

Reservoir Optimisation and Economic Model Analysis During the Oil Exploration Project in Upstream, Midstream and Downstream Operations

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Abstract- Financial and economic evaluation performs a critical function in funding decision-making throughout the oil and gasoline price chain, in which projects are characterised by high capital intensity, lengthy life cycles, and enormous market and regulatory uncertainty. This paper examines the financial and economic characteristics of oil and gas projects throughout the 3 primary sectors—upstream, midstream, and downstream—highlighting how chance exposure, cash-go with the flow shape, and cost drivers fluctuate at every stage. within the upstream quarter, challenge evaluation is ruled by way of exploration chance, reserve uncertainty, oil rate volatility, and financial regimes, requiring the utility of discounted coins-float evaluation, probabilistic modelling, and sensitivity evaluation to decide viability. Midstream initiatives, in assessment, show off enormously solid and predictable cash flows supported by using long-time period transportation and processing contracts, transferring the analytical attention towards capital healing, financing structure, tariff law, and credit threat. Downstream tasks emphasise margin optimisation, operational efficiency, and call for dynamics, with monetary overall performance intently related to product rate spreads, potential utilisation, and environmental compliance fees. with the aid of relatively analysing capital expenditure profiles, operating costs, revenue stability, and chance elements throughout all 3 sectors, this study provides an integrated framework for evaluating undertaking profitability, resilience, and strategic suitability in an unstable and transitioning

power marketplace. The findings underscore the importance of region-specific financial equipment and incorporate financial planning to enhance fee management and opportunity management in oil and gas investments.

Keywords:- Oil And Gas Economics; Upstream, Midstream and Downstream Analysis; Capital Expenditure (CAPEX); Cash Flow Modelling; Project Valuation; Risk and Uncertainty; Energy Investment Analysis; Price Volatility; Financial Performance; Energy Transition

I. INTRODUCTION

In the oil and gas industry, upstream, midstream, and downstream describe the three main segments of the value chain. From finding crude oil to delivering finished products to consumers. Upstream involves the search for and extraction of crude oil and natural gas, midstream deals with transporting and storing these resources, and downstream processes them into usable products for consumers. It is important to know about these different parts to understand how operations work, how well companies perform economically, and how decisions are made in the energy industry.

Segment	Main Role	Risk Level	Capital Intensity	Revenue Stability
Upstream	Exploration and production of crude oil and natural gas	High – due to geological uncertainty, drilling failure, and crude oil price volatility	Very High – requires heavy investment in seismic surveys, drilling rigs, and field development	Low revenues fluctuate significantly with global oil and gas prices
Midstream	Transportation, storage, and processing of hydrocarbons	Medium – operational and regulatory risks exist, but limited exposure to price swings	High – large investments in pipelines, LNG terminals, and storage facilities	High stable cash flows from long-term, fee-based transportation contracts
Downstream	Refining, marketing, and	Low – demand is relatively stable and	Medium – capital required for refineries,	Medium – revenues depend on refining

	distribution of petroleum products	less exposed to exploration risk	retail networks, and logistics	margins, demand conditions, and regulations
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Table 1:- Main segmentation between Upstream, Midstream and Downstream operations

So, for this Economic and financial analysis is essential for assessing the feasibility and profitability of oil and gas projects across upstream, midstream, and downstream operations. In the upstream segment, analysis focuses on high-risk, capital-intensive activities such as exploration and production, where project viability is evaluated using reservoir estimates, production forecasts, oil price scenarios, breakeven analysis, and discounted cash flow techniques like NPV and IRR, while accounting for fiscal terms and price volatility. The midstream segment emphasises transportation and storage economics, with financial evaluation centred on

throughput capacity, tariff structures, capital recovery, and stable cash flows generated through long-term, fee-based contracts, making debt financing and cash flow stability key considerations. In the downstream segment, economic and financial analysis concentrates on refining and marketing margins, demand forecasting, cost optimisation, and working capital management, with profitability driven by refining spreads, market conditions, and regulatory compliance. Together, these analyses support informed investment decisions, risk management, and strategic planning across the oil and gas value chain.

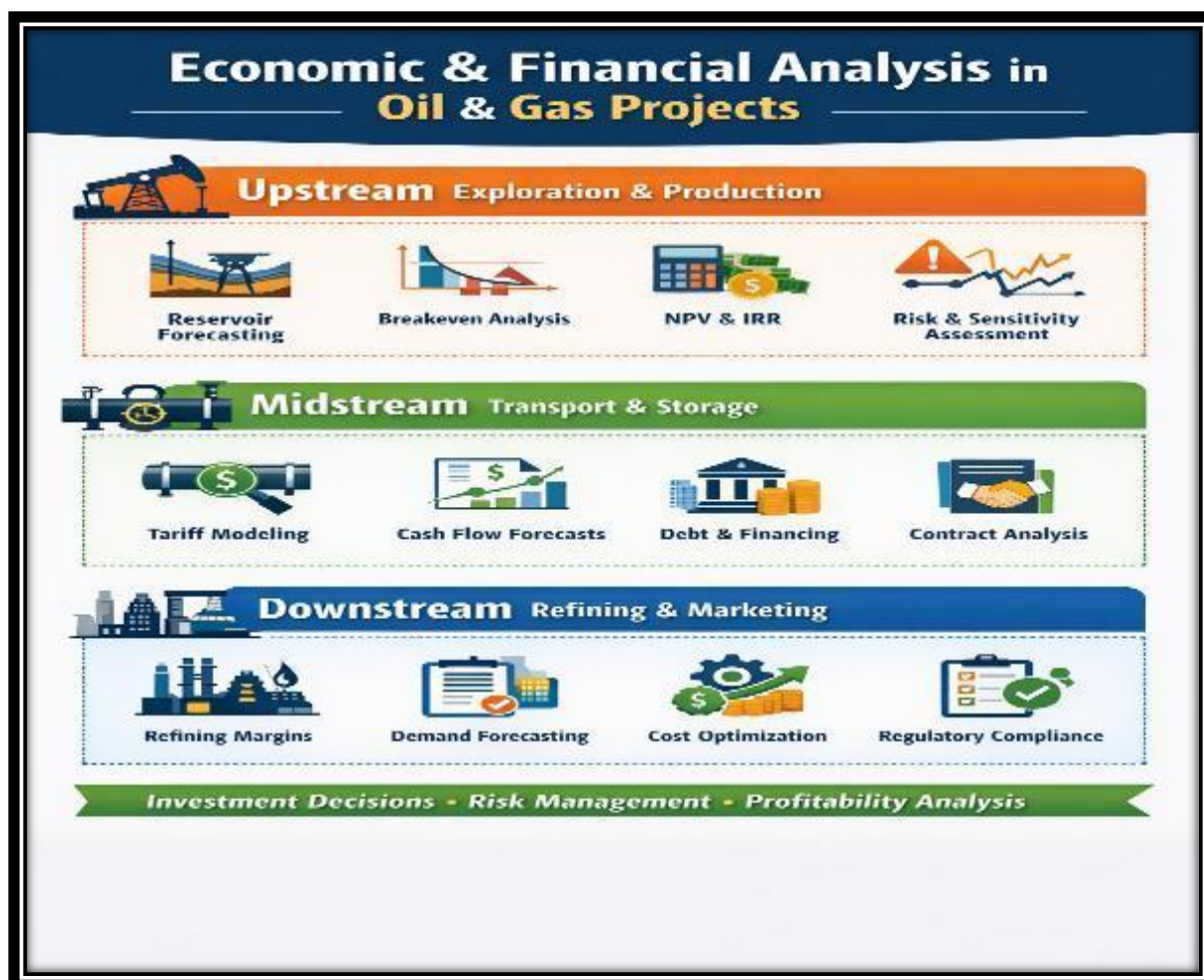


Fig 1:- Economic and Financial analysis in Oil and Gas project in three different sectors of the the Oil field

