the predrilling phases of petroleum exploration and in evaluating or updating existing petroleum survey data in LDCs. The Council took no action then, and the matter is not scheduled to be taken up again until 1981.

At the June 1980 session of the Governing Council, the UNDP Administrator cited his belief that there is an urgent need and considerable scope for additional funding for preinvestment petroleum surveys which would complement the World Bank lending program and focus on those low-income countries which may not be in a position to incur additional debts and those which are not members of the Bank. He recommended that the Council consider establishing within UNDP an energy fund for exploration and preinvestment surveys to finance preinvestment surveys, exploration, and demonstration projects which:

- Have the potential to attract large-scale investment from public or private internal or external sources, or a combination of these, for further exploration, development, and/or exploitation of the resources concerned.
- Have the potential to make a major contribution to a developing country's energy resources.
- Cannot be financed from other sources, including the World Bank.

As proposed, this fund would have two components.

1. In the petroleum sector, exploration would produce survey data the LDC government could use to attract investment from public and private sources which have the technical and financial capacity to move into exploration drilling, development, and production. Costs of the exploration surveys would be reimbursed to the proposed fund by the LDC government from the sale of the survey data to interested investors.

2. In the case of alternative conventional and new and renewable energy resources, the proposed fund would undertake preinvestment survey, assessment, and demonstration activities up to and including the prefeasibility stage. The fund's expenditures on individual projects would be recovered as far as possible from the LDC government or other financial sources that invest in the exploitation of the resource discovered by a successful project.

### CHAPTER 6

# OBSTACLES TO FOREIGN PETROLEUM EXPLORATION

Despite the obvious incentive provided by the steep oil price increases since 1973, certain obstacles, or disincentives, must be overcome to accelerate petroleum exploration and production worldwide. Most of these obstacles were created by government actions and could be reduced or removed by government actions.

In the past, natural physical obstacles, such as deep water, arctic conditions, or remote continental interiors, have limited or prevented exploration in some promising areas. In recent years, however, the oil industry has made great technological advancements. Nearly any place in the world can now be reached by the explorer's drill, albeit at great expenditure of money, time, and effort in certain frontier areas that still lie at the outer limits of existing technology.

#### GOVERNMENT OBSTACLES

Economic disincentives or legal barriers have been created by government actions, and <u>only</u> government actions can remove or reduce these obstacles and thus accelerate petroleum production in non-OPEC, non-Middle East areas.

Three considerations, however, should be kept in mind in analyzing the constraints facing oil companies in foreign exploration.

- Not all oil companies perceive the risks and/or impediments to exploration in a given country in the same way; what one company considers too risky may be acceptable to another.
- 2. The political and economic climate in a given country, particularly among many LDCs, is not static but dynamic. What was perceived to be an impediment to exploration yesterday may change tomorrow. Also, the steep oil price increases since 1973 have served as an incentive for some nonproducing or nonexporting countries to develop their oil and gas resources more rapidly.
- 3. The obstacles to exploration cited herein are viewed from the perspective of the United States and its oil companies. We did not assess these obstacles from the point of view of the host governments and, therefore, did not determine to what extent these obstacles have actually hindered any particular country from developing its resources at the rate it may have wished to.

The following enumeration of obstacles and disincentives to foreign exploration was assembled on the basis of our interviews with officials of 17 U.S. and 4 foreign oil companies,

professional literature and studies, and reports and views of experts from DOE and private organizations. Of particular value was a September 6, 1979, DOE report, "Accelerated Development of Oil and Gas Production in Non-OPEC Countries." This report includes a country-by-country assessment of obstacles for 30 developing countries that the World Bank views as having promising petroleum potential. (See app. I.)

### Political risk

Every oil company in our sample cited political risk as the major disincentive to foreign exploration. Most said the problem is getting worse as developing countries increasingly turn to nationalistic policies and nationalize company assets.

Although political instability is a common feature of many developing countries, it is also a matter of degree. An example is Lebanon, categorized by the World Bank and DOE as a country with high potential, whose longstanding civil war has made exploration virtually impossible. Chad, the Philippines, Vietnam, Afghanistan, Ghana, and the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen have all suffered from local wars, domestic insurgency, or violent changes of government in recent years. On the other hand, substantial activity has taken place in the Congo and Angola where domestic turmoil has been severe. The implications of instability for the sanctity of an exploration contract or the future profitability of an investment are difficult to predict in degree, but the general implication is always one of increased risk.

Although political instability and the increasing likelihood of nationalization and/or expropriation was one factor always cited during our interviews, each company assessed the degree of risk differently. Where some companies said they would not venture, others said they would or already had. For example, some companies have stayed out of Brazil and Argentina because of terrorism and political unrest, but Exxon, Shell, Deminex (a German company), and other companies have projects in those countries.

In its June 1978 report, "Exploration in Developing Countries." Exxon concluded that:

"\* \* \* there are very few countries where political risk is a totally insurmountable factor; however, during the past ten years [1969-1978], exploration has been severely restricted at times in such countries as Cambodia, Vietnam, Angola and Tanzania."

It appears that assessment and willingness to accept political risk varies among companies and is a judgement factor tempered by the financial strength of the company and the estimated geological attractiveness of an area.

On the other hand, there are more subtle problems of political instability. Exploration and development contracts are often subject to sudden unilateral revisions by the host government. The higher the risk of contract revision, the greater the rate of return companies will seek initially. In an address to a group of World Bank officials, an Occidental Petroleum Corporation official expressed the fear that host governments will unilaterally change contractual terms after a discovery is made. He stated:

"We are concerned in case we make a petroleum discovery that the host country will not recognize that prior to such discovery there was considerable geologic risk and that we based our economic projections on that risk. If the government considers the find to be a 'bonanza' and much larger than expected, they might use that as a reason to abrogate the contractual terms. When we enter into a venture for which we feel there is, say, a onein-20 chance of finding commercial production, we must insist upon terms such that a successful venture would provide sufficient profit to pay for the 19 failed ventures \* \* \* that we expect to encounter enroute to this one discovery. If we are not allowed sufficient profits from the successes to pay for our failures, we will soon be out of the exploration business, and the world as well as our company will suffer as a result."

In many cases, the differing objectives of host governments and potential investors make agreement on contract terms inherently difficult and time consuming. Host governments often have strong political as well as commercial motivations and may want to avoid public appearances of weakness in dealing with foreign multinational companies. This problem appears to have been of particular importance in Peru, Brazil, Malaysia, and Chile. 1/

The terms of a country's laws and record of administering its laws are important preinvestment considerations. Although one major company we interviewed felt a need for bilateral treaties to protect private foreign investment and to provide procedures for resolving disputes arising under contracts and agreements covering such investments, others wanted no special help from the U.S. Government other than to simply refrain from creating new obstacles.

A number of companies also stated that the U.S. Government, specifically the State Department, had not been very helpful or supportive in the past when companies had been nationalized or otherwise came into confrontation with a foreign government. Socal,

 $<sup>\</sup>frac{1}{\text{See}}$  Accelerated Development of Oil and Gas Production in the Non-OPEC LDC's, DOE, Sept. 6, 1979.

on the other hand, said that it has had some good experiences with the State Department in recent years and feels that State has developed a more positive and effective attitude in dealing with U.S. companies overseas.

# Uncertainty of U.S. tax policies

Every U.S. oil company we visited also cited the uncertainty surrounding the U.S. foreign tax credit, and the potential loss of the credit altogether, as a major disincentive to foreign exploration. The past several years have brought a number of changes in U.S. tax laws and their interpretation concerning oil and gas extraction income. Currently, the primary issue involves whether payments to foreign governments are interpreted as being income taxes, which are creditable against U.S. income tax in order to prevent double taxation, or as being royalty payments, which are not creditable. Royalty payments are considered to be a business expense which, although they cannot be credited directly against U.S. taxes, can be deducted from revenue to reduce the company's net income subject to U.S. income tax. Treating a specific payment as a direct tax credit rather than a deductible business expense will result in a lower U.S. tax liability.

It is important that a company be able to project as accurately as possible its anticipated major cost elements when formulating a bid proposal or negotiating such matters as contract costs or terms with a government. Projected net profit, rate of return on investment, and discounted cash flow rate are all important to a company's decision whether or not to accept specific terms. Company spokesmen stressed the fact that these factors cannot be accurately projected when the U.S. Government keeps changing the rules. According to U.S. oil companies and various DOE studies, the uncertainty of U.S. foreign tax credit treatment complicated and delayed the negotiation and completion of exploration and development contracts by U.S. companies in many countries, including Peru, Bolivia, Guatemala, Indonesia, the Philippines, and Thailand.

A number of these countries, with the help of private U.S. consultants, had originally drawn up or revised their petroleum and/or mineral tax laws to conform with U.S. foreign tax credit requirements. Oil company officials said that many of these countries have expressed willingness to further revise their tax laws to conform with U.S. requirements if the U.S. Government would settle on what its requirements are going to be.