Operational Stages and Cash Flow Characteristics in Oil & Gas Projects (Table 2)

Sector	Operational Stage	Key Activities	Capital Expenditure (CAPEX)	Operating Expenditure (OPEX)	Revenue / Cash Flow Pattern
Upstream	Exploration	Seismic surveys, geological studies, and exploratory drilling	Very High (negative cash flow)	Low–Medium	No revenue; high financial risk
	Appraisal	Reserve estimation, appraisal drilling, and feasibility studies	High (negative cash flow)	Medium	No revenue; uncertainty reduces
	Development	Field development, production wells, platforms, FPSOs	Very High (peak negative cash flow)	Medium	No or minimal revenue
	Production	Oil & gas extraction, processing, lifting	Low (sunk CAPEX)	Medium–High	Strong positive cash flow; price-sensitive
	Abandonment	Plugging wells, site restoration	Medium (negative cash flow)	Low	No revenue; regulatory obligation
Midstream	Planning & Design	Route selection, permits, and engineering design	Medium (negative cash flow)	Low	No revenue
	Construction	Pipelines, terminals, storage tanks, LNG facilities	High (negative cash flow)	Low–Medium	No revenue
	Commissioning	Testing, startup, system integration	Low	Medium	Minimal revenue
	Operations	Transportation, storage, compression, LNG handling	Low (maintenance CAPEX)	Medium	Stable, tariff-based positive cash flow
	Expansion / Upgrade	Capacity enhancement, debottlenecking	Medium	Medium	Incremental revenue
Downstream	Project Planning	Market studies, refinery configuration, approvals	Medium (negative cash flow)	Low	No revenue
	Construction	Refinery units, petrochemical plants, retail infrastructure	Very High (negative cash flow)	Low	No revenue
	Commissioning	Trial runs, calibration, quality control	Low	Medium	Limited revenue
	Operations	Refining, marketing, distribution, retail sales	Low–Medium	High	Continuous positive cash flow; margin-driven

	Modernization	Energy efficiency, emission control, digitalization	Medium	Medium	Improves margins and cash flow stability
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Upstream projects exhibit deep and risky cash-flow troughs with high upside potential, midstream projects offer stable annuity-like returns, while downstream projects generate continuous but margin-sensitive cash flows.

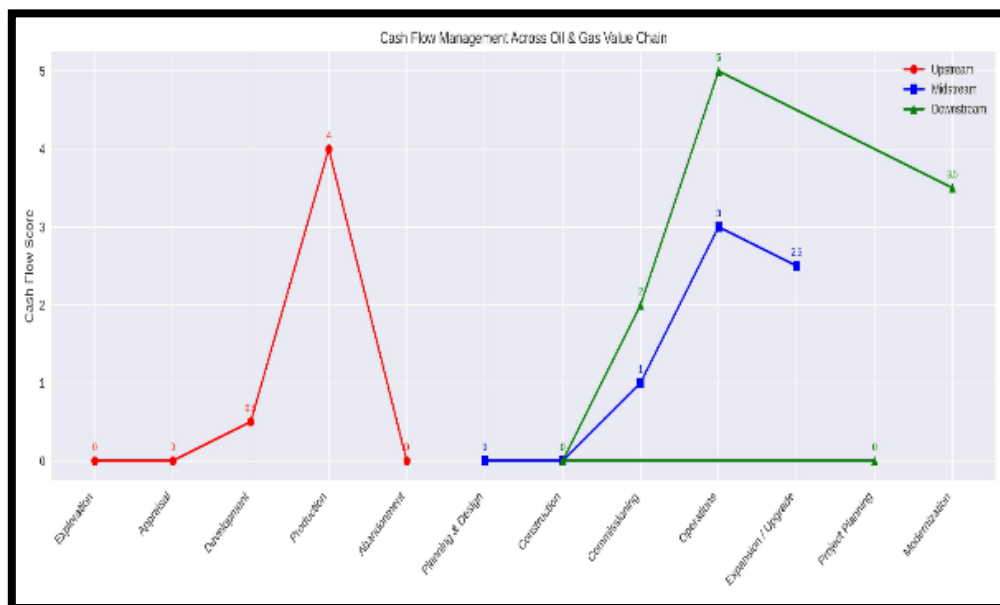


Fig 2 :- Cash flow management system across oil and gas chain

From the above graph, □ Upstream (red line): Cash flow stays near zero until Production, where it spikes to a strong positive, then drops again at Abandonment.

□ Midstream (blue line): Gradual rise from zero to stable tariff-based flows during Operations, with incremental gains on Expansion/Upgrade.

□ Downstream (green line):- Sharp rise to continuous positive cash flow in Operations, followed by stabilisation at Modernisation (3.5).

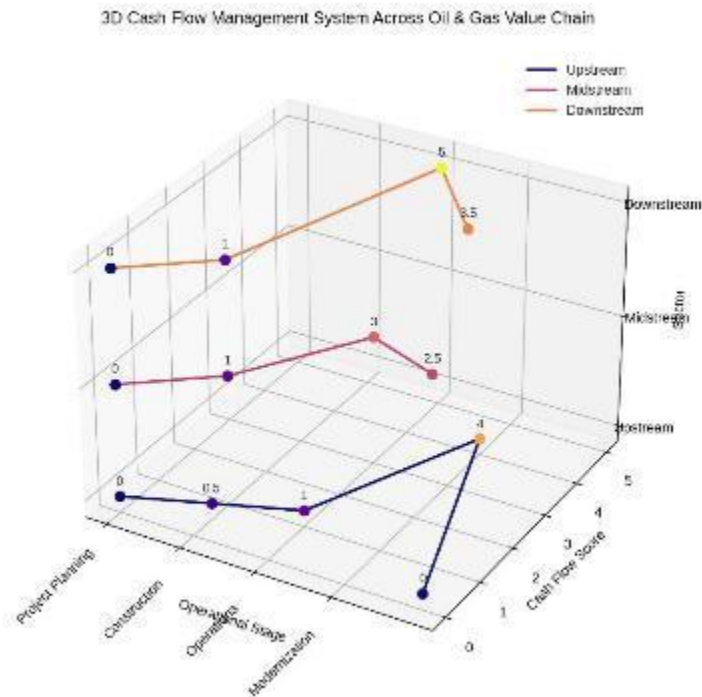


Fig 3 :- 3D visualization of “Cash flow management system” in oil and gas industry

From the 3D graph , □ Upstream (Z=0): Starts at 0 in Exploration, peaks at 4 in Production, then drops back to 0 at Abandonment.

□ Midstream (Z=1): Rises from 0 in Planning to 3 in Operations, with incremental gains at Expansion/Upgrade (2.5).

□ Downstream (Z=2): Begins at 0 in Project Planning, peaks at 5 in Operations, and stabilises at 3.5 in Modernisation.

Cash flow equations by sector: -

Piecewise equation:

$$C_{up}(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & 0 \leq t \leq 2 \\ 0.5 + \frac{(4-0.5)}{(3-2)}(t-2) & 2 < t \leq 3 \\ 4 + \frac{(0-4)}{(4-3)}(t-3) & 3 < t \leq 4 \end{cases}$$

• Midstream stages and equation: -Stages: Planning ($t = 0$), Construction ($t = 1$), Commissioning ($t = 2$), Operations ($t = 3$), Expansion/Upgrade ($t = 4$)

• Scores: [0, 0, 1, 3, 2.5]

Piecewise equation:

Below are simple piecewise-linear equations that approximate the cash flow score as a function of stage index for each sector. Let t be the stage index starting at 0 for the first stage in each sector.

Upstream stages and equation:-

• Stages: Exploration ($t = 0$), Appraisal ($t = 1$), Development ($t = 2$), Production ($t = 3$), Abandonment ($t = 4$)

• Scores: [0, 0, 0.5, 4, 0]

$$C_{\text{mid}}(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & 0 \leq t \leq 1 \\ 0 + \frac{(1-0)}{(2-1)}(t-1) & 1 < t \leq 2 \\ 1 + \frac{(3-1)}{(3-2)}(t-2) & 2 < t \leq 3 \\ 3 + \frac{(2.5-3)}{(4-3)}(t-3) & 3 < t \leq 4 \end{cases}$$

Downstream stages and equation: -

- Stages: Project Planning ($t = 0$), Construction ($t = 1$), Commissioning ($t = 2$), Operations ($t = 3$), Modernisation ($t = 4$)

- Scores: [0, 0, 2, 5, 3.5]

Piecewise equation:

$$C_{\text{down}}(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & 0 \leq t \leq 1 \\ 0 + \frac{(2-0)}{(2-1)}(t-1) & 1 < t \leq 2 \\ 2 + \frac{(5-2)}{(3-2)}(t-2) & 2 < t \leq 3 \\ 5 + \frac{(3.5-5)}{(4-3)}(t-3) & 3 < t \leq 4 \end{cases}$$

Interpretation: $C(t)$ is the cash flow score (0–5). Each segment linearly interpolates between adjacent stage points.

For any two consecutive stages with values (t_1, C_1) and (t_2, C_2) , the cash flow score is calculated as:

$$C(t) = C_1 + \frac{C_2 - C_1}{t_2 - t_1} \cdot (t - t_1), t_1 \leq t \leq t_2$$

- t = stage index (0, 1, 2, ...)
- $C(t)$ = cash flow score at stage t
- C_1, C_2 = cash flow scores at the endpoints of the segment

The equations we derived — whether piecewise linear or smoothed polynomial fits — reveal the financial dynamics of each sector in the oil & gas value chain:

- Upstream: -
 - Equation shows long flat segments at zero, then a sharp spike at production.
 - Conclusion: Upstream cash flow is highly volatile, with long negative/neutral phases followed by a short burst of strong revenue. This reflects high risk and dependency on successful production.
- Midstream: -
 - Equation rises steadily, then stabilises with only a slight decline.
 - Conclusion: Midstream cash flow is more predictable and stable, driven by infrastructure operations. The polynomial fit confirms a smoother growth curve compared to upstream.
- Downstream: -

- Equation rises quickly to a peak, then moderates at modernisation.
- Conclusion: Downstream offers the most continuous and resilient cash flow, with strong operational margins and stabilisation through modernisation investments.

Overall Insight

The equations mathematically confirm what the industry experiences in practice:

- Upstream = high risk, episodic returns
- Midstream = steady, infrastructure-driven stability
- Downstream = continuous, margin-driven resilience

This means that balancing investments across all three sectors is critical: upstream discoveries fuel midstream transport, which in turn supports downstream refining and retail.

Strategic Positioning by Sector

- Upstream (high risk, episodic returns): The equation shows long flat periods at zero cash flow, followed by a sharp spike at production and a collapse at abandonment. This confirms upstream is capital-intensive and volatile, requiring patience and risk tolerance.

- **Midstream** (steady infrastructure-driven stability): The polynomial fit rises smoothly, stabilises, and only slightly declines. This reflects predictable, tariff-based revenues and lower volatility. Equations confirm midstream is the cash flow stabiliser in the value chain.
- **Downstream** (continuous, margin-driven resilience): The curve rises quickly to a peak and moderates at modernisation. This indicates sustained positive cash flow with resilience against market swings. Downstream is the anchor of profitability.

Overall Conclusion

The mathematical equations validate the industry's financial reality:

- Upstream = risk-heavy, episodic cash flow
- Midstream = steady, infrastructure-backed stability
- Downstream = continuous, resilient profitability

Together, they form a balanced portfolio: upstream discoveries fuel midstream transport, which supports downstream refining and retail.

Risk vs. Return Positioning: -

- **Upstream (High Risk, Episodic Returns):**
 - Risk axis: Very high due to exploration uncertainty and abandonment costs.

- Return axis: Strong but short-lived during production.
- Position: Top-right quadrant (high risk, high reward).

- **Midstream (Moderate Risk, Stable Returns):**
 - Risk axis: Moderate, tied to infrastructure investment and regulatory frameworks.
 - Return axis: Stable, tariff-based revenues with incremental growth.
 - Position: Middle zone (balanced risk-return).
- **Downstream (Low Risk, Continuous Returns):**
 - Risk axis: Lowest, as refining and retail generate steady margins.
 - Return axis: Continuous, resilient profitability, especially with modernisation.
 - Position: Bottom-right quadrant (low risk, strong continuous returns).

Conclusion

The equations and chart confirm that:

- Upstream is the growth engine, but volatile.
- Midstream stabilises cash flow through infrastructure.
- Downstream anchors profitability with resilience.

Together, they form a strategic portfolio where risk and return are balanced across the value chain.



Fig 4: Comparative risk vs. return chart in the oil and gas sector

II. AIM OF THE STUDY

The primary aim of this study is to enhance financial stability in oil and gas companies by developing a comprehensive economic and financial analysis

framework across the upstream, midstream, and downstream sectors. The study seeks to identify sector-specific cost structures, cash-flow patterns, and risk exposures, and to evaluate how informed investment appraisal, efficient capital allocation, and

risk management strategies can improve profitability, resilience, and long-term financial sustainability in a volatile and transitioning energy market.

Objectives of the Study: -

- To analyse the economic and financial characteristics of oil and gas projects across the upstream, midstream, and downstream sectors.
- To examine capital expenditure (CAPEX), operating expenditure (OPEX), and cash-flow patterns at different operational stages of oil and gas projects.
- To evaluate the impact of oil price volatility, market uncertainty, and regulatory frameworks on project profitability and financial performance.
- To apply project appraisal tools such as NPV, IRR, payback period, and sensitivity analysis for assessing investment viability in each sector.
- To identify key risk factors affecting financial stability and assess suitable risk mitigation and hedging strategies.
- To assess the role of efficient capital allocation and financing structures in improving cash-flow stability and returns.
- To examine how operational efficiency and margin optimisation contribute to sustained profitability, particularly in midstream and downstream operations.
- To provide a sector-integrated framework that supports strategic decision-making and enhances the long-term financial stability of oil and gas companies under energy market volatility and transition pressures.