As uncertainty about U.S. foreign tax credit rules has delayed or otherwise affected U.S. company operations in the past, continued uncertainty or outright elimination of the credit may similarly affect future operations. Without complete access to corporate accounts, one cannot say for certain to what degree loss of the credit will change the petroleum industry's activities, but it is certain that profits from foreign operations would be reduced or the additional tax burden would be passed on to consumers.

To the extent that elimination of the foreign tax credit significantly reduces profits, it may be counterproductive to the goal of increasing petroleum exploration and production in non-OPEC LDCs where many economically marginal petroleum prospects are located and thus counterproductive to U.S. opportunities for future supply diversification.

A tandem concern is that the loss of the foreign tax credit might reduce the ability of U.S. companies to compete overseas, particularly against the enhanced competitive positions of the major oil companies of France, Germany, and Japan. The larger industrial powers have moved consistently over the last decade to provide direct incentives and eliminate disincentives for foreign exploration by their own oil companies. For example, France, Germany, and Japan either specifically or through a variety of special regulations and administrative practices effectively exempt their firms' foreign source petroleum income from any domestic taxes, irrespective of the form or rate of host-country taxation. 1/

Germany and Japan allow full deductions against domesticsource taxable income for overseas exploration outlays and provide loans for exploration which are forgiven if the venture is unsuccessful. Both countries also offer loan guarantees and some interest subsidies on the large sums involved in developing successful ventures. This permits much higher debt-equity ratios than prevail in the U.S. industry and, accordingly, significantly reduces the cost of capital to those firms. 1/

Some companies said they would abandon some current exploration projects if the foreign tax credit becomes unavailable. One major company said it would have to seriously consider withdrawing from foreign exploration altogether.

A more detailed analysis of the issues relating to the foreign tax credit and the proposed changes may be found in our report to the Congress, "The Foreign Tax Credit and U.S. Energy Policy" (EMD-80-86, Sept. 10, 1980).

# Excessive taxation by host governments

Company officials also cited excessive local taxation as a major disincentive to petroleum exploration. Some stated that their companies had avoided seeking opportunities in several countries because of high local taxes. Examples cited were Nigeria's 85-percent income tax rate and India's 63-percent rate. Usually, the high tax rate was not the sole reason cited for avoiding a specific

<sup>1/</sup>See "International Taxation of Oil Production: Some Current
Issues," Exploration and Economics of the Petroleum Industry,
T. R. Stauffer, 1978.

country; other disincentives were also present, but taxes were a factor in the equation. Other countries mentioned in this regard were the United Kingdom and Canada, both of which in the past had increased their taxes and toughened the financial terms of their concession contracts to the point that private investment and the exploration and discovery rates began to decline. Exploration by foreign companies had virtually stopped in Canada before the Canadian Government reversed itself and put together a program of incentives designed to increase exploration, especially in the frontier areas. The Province of Alberta also offered an incentive package. These programs were very successful in increasing exploration and discoveries.

# Limited access to prospective areas

Another reason a number of major prospective areas have not been explored or have not been fully explored is that private oil companies have been denied access to the areas. Several different causes have contributed to this situation.

## Exclusionary policies

Several major prospective oil producing countries have chosen to rely exclusively or almost exclusively on their own national oil companies for all petroleum exploration, production, and sales. Mexico is the primary example of this approach; its government nationalized private oil holdings in 1938 and all domestic oil operations since then have been managed by PEMEX, the state oil company. Private firms are occasionally used as service contractors but do not participate in any major way in investment decisions.

Although U.S. oil professionals are fairly unanimous in their respect for PEMEX's present capabilities, some pointed out that it has taken PEMEX a long time to reach its current level of proficiency. During its long learning period, petroleum exploration, discovery, and development in Mexico lagged far behind those countries where the major oil companies were permitted to operate.

But these policies are not always static. For example, Brazil, Argentina, and Chile followed a policy of total exclusion of foreign companies after the early 1950s. After world oil prices rose drastically in 1973-74, all three countries reversed these policies and tried to encourage foreign investment in order to accelerate the production of domestic oil resources. Their success in attracting private companies has been mixed, partly because of geological uncertainties, particularly in Chile, but also because of residual mistrust over the change in government policies and the need to establish new government/industry relationships.

A less severe form of exclusion is the restriction of acreage available to foreign companies or the reservation of the best

acreage for the state oil companies. The purpose of such policies is generally to give state oil companies an advantage over the competition in order to allow domestic oil industries to develop. Such exclusionary policies appear to be in effect in Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Bangladesh, Vietnam, the Philippines, Pakistan, and Italy and in the United Kingdom's North Sea. The effectiveness of these policies depends on the capabilities of the host countries' national oil companies, which, all too often, are limited.

# Boundary or territorial disputes

A number of promising areas have not been available for exploration because of territorial and/or boundary disputes. The prospect of commercial oil production often raises the value of the disputed area and thus complicates resolution of such problems. These problems have been particularly intractable to international resolution.

DOE  $\underline{1}/$  and other sources identified the following major problem areas.

- --The offshore areas extending from the Yellow Sea to the South China Sea is a patchwork of overlapping claims and concessions involving Japan, Korea, the People's Republic of China, Vietnam, the Philippines, Taiwan, and Malaysia. The State Department has warned companies that the United States will not protect operations in these disputed areas.
- -- The Gulf of Suez: Although Egypt and Israel have reached agreement on the Sinai oil fields, both countries claim sovereignty over the offshore areas in the southern part of the Gulf of Suez; both countries have exploration agreements with private companies for this area, but little exploration has been possible because of the dispute.
- -- The Falkland Islands, currently under United Kingdom sovereignty, are claimed by Argentina. Despite good geological potential, no activity can be expected until the dispute has been resolved.
- --Libya and Tunisia have a border dispute in a potentially productive offshore area.
- --Greece and Turkey have a dispute over the Northern Aegean Sea, another promising area.
- --Italy has unresolved boundary issues with France, Spain, Libya, Tunisia, Algeria, Yugoslavia, Albania, and Greece covering the major portion of the Mediterranean Sea.

<sup>1/</sup>See footnote 1 on p.65 .

Italy has delayed seeking resolution of most of these problems awaiting the outcome of the Law of the Sea Conference. Lack of resolution of legal jurisdiction over the Mediterranean continental shelf has undoubtedly retarded exploration there.

- -- The Barents Sea is disputed between the Soviet Union and Norway.
- --Malta and Libya have a boundary dispute in the Mediterranean Sea.

On the other hand, recent settlement of boundary disputes has opened for exploration (1) a large area west of Kyushu Island off Southwest Japan that had been subject to conflicting claims of South Korea and Japan and (2) the British side of the western approaches to the English Channel.

# Home government foreign policy

According to DOE, U.S. companies are precluded from returning to offshore exploration in Vietnam for foreign policy reasons. Before the war, several companies had been exploring there with some success. The United States has also embargoed the sale of U.S. equipment for use in Vietnam. Given the dominance of U.S. suppliers in the petroleum equipment industry, the embargo has hampered efforts of foreign companies, such as Bow Valley (Australia), AGIP (Italy), and Deminex (Germany), in Vietnam.

### LACK OF EXPORT POTENTIAL

The major oil companies generally seek access to crude oil supplies for their own markets, and lack of export prospects is a disincentive. This constraint is a major factor in some countries, particularly those which lack infrastructure (i.e., suitable roads, supply points, pipelines, and trained manpower). Small discoveries located far from ports, mines, or other good sites for export terminals may be considered uneconomical by the companies because of the higher costs of operations in these difficult environments.

Despite the lack of export potential, smaller finds might still have the potential of supplying a significant share of local oil needs. Such domestic oil production might displace a comparable volume of imported oil and thus have the same net beneficial impact on world oil balances as would additional export production.

Chad, the Congo Basin of Zaire, and the interior of Sudan are examples of LDCs that may have potential for significant production but whose export potential might not justify development because of difficult terrain and distances from possible export terminals.

Several South American countries, notably Brazil, Argentina, and Chile, are seeking oil development primarily for domestic consumption. Even attractive financial terms may be insufficient for companies seeking crude supplies rather than contract work.

### OBSERVATION

Diversification of foreign supply sources has been suggested as a possible means of reducing the adverse effects of foreign oil dependency. In our opinion, however, it is not a viable short-range strategy. On the other hand, there is potential for source diversification in the mid- to long-term (beyond 5 to 7 years from now), provided that new sources can be developed in countries that are currently nonproducers or low producers and that current producers outside the Middle East and North Africa, such as Mexico and the North Sea countries, continue to increase their export capacities.