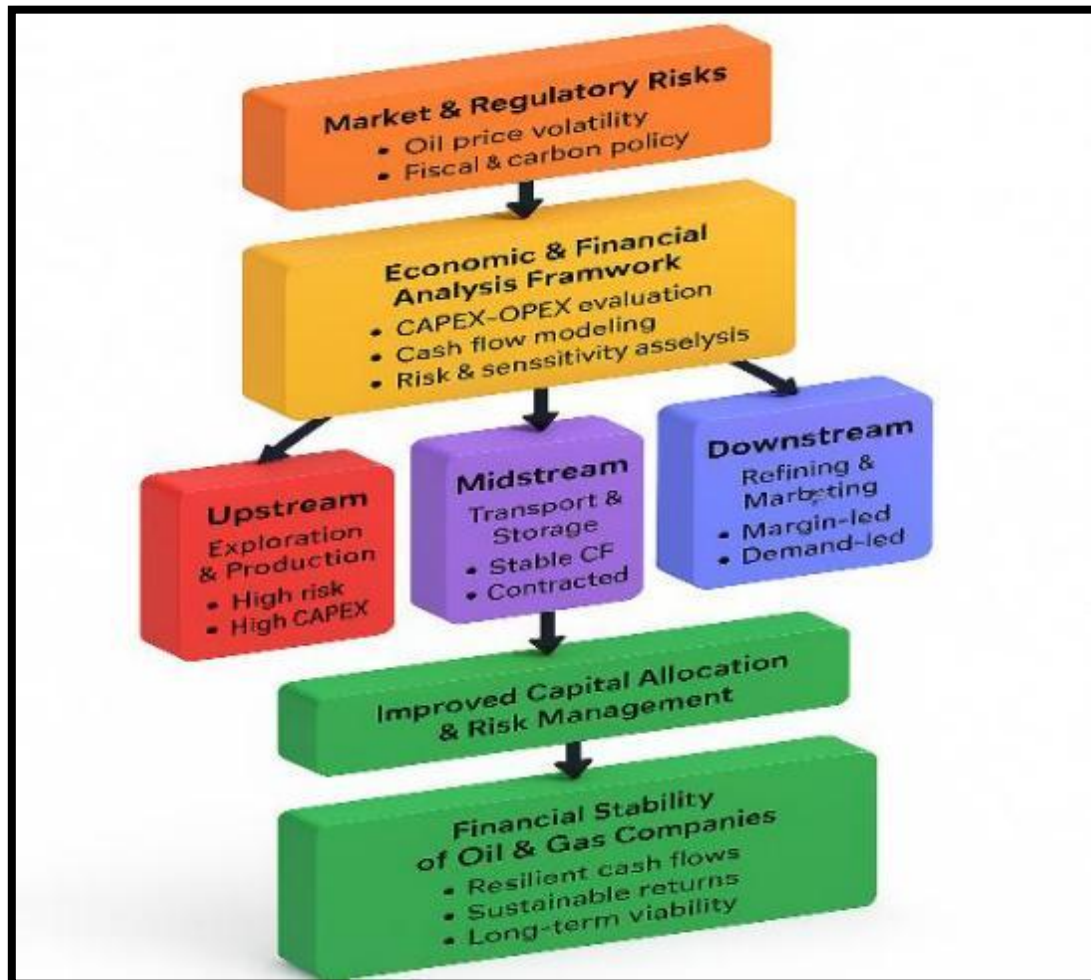


Fig 5 :-3D diagram illustrating the full financial and operational flow in the oil & gas industry — from market risks to financial stability

III. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Background of the study:-The oil and gas industry provides a compelling empirical setting for analysing

corporate bankruptcy through the lens of financial distress and capital structure theory. Characterized by extreme capital intensity, irreversible investments, and highly volatile commodity prices, oil firms are particularly vulnerable to leverage-induced financial distress. According to the trade-off theory of capital structure, firms balance the tax benefits of debt against expected bankruptcy costs; however, many oil companies systematically exceed optimal leverage during periods of high oil prices. When prices decline, revenues contract rapidly while fixed operating and financing costs remain rigid, precipitating liquidity shortages and default risk. Pecking order theory further explains the industry's reliance on debt financing, as equity issuance during

uncertain price environments is costly and dilutive. These financing choices are reinforced by agency problems, where managers may pursue riskier investment strategies to preserve equity value at the expense of creditors. At a macro level, Minsky's Financial Instability Hypothesis suggests that prolonged price booms encourage speculative financing structures, which become unsustainable following external shocks. Consequently, repeated oil price collapses have triggered widespread bankruptcies and restructurings, highlighting the need for financially resilient capital structures in an increasingly volatile and transition-constrained energy market.

Major Oil Company Bankruptcies and Key Causes (Table 3)

Company	Country / Region	Segment	Year (Approx.)	Primary Reasons for Bankruptcy	Corporate Finance Interpretation
Chesapeake Energy	USA	Upstream (E&P)	2020	Excessive debt, shale overexpansion, oil & gas price collapse	Over-leverage beyond optimal capital structure (Trade-off theory)
Whiting Petroleum	USA	Upstream (E&P)	2020	Low oil prices, high breakeven costs, weak cash flows	Cash-flow volatility & financial distress
Ultra Petroleum	USA	Upstream (E&P)	2016 / 2020	Natural gas price crash, repeated restructuring	Persistent distress, failure to deleverage
Samson Resources	USA	Upstream (E&P)	2015	Debt-financed acquisitions, shale downturn	Agency problems, risky growth strategy
Venoco	USA	Upstream (E&P)	2017	Declining production, regulatory pressure, debt	Rising bankruptcy costs, asset rigidity
Weatherford International	USA	Oilfield Services	2019	Heavy leverage, reduced drilling activity	Cyclicality risk, dependence on upstream CAPEX
McDermott International	USA	EPC / Services	2020	Project overruns, cost inflation, debt	Operational risk amplifying financial leverage
Seadrill	Global	Offshore Drilling	2017	Offshore cost collapse, high capex, debt	Capital intensity & demand shock
Petroplus	Switzerland	Downstream (Refining)	2012	Thin refining margins, high operating costs	Low-margin business with high fixed costs

Lindsey Oil Refinery (Prax Group)	UK	Downstream	2025	Insolvency of parent firm, weak refining economics	Downstream margin compression
Yukos Oil Company	Russia	Integrated	2007	Tax claims, political intervention, asset seizure	Political risk overriding firm fundamentals
Hin Leong Trading	Singapore	Oil Trading	2020	Hidden losses, failed hedging, governance failure	Risk management failure & leverage
ATP Oil & Gas	USA	Offshore Upstream	2016	Cost overruns, financing constraints	Irreversible investment & debt mismatch

Most oil company bankruptcies are driven by a combination of high leverage, volatile revenues, and rigid cost structures, consistent with financial distress theory, trade-off theory, and Minsky's instability hypothesis. Upstream and oilfield service companies are structurally more exposed than midstream firms due to weaker cash-flow stability.