The key to discovering and developing new oil production sources is the aggressive acceleration of worldwide petroleum exploration. This can be achieved only if obstacles to such exploration which have been raised by governments are removed or reduced. These obstacles include the expropriation of private assets when exploration is successful, excessive rates of taxation by host governments, an uncertain U.S. tax policy, and exclusionary host-government policies.

The executive and legislative branches will need to consider U.S. oil company operations in foreign countries as an issue to be factored into relationships with these countries. The United States should seek better understanding of the needs and concerns of both the companies and their potential host governments (especially LDCs). It should then seek through both bilateral and multilateral channels to favorably influence LDC government attitudes and policies concerning private investment in petroleum exploration and development. The United States should also explore ways of helping LDCs to increase the commercial viability for private development of small oil fields with little or no export potential--perhaps through such means as risk-sharing arrangements that could reduce the threshold of economic viability or through reciprocal tax agreements with the LDC government that would enable it to reduce its tax demands and again lower the breakeven point for the company.

# COUNTRY-BY-COUNTRY ASSESSMENT OF OBSTACLES TO ACCELERATED OIL PRODUCTION, AND ESSENTIAL INDICATORS1

Country	Active rigs, March 1979	Active companies	Investment obstacles	Comments
i. Net oil exporters:	100	Naca	Evelusianes, selleiae	Despite the ban on foreign investment in all and gas, Mexican capabilities or
Mexico	196	Amoco. Exxon. Deminex. Shell.	• •	and and evaluation and amounting are amounting register
Egypt	20	Mobil, others.	Mana	Egypt has consistantly offered attractive terms to layestors, and with the exception of the Gulf of Suzz dispute, production is rising rapidly.  Trinided has consistently offered attractive terms to investors and is one of the most densely drilled countries in the world.
Trinidad	17	Amoco, Texaco, Tesoro	NORT.	the most densely drilled countries in the world.
Malaysia/Brunet	21		ments, boundary dispute.	Exxos activity in Malaysia was disrupted in 1975 when the Government coverted to production-sharing. Agreement was reached in 1976 and the difficult period appears over.
Angola	6	Gulf, Texaco	Political instability	<ul> <li>Production declined drastically during the 1975/76 civil war, but oil operation have now resumed.</li> </ul>
TunislaBotivia	5 6	Shell, Elf/Aquitaine, others Occidental, Tesoro	Boundary dispute Political Instability, exclusionary policies, contract disagree- ments, lack of expert poten- tial.	<ul> <li>No significant problems other than the dispute with Libya.</li> <li>Basic government/industry disagreements persist, severely restricting the rat of exploration and development of new structures.</li> </ul>
Çongo	0	Elf, AGIP, Getty, others		<ul> <li>Despite an extreme government, the primary limitation on new production will be geology.</li> </ul>
Syria	14	Mobil, Marathon, others.	Restrictive policies, political instability.	The Government opened a substantial acreage to foreign investment in 1975 and some activity is underway Geological prospects, however, appeal limited.
Zaire	0	Gulf, Shell, Amoco	<ul> <li>Political instability, lack of ex- port potential.</li> </ul>	
I. Oil importers with very high			port potential.	SMINE DIGERMINES DI IRREA Sorairies liera sullitar (Grante) interest.
potential: Argentina	57	CEP, Deminex	Exclusionary policies, boundary dispute, lack of export poten-	Although geological prospects are favorable, Argentina has restricted foreig investment to a accordary role, offering only limited acreage and strict terms
Brezil	59	BP, Shell, Exxon, Elf, others	tial, political instability. Exclusionary policies, lack of ex-	Brezil has also restricted the role of foreign investment, offering limite
Chite	5	Phillips, Arco, Amerada Hess	port potential. Exclusionary policies, lack of ex-	acreage and strict terms.  Chile has also restricted the role of foreign investment, offering limited acreag
Colombia	12	Exxon, Occidental, Mobil, Tex- aco, others.	port potential. Contract disagreements, tack of export potential.	and strict terms.  Colombia's investment climate has been subject to frequent change based of internal political considerations. Prospects for identifying new structure are limited.
India	40	None	Exclusionary policies	India has elected to forego the higher development rates possible throug foreign investment and has chosen instead to rely on indigenous capabilities.
Peru	22	Occidental, others	Political instability, U.S. tax law,	Exploration and development have proceeded slowly as a result of straine industry/government relations.
Ched	1	Conoco	contract disagreements.  Political instability, lack of export potential.	Discoveries in the interior may not be economical for export, but might be use for domestic needs. The country faces civil strife in the capital and insurrection in the north.
Phillipines	13	Cities Service, Amoco, Shell, others.	Political instability, tack of ex- port potential, boundary dis- puts, contract disagreements.	
Theiland	2	Shell, Exxon, others	hate' countert good security.	Activity is significant, but exploration in the Gulf of Thailand has yielde primarily gas.
Vietnam	2	AGIP, Deminex, others	Political instability, boundary disputes, U.S. fereign policy.	Exploration in offshore areas has resumed, but is severally hampered by local
Niger	5	Exxon, Texaco, Elf/Aquitaine,	disputes, c.o. reveille bouck.	warfers and U.S. restrictions. Exploration activity is high, and prospects are good.
. Net Oil Importers with High Poten	rtial	athers.	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	The second advent of a new Confet necessary and sentimed pivil strife time
Afghaitistan	0	None	Exclusionary policies, political instability.	The recent advent of a pro-Soviet government and continued civil strife lim the potential for new exploration. At least one U.S. company is holdin discussions with the Government, and future activity cannot be ruled out. The Soviets have an active gas operation in the north.
Bangladesh Turkey	2 13			Seismic exploration is underway with a recent large gas discovery. Significant exploration is underway. Some promising areas in the Aegean are under dispute with Greece.
Cameroon	3	Mobil, Shell, Gulf, CFP, others EH/Aquitaine, Texaco, Amoco, Getty, others.		
GhansLebanon	0	Phillips, AGIP, Getty, ethers	Political instability	The civil war precludes activity.
Suden	ž	Social	Lack of export potential	Sudan has consistently offered attractive terms to investors, Resource poten tigl in the interior may not be economical for export.
Yemen, Peoples' Demo- cratic Republic.	0	None	Exclusionary policies, political instability.	No foreign investment has yet been permitted.