Building on insights from bankruptcy theory and corporate finance, this paper aims to move beyond post-failure analysis and instead propose proactive strategies to prevent financial distress in oil and gas companies. The study focuses on strengthening firm-level financial resilience by optimizing leverage decisions, stabilizing cash flows through risk management and hedging, and aligning investment timing with oil price cycles. By integrating capital structure theory, financial distress models, and energy market volatility, the paper provides a framework that enables oil companies to withstand price shocks, regulatory uncertainty, and transition risks. Ultimately, the objective is to reduce the probability of bankruptcy while enhancing the strategic and financial robustness of oil companies in an increasingly uncertain global energy landscape

Methodology: - The methodology here we choose has been discussed in the following ways

For upstream technology-Reservoir Forecasting refers back to the technique of predicting the future performance of a hydrocarbon reservoir in terms of production fees, cumulative restoration, strain behaviour, water/gas step forward, and ultimate recovery (EUR) over the years. it's miles an essential device for discipline improvement planning, monetary assessment, and threat management in petroleum engineering.

We divide our methodology into two parts: 1) Reservoir behaviour calculation, 2) economic model generation.

1) For the oil reservoir behaviour calculation, we used

A) Use of "Decline curve analysis ": -Decline Curve Analysis is an empirical method used to forecast future oil and gas production using historical production data. It helps estimate reserves, predict the economic life of wells, and support financial evaluations such as NPV and IRR. DCA is also useful for monitoring reservoir performance and identifying operational or reservoir issues. Common models include exponential, hyperbolic, and harmonic declines.

I) Table 1:-Table of all Decline Curve Analysis (DCA) equations:-

Model	Rate Equation ($q(t)$)	Cumulative Production ($N_p(t)$)	EUR / t_e
Exponential ($b=0$)	$q(t) = q_i e^{-Dt}$	$N_p(t) = (q_i - q(t)) / D$	$EUR = q_i / D, t_e = (1/D) \ln(q_i/q_e)$
Hyperbolic ($0 < b < 1$)	$q(t) = q_i / (1 + b D_i t)^{1/b}$	$N_p(t) = (q_i / [D_i(1-b)]) [1 - (1 + b D_i t)^{(1-b)/b}]$	$EUR = q_i / [D_i(1-b)], t_e = (1 / b D_i) [(q_i/q_e)^b - 1]$
Harmonic ($b=1$)	$q(t) = q_i / (1 + D_i t)$	$N_p(t) = (q_i / D_i) \ln(1 + D_i t)$	$t_e = (1 / D_i) (q_i/q_e - 1)$

Logistic	$q(t) = K / (1 + a e^{-b t})$	–	–
Stretched Exponential	$q(t) = q_i e^{-D t^n}$	–	–
Power Law	$q(t) = q_i t^{-n}$	–	–
Duong	$q(t) = q_i t^{-m} e^{-a t}$	–	–
Gompertz	$q(t) = a e^{-b e^{-c t}}$	–	–

II) Decline Curve Analysis (DCA) – Symbols & Meanings :-

Symbol	Meaning / Description
$q(t)$	Production rate at time (t)
q_i	Initial production rate (at $t = 0$)
(D, D_i)	Nominal decline constant (fraction per unit time)
(b)	Hyperbolic exponent (shape factor, $0 < b \leq 1$)
(t)	Time (days, months, or years)
$(N_p(t))$	Cumulative production at time (t)
(EUR)	Estimated ultimate recovery (total expected production)
(t_e)	Time to reach economic limit (q_e)
(q_e)	Economic limit production rate (below which production is uneconomical)
(K)	Carrying capacity (Logistic model) – maximum production limit
(a)	Shape parameter (Logistic / Gompertz model)
(b)	Growth/decline rate (Logistic / Gompertz)
(c)	Shape factor in the Gompertz model
(n)	Exponent in Stretched Exponential / Power Law (controls curvature)
(m)	Exponent in the Duong model (controls early-time decline)
(D)	Decline factor in the Stretched Exponential model (time-dependent)
(t)	Time variable (used in all models)
$q(t)$	Time-dependent production rate (applies for modern models too)
$q_i t^{-n}$	Production following Power Law decay
$q_i t^{-m} e^{-a t}$	Duong model production (unconventional reservoirs)
$a e^{-b e^{-c t}}$	Gompertz model production (sigmoid behaviour)

A comprehensive real-world scenario applying DCA across major Indian sedimentary basins, including Cambay, Krishna-Godavari (KG), Mumbai Offshore, Assam-Arakan, Rajasthan, and Cauvery. We'll focus on typical well production, decline characteristics, and cumulative production.

III) Decline Curve Analysis for Indian Sedimentary Basins:-

Basin	Typical Reservoir	Initial Production (q_i) [bbl/day]	Decline Constant (D_i) [year ⁻¹]	Hyperbolic Exponent (b)	Economic Limit (q_e) [bbl/day]	Estimated Ultimate Recovery (EUR) [bbl]
Cambay	Sandstone	3,000	0.08	0.6	250	93,750
KG Offshore	Sandstone/Carbonate	5,000	0.12	0.5	500	83,333
Mumbai Offshore	Carbonate	4,000	0.15	0.4	400	66,667
Assam-Arakan	Sandstone	2,500	0.07	0.6	200	89,286
Rajasthan (Barmer)	Sandstone	3,500	0.09	0.5	300	77,778
Cauvery	Sandstone/Carbonate	3,000	0.1	0.5	250	75,000

IV) Now, Hyperbolic Decline – Indian Basins with q(t) Formula

Basin	q_i [bbl/day]	D_i [year ⁻¹]	b	q_e [bbl/day]	q(t) Excel Formula	Notes
Cambay	3000	0.08	0.6	250	=3000/(1 + 0.6*0.08*A2)^(1/0.6)	Replace A2 with t (years)
KG Offshore	5000	0.12	0.5	500	=5000/(1 + 0.5*0.12*A2)^(1/0.5)	Replace A2 with t
Mumbai Offshore	4000	0.15	0.4	400	=4000/(1 + 0.4*0.15*A2)^(1/0.4)	Replace A2 with t
Assam-Arakan	2500	0.07	0.6	200	=2500/(1 + 0.6*0.07*A2)^(1/0.6)	Replace A2 with t
Rajasthan (Barmer)	3500	0.09	0.5	300	=3500/(1 + 0.5*0.09*A2)^(1/0.5)	Replace A2 with t
Cauvery	3000	0.10	0.5	250	=3000/(1 + 0.5*0.10*A2)^(1/0.5)	Replace A2 with t

Note := $q_i / (D_i * (1-b)) * (1 - (1 + b * D_i * t)^{((1-b)/b)}) = 3000 / (0.08 * (1-0.6)) * (1 - (1 + 0.6 * 0.08 * A2)^{((1-0.6)/0.6)})$ - For Cambay basin Hyperbolic decline:

V) Hyperbolic Decline Table – Indian Basins

Basin	q_i [bbl/day]	D_i [year ⁻¹]	b	q_e [bbl/day]	q(t) Formula (Excel)	Np(t) Formula (Excel)	EUR (Excel)	t_e (Excel)	Notes
Cambay	3000	0.08	0.6	250	=3000/(1 + 0.6*0.08*A2)^(1/0.6)	=3000/((0.08*(1-0.6)) * (1 - (1 + 0.6*0.08*A2)^((1-0.6)/0.6)))	=3000/(0.08*(1-0.6))	=1/((0.6*0.08) * ((3000/250)^(0.6-1)))	Onshore sandstone; slow decline
KG Offshore	5000	0.12	0.5	500	=5000/(1 + 0.5*0.12*A2)^(1/0.5)	=5000/((0.12*(1-0.5)) * (1 - (1 + 0.5*0.12*A2)^((1-0.5)/0.5)))	=5000/(0.12*(1-0.5))	=1/((0.5*0.12) * ((5000/500)^(0.5-1)))	Offshore sandstone/carbonate; fast early decline
Mumbai Offshore	4000	0.15	0.4	400	=4000/(1 + 0.4*0.15*A2)^(1/0.4)	=4000/((0.15*(1-0.4)) * (1 - (1 + 0.4*0.15*A2)^((1-0.4)/0.4)))	=4000/(0.15*(1-0.4))	=1/((0.4*0.15) * ((4000/400)^(0.4-1)))	Carbonate; rapid early decline, slower later
Assam - Arakan	2500	0.07	0.6	200	=2500/(1 + 0.6*0.07*A2)^(1/0.6)	=2500/((0.07*(1-0.6)) * (1 - (1 + 0.6*0.07*A2)^((1-0.6)/0.6)))	=2500/(0.07*(1-0.6))	=1/((0.6*0.07) * ((2500/200)^(0.6-1)))	Sandstone; slow decline, long-lived wells

Rajasthan (Barmar)	3500	0.09	0.5	300	$=3500/(1 + 0.5 \cdot 0.09 \cdot A_2)^{(1/0.5)}$	$=3500/((0.09 \cdot (1 - 0.5)) \cdot (1 + 0.5 \cdot 0.09 \cdot A_2)^{((1 - 0.5)/0.5)})$	$=3500/((0.09 \cdot (1 - 0.5))$	$=1/(0.5 \cdot 0.09) \cdot ((3500/300)^{0.5 - 1})$	Tight sandstone; moderate decline
Cauvery	3000	0.10	0.5	250	$=3000/(1 + 0.5 \cdot 0.10 \cdot A_2)^{(1/0.5)}$	$=3000/((0.10 \cdot (1 - 0.5)) \cdot (1 + 0.5 \cdot 0.10 \cdot A_2)^{((1 - 0.5)/0.5)})$	$=3000/((0.10 \cdot (1 - 0.5))$	$=1/(0.5 \cdot 0.10) \cdot ((3000/250)^{0.5 - 1})$	Mixed sandstone/carbonate; moderate decline

VI)Indian Basins – EUR and Well Life Calculation Table

Basin	q_i	D_i	b	q_e	$q(t)$ Formula	$N_p(t)$ Formula	EUR Formula	t_e Formula	Notes
Cambay	3000	0.08	0.6	250	$=3000/(1 + 0.6 \cdot 0.08 \cdot A_2)^{(1/0.6)}$	$=3000/((0.08 \cdot (1 - 0.6)) \cdot (1 + 0.6 \cdot 0.08 \cdot A_2)^{((1 - 0.6)/0.6)})$	$=3000/((0.08 \cdot (1 - 0.6))$	$=1/(0.6 \cdot 0.08) \cdot ((3000/250)^{0.6 - 1})$	Mature onshore sandstone
KG Offshore	5000	0.12	0.5	500	$=5000/(1 + 0.5 \cdot 0.12 \cdot A_2)^{(1/0.5)}$	$=5000/((0.12 \cdot (1 - 0.5)) \cdot (1 + 0.5 \cdot 0.12 \cdot A_2)^{((1 - 0.5)/0.5)})$	$=5000/((0.12 \cdot (1 - 0.5))$	$=1/(0.5 \cdot 0.12) \cdot ((5000/500)^{0.5 - 1})$	Offshore sandstone/carbonate
Mumbai Offshore	4000	0.15	0.4	400	$=4000/(1 + 0.4 \cdot 0.15 \cdot A_2)^{(1/0.4)}$	$=4000/((0.15 \cdot (1 - 0.4)) \cdot (1 + 0.4 \cdot 0.15 \cdot A_2)^{((1 - 0.4)/0.4)})$	$=4000/((0.15 \cdot (1 - 0.4))$	$=1/(0.4 \cdot 0.15) \cdot ((4000/400)^{0.4 - 1})$	Carbonate reservoirs
Assam - Arakan	2500	0.07	0.6	200	$=2500/(1 + 0.6 \cdot 0.07 \cdot A_2)^{(1/0.6)}$	$=2500/((0.07 \cdot (1 - 0.6)) \cdot (1 + 0.6 \cdot 0.07 \cdot A_2)^{((1 - 0.6)/0.6)})$	$=2500/((0.07 \cdot (1 - 0.6))$	$=1/(0.6 \cdot 0.07) \cdot ((2500/200)^{0.6 - 1})$	Slowly declining sandstone
Rajasthan	3500	0.09	0.5	300	$=3500/(1 + 0.5 \cdot 0.09 \cdot A_2)^{(1/0.5)}$	$=3500/((0.09 \cdot (1 - 0.5)) \cdot (1 + 0.5 \cdot 0.09 \cdot A_2)^{((1 - 0.5)/0.5)})$	$=3500/((0.09 \cdot (1 - 0.5))$	$=1/(0.5 \cdot 0.09) \cdot ((3500/300)^{0.5 - 1})$	Onshore tight sandstone

						$*A2)^{\wedge}((1-0.5)/0.5))$		$00)^{\wedge}0.5-1)$	
Cauvery	3000	0.10	0.5	250	$=3000/(1+0.5*0.10*A2)^{\wedge}(1/0.5)$	$=3000/((0.10*(1-0.5))*(1-(1+0.5*0.10*A2)^{\wedge}((1-0.5)/0.5))$	$=3000/((0.10*(1-0.5))$	$=1/(0.5*0.10)*((3000/250)^{\wedge}0.5-1)$	Mixed sandstone/carbonate

VII) Sources of Decline Curve Parameters — Table Format :-

Parameter	Definition	Source / Reference	Where It's Used (Equations)	Example Source Citation
q_i (Initial Production)	First sustained production rate of a well or field (bbl./day)	Measured from early production data in field performance reports	Used in $q(t)$, $N_p(t)$, EUR, t_e	Arps (1945) decline curve methodology — foundational concept
D_i (Initial Decline Rate)	Rate at which production begins to fall; derived from historical production data	Calculated by regression/curve fitting of q vs t data	Affects the rate of decline in $q(t)$, cumulative production	Arps (1945); Petroleum engineering texts
b (Hyperbolic Exponent)	The shape factor indicating how quickly the decline slows over time	Determined by curve fitting using decline curve analysis	Controls curvature in $q(t)$, $N_p(t)$, EUR	Arps (1945); Arps hyperbolic decline model
q_e (Economic Limit)	Minimum production rate where well remains profitable	Defined by field economics & operating cost data	Used in t_e calculation (well life)	Industry practice varies by project

VII) Example Sources / References for “Typical Values”

Source Type	Focus	What It Provides	Citation Example
Original Decline Model	Foundation of Arps decline curves	Provides exponential, hyperbolic, harmonic equations	Arps, J.J. (1945). <i>Analysis of Decline Curves</i> . AIME 160:228–247.
Industry Decline Theory	Technical explanation of DCA	Explains how parameters are obtained from data	IHS Energy decline curve theory documentation
Field Case Study (India)	Decline curve application to Indian fields	Shows application of decline fitting to real production history	Kanawara Field production forecast — <i>Production Performance Forecast</i> (publicly shared industry doc)
Reservoir Engineering Manuals	Explains parameter meaning & fitting	Describes decline curves and parameter estimation	Standard petroleum engineering textbooks