<sup>1</sup> From Department of Energy Sept. 6, 1979, report: Accelerated Development of Oil and Gas Production in Non-OPEC Countries.

### APPENDIX II

# OPEC MEMBERS

Country	Date of membership
Algeria	1969
Ecuador	1973
Gabon	1973 (Associate)
	1975 (Full membership)
Indonesia	1962
Iran	1960
Iraq	1960
Kuwait	1960
Libya	1962
Nigeria	1971
Qatar	1961
Saudi Arabia	1960
United Arab Emirates	1974
Venezuela	1960
(Abu Dhabi)	1967 (Membership transferred to United Arab Emirates in 1974)

# OAPEC MEMBERS (note a)

Algeria
Bahrain
Egypt (note b)
Iraq ,
Kuwait
Libya
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Syria
United Arab Emirates

 $\underline{a}/\text{OAPEC}$  was established in 1968 by these countries.  $\underline{b}/\text{Egypt}$  was a member until Apr. 1979.

# U.S. CRUDE IMPORTS BY COUNTRY OF ORIGIN 1978

	·	ousands of barrels anked in order)	Percent
	Saudi Arabia Nigeria Libya Algeria Iran	414,474 326,656 229,363 225,188 198,500	18.22 14.36 10.10 9.90 8.72
8. 9.	Indonesia United Arab Emirates Mexico Canada Venezuela	181,837 138,100 115,428 89,875 64,185	7.99 6.07 5.07 3.95 2.82
12. 13. +*14.	United Kingdom Trinidad Norway Qatar Iraq	60,554 51,509 38,327 22,806 22,211	2.66 2.26 1.68 1.00 0.98
*18.	Oman Ecuador Gabon Malaysia Egypt	21,640 14,015 13,841 13,113 7,395	0.95 0.62 0.61 0.58 0.33
	Peru Tunisia Congo (Brazzaville) Syria Angola	6,584 4,338 3,454 2,530 2,290	0.29 0.19 0.15 0.11
26. +*27. 28. 29. 30.	Brunei Kuwait Cameroon Chile Netherlands	2,058 1,718 885 584 478	0.09 0.08 0.04 0.03 0.02
31. 32. 33.	Bolivia U.S.S.R. Zaire	308 276 263	$ \begin{array}{r} 0.01 \\ 0.01 \\ 0.01 \end{array} $
	TOTAL	2,274,783	100.00

<sup>+</sup> OAPEC Countries

Source: Department of Energy

<sup>\*</sup> OPEC Countries

# PETROLEUM PRODUCING COUNTRIES AS OF 1978

		Total		
	Major	wells	Discover	y dates
Country	fields	(note a)	First	Last
Abu Dhabi	9	240	1960	1971
Algeria	43	1,282	1956	1974
Angola	11	248	1966	1975
Argentina	10	6,020	1907	1969
Australia	7	407	1961	1969
Austria	14	1,531	1938	1976
Bahrain	1	260	1932	-
Barbados	2	23	1966	_
Bolivia	12	286	1927	1976
Brazil	21	2,230	1941	1973
Brunei	6	792	1929	1970
Burma	5	439	1902	1970
Cameroon	1	13	1974	
Canada	24	25,800	1913	1965
Chile	11	670	1950	1962
Colombia	27	2,370	1918	1976
Congo	3	151	1957	1972
Denmark	1	18	1971	-
Divided Zone	7	455	1953	1969
Dubai	2	80	1966	1970
Ecuador	7	1,028	1921	1970
Egypt	25	502	1938	1977
France	12	409	1949	1974
Gabon	19	310	1956	1973
Ghana _	1	6	1977	1977
Guatemala	3	4	1972	1977
India	19	1,600	1890	1974
Indonesia	111	8,112	1893	1976
Iran	37	752	1908	1974
Israel	3	26	1963	1977
Iraq	14	250+	1909	1973
Italy	5	204	1954	1973 1972
Japan	5	743	1958	
Kuwait	8	586	1938	1963
Libya	38	1,492	1959	1978
Malaysia	11	188	1911	1975 1978
Mexico	84	3,507	1901	19/0
Morocco	1	23	1957 1943	1957
The Netherlands	5	648		T 3 2 /
New Zealand	1	11	1959	<del></del>

Country	Major <u>fields</u>	Total wells	<u>Discovery</u> <u>First</u>	<u>dates</u> <u>Last</u>
Nigeria	125	1,627	1958	1976
Norway	4	51	1968	1970
Oman	10	312	1963	1975
Pakistan	5	17	1937	1968
Peru	17	7,103	1869	1977
Philippines	1	5	1977	1977
Qatar	4	105	1940	1970
Republic of China	3	91	1959	1971
Saudi Arabia	15	1,228	1938	1971
Sharjah	1	4	1972	-
Spain	3	32	1964	1972
Syria	3 5 1	476	1956	1974
Thailand	1	18	1963	-
Trinidad - Tobago	20	8,301	1903	1974
Tunisia	5	107	1964	1972
Turkey	21	496	1940	1974
United Kingdom	10	180	1955	1974
United States	195	b/508,340	1859	1978
U.S.S.R.	17	21,790	1948	1973
Venezuela	64	21,774	1914	1963
West Germany	35	2,993	1899	1969
Zaire	2	13	1970	1973

 $<sup>\</sup>underline{a}$ / Includes shut-in wells.

Source: World Petroleum Encyclopedia Oil and Gas Journal, Dec. 31. 1979

 $<sup>\</sup>underline{b}$ / Only producing wells.

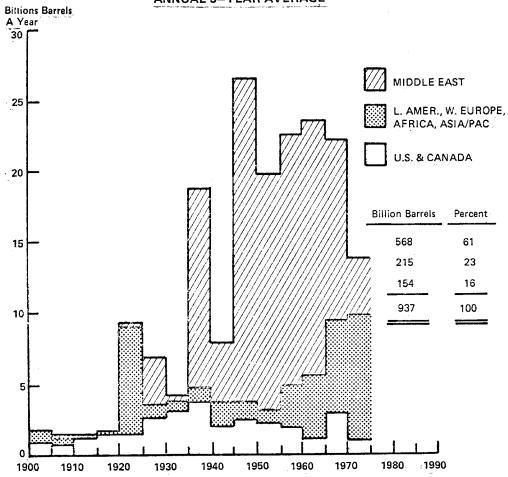
# WORLD ESTIMATED PROVED OIL RESERVES IN DESCENDING ORDER

	Estimated	Producing	Estimated	Percent change
	proved reserves	wells	1979	from
Country or area	Jan. 1, 1980	July 1, 1979	production	1978
	(1,000 bbl		(1,000  bpd)	
	1.00 000 000	=0-		.3.4.0
Saudi Arabia	163,350,000	725	9,250.0	+14.8
U.S.S.R. Kuwait	67,000,000 65,400,000	NA 590	11,670.0 2,210.0	+ 2.1 +18.6
Iran	58,000,000	5 <b>4</b> 7	2,900.0	<b>-44.3</b>
Mexico	31,250,000	4,200	1,490.0	+23.4
Iraq	31,000,000	250	3,370.0	+28.2
Abu Dhabi	28,000,000	250	1,450.0	720.2
United States	26,500,000	508,000	8,650.0	- 0.2
Libya	23,500,000	896	2,050.0	+ 2.9
China	20,000,000	NA	2,100.0	+ 7.2
Venezuela	17,870,000	12,486	2,330.0	+ 7.7
Nigeria	17,400,000	1,457	2,370.0	+24.1
United Kingdom	15,400,000	240	1,570.0	+21.4
Indonesia	9,600,000	3,823	1,600.0	- 2.4
Algeria	8,440,000	970	1,240.0	+ 1.2
Canada	6,800,000	18,323	1,480.0	+11.8
Neutral Zone	6,260,000	423	560.0	+20.2
Norway	5,750,000	50	390.0	+11.2
Qatar	3,760,000	95	480.0	+ 2.4
Egypt	3,100,000	432	500.0	+ 3.3
Other communist*	3,000,000	NA	370.0	- 2.6
Malaysia	2,800,000	227	270.0	+22.7
India	2,600,000	1,600	240.0	+ 6.7
Argentina	2,400,000	6,424	470.0	+ 2.6
Oman	2,400,000	254	290.0	- 7 <b>.9</b>
Tunisia	2,250,000	63	105.0	+ 5.0
Australia	2,130,000	370	440.0	+ 1.9
Syria	2,000,000	513	165.0	- 2.9
Brunei	1,800,000	592	255.0	+13.6
Dubai	1,400,000	79	360.0	
Brazil	1,220,000	1,605	165.0	+ 3.1
Angola-Cabinda	1,200,000	176	143.0	+ 9.2
Ecuador	1,100,000	472	220.0	+ 8.9
Colombia	710,000	2,111	125.0	- 4.6
Trinidad & Tobago		3,323	215.0	- 7.3
Peru	655,000	2,766	195.0	+27.5
Italy	645,000	121	33.0	+10.0
Gabon	500,000	218	192.0	-14.7
West Germany	480,000	2,945	95.0	- 4.0
Chile	400,000	431	18.0	. ~ ~
Congo Republic	400,000	113	57.0	+72.7
Denmark	375,000	18	12.0	+20.0
Yugoslavia	275,000	NA 222	70.0	-12.5 - 5.7
Bahrain	240,000	233	50.0	- 5.7

				Percent
	Estimated	Producing	Estimated	change
	proved reserves	wells	1979	from
Country	Jan. 1, 1980	July 1, 1979	production	1978
<del></del>	(1,000 bbl)		(1,000  bpd)	<del> </del>
				_
Pakistan	200,000	18	11.0	+10.0
Bolivia	150,000	180	30.0	- 9.1
Greece	150,000	-	_	
Spain	150,000	27	15.0	-16.7
Austria	141,400	1,254	36.0	+ 2.9
Cameroon	140,000	29	32.0	+200.0
Zaire	135,000	11	21.0	+ 5.0
Turkey	125,000	402	56.0	+12.0
New Zealand	110,000	17	16.0	+23.1
Netherlands	60,000	473	25.0	-16.7
Japan	55,000	507	10.0	_
France	50,000	293	20.0	
Burma	25,000	445	30.0	+20.0
Philippines	25,000	5	15.0	
Guatemala	16,000	1	1.6	_
Sharjah	11,300	4	15.0	-31.8
Taiwan	10,200	80	5.0	-
Ghana	7,000	6	3.5	_
Barbados	1,500	31	0.8	
<pre>Israel (note a)</pre>	1,000	16	30.0	+172.7
Morocco	100	1	0.5	
TOTAL	641,623,500	582,211 +	62,588.4	+ 3.6
Total Asia	19,355,200	7,684	2,892.0	+ 2.8
West Europe	23,476,400	5,421	2,266.0	+29.6
Middle East	361,947,300	4,381	21,186.0	+ 0.2
Africa	57,072,100	4,372	6,714.0	+ 9.5
Latin America				
& Carribean	56,472,500	34,030	5,260.4	
w/U.S. & Can.	89,772,500	560,353	15,390.4	+ 4.3
.,	- > 1 - 1 - 1 - 4	,	-,	
Communist	90,000,000	NA	14,140.0	+ 2.5

a/Includes Sinai fields returned to Egypt in late 1979.
Source: Oil and Gas Journal, Dec. 31, 1979.

# FREE WORLD OIL DISCOVERY HISTORY ANNUAL 5-YEAR AVERAGE



SOURCE: EXXON

(468610/468650)

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