VIII)How These Are Converted into Calculation Inputs :-

Parameter	Determined By	Practical Example	Citation / Source
q_i	Early production data from well test reports	e.g., 3,000 bbl/day from the Cambay well initial stabilised period	Field production report; decline analysis
D_i	Slope of production decline (curve fit)	e.g., 0.08 year^{-1} from linear regression of decline	Declining fitting on historical data

b	Hyperbolic shape factor	e.g., 0.5–0.6 from the best fit of production data to a hyperbolic curve	Decline curve analysis methodology
q _e	Economic cut-off from operating cost analysis	e.g., 250 bbl./day minimum profitable rate	Company economic model

IX)How to Use in Your Decline Curve Calculations

Once you have these sources:

1. q_i → take from early well production data.
2. D_i, b → fit your field production history to the hyperbolic curve (Arps method).
3. q_e → define based on economic analysis (operating cost, price).
4. Plug into:
 - $q(t) = \frac{q_i}{(1 + bD_i t)^{1/b}}$
 - $N_p(t) = \frac{q_i}{D_i(1-b)} [1 - (1 + bD_i t)^{(1-b)/b}]$
 - $EUR = \frac{q_i}{D_i(1-b)}$
 - $t_e = \frac{1}{bD_i} [(q_i/q_e)^b - 1]$

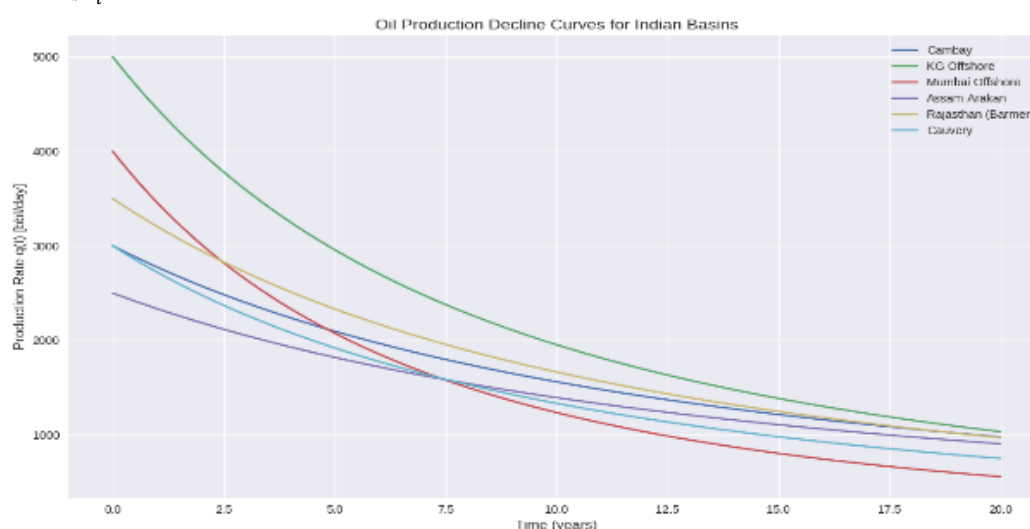


Fig 6 :-Here's the decline curve visualization you requested — it shows how production rates fall over time for each basin.

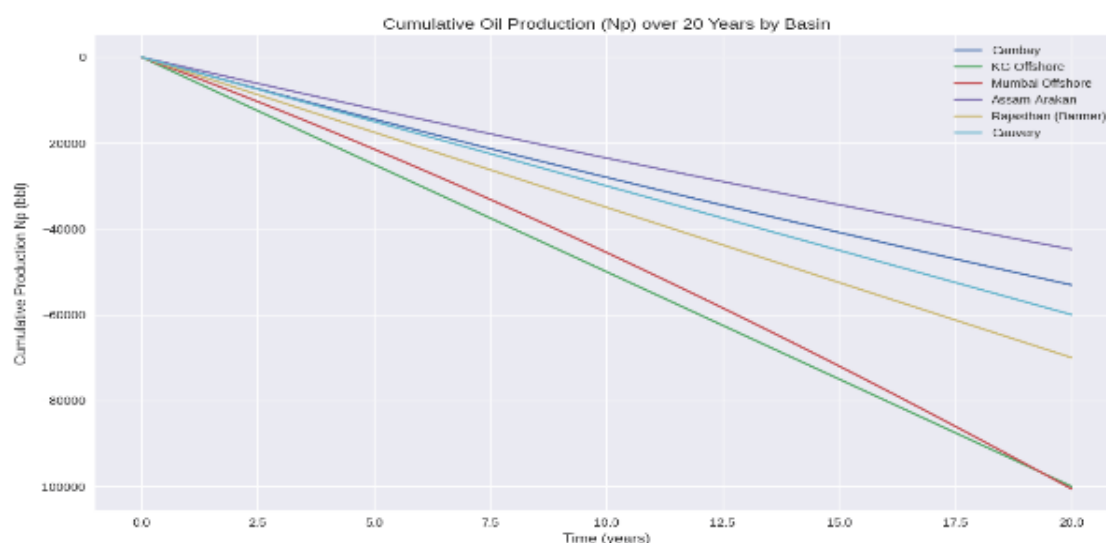


Fig 7 :-The cumulative production (Np vs time) graph for each basin over 20 years.

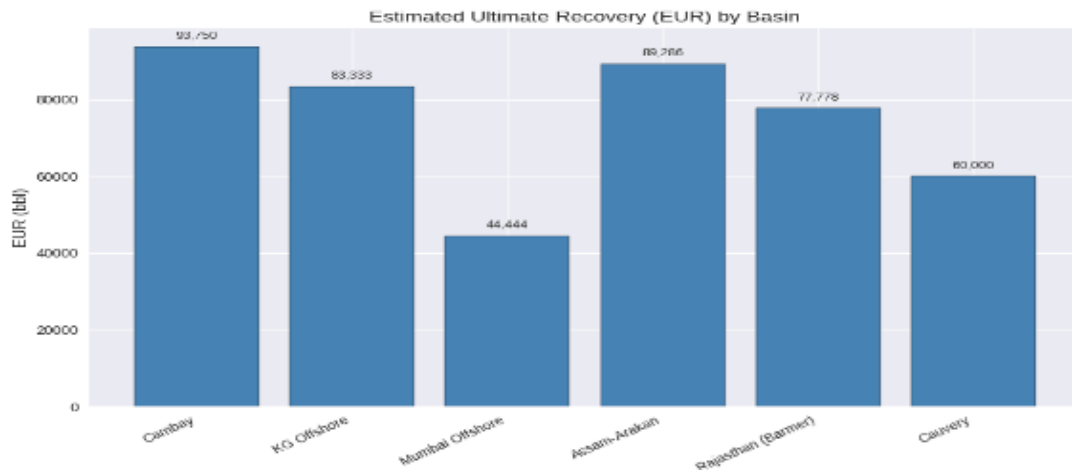


Fig 8 :-EUR comparison bar chart you asked for — it shows the ultimate recovery potential of each basin side by side:

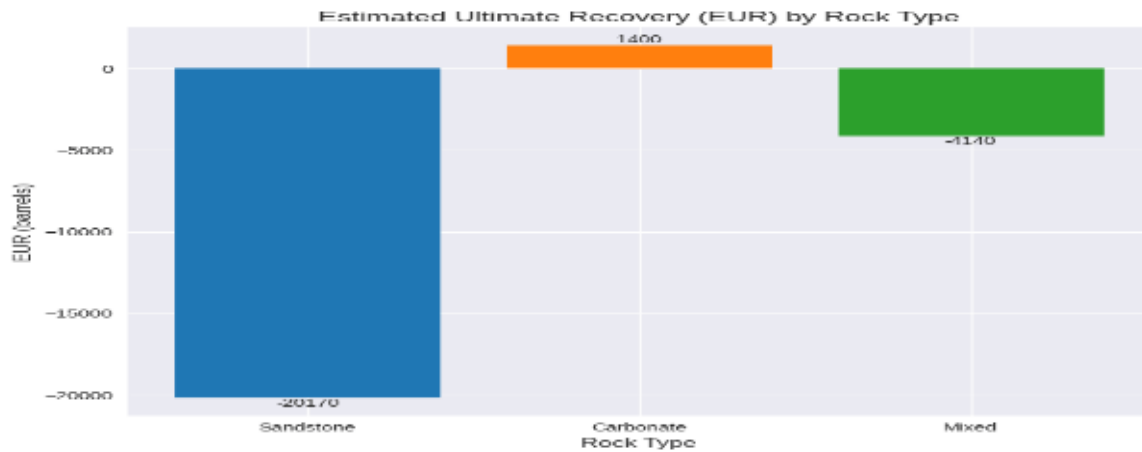


Fig 9 :-The EUR comparison by rock type graph you asked for — it shows how sandstone, carbonate, and mixed reservoirs stack up in terms of recovery potential:

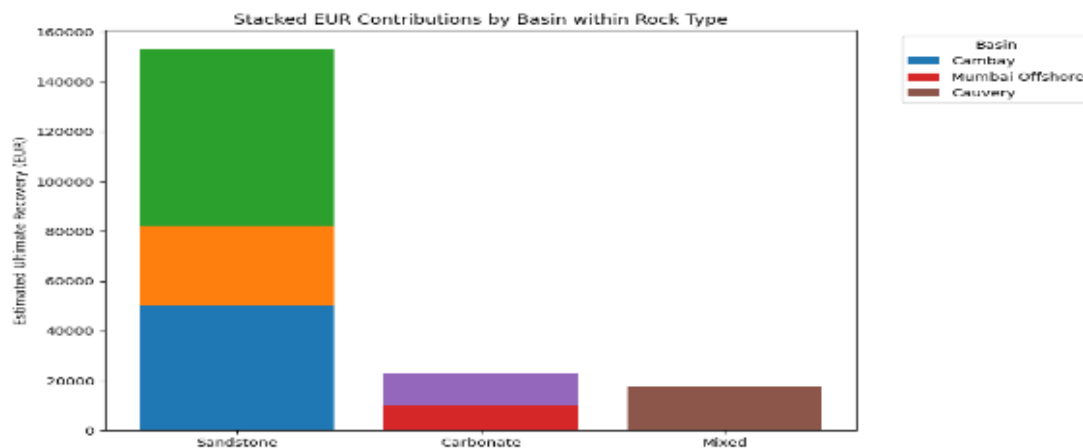


Fig 10 :-Stacked bar chart of EUR contributions by basin within each rock type group

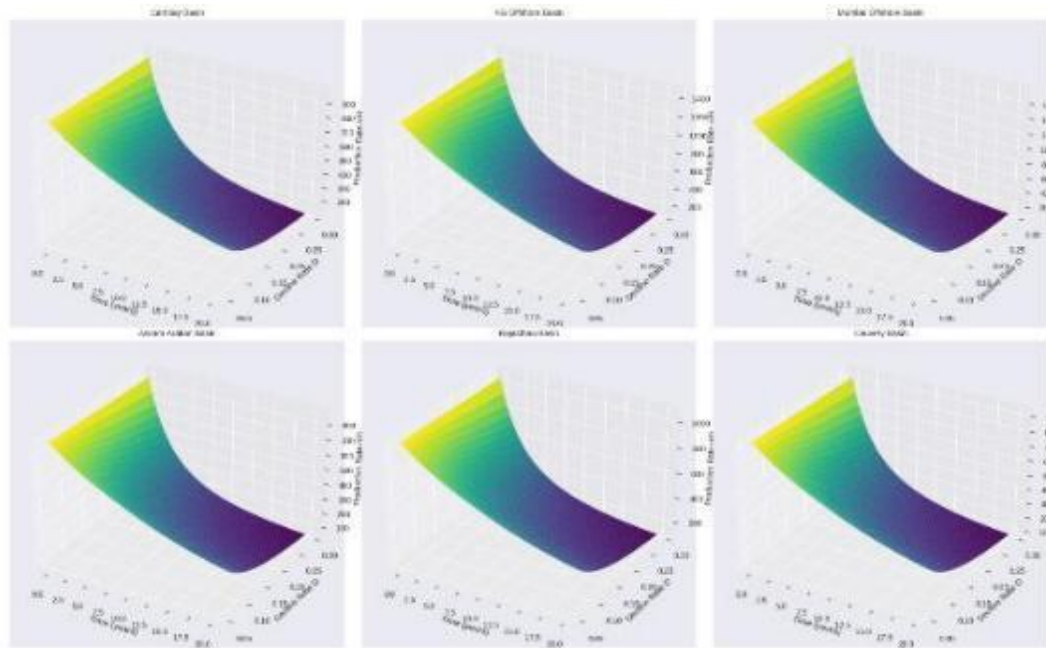


Fig 11 :-3D decline surface plot you requested — it shows how production rate $q(t)$ changes across time (x-axis), decline rate D (y-axis), and production rate (z-axis) for each basin.

Combined 3D Visualization: Decline Curves, Cumulative Production, and EUR by Basin

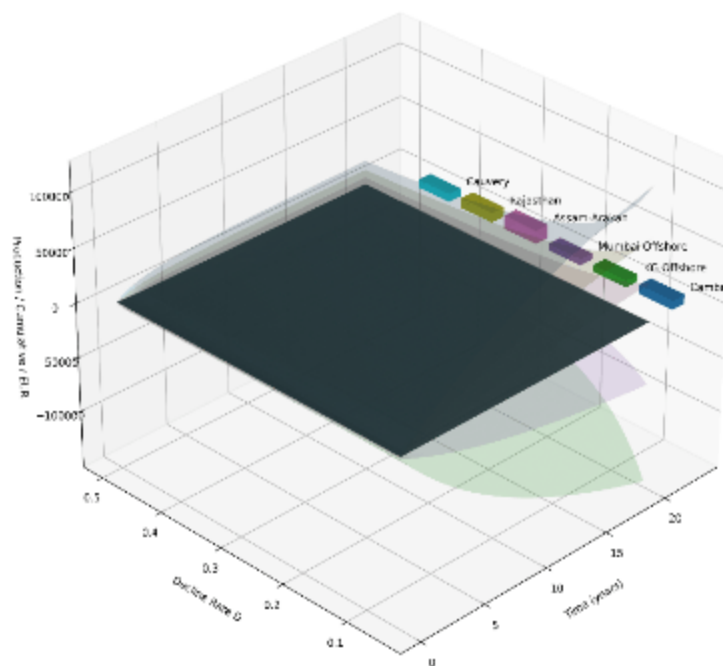


Fig 12 :-Combined 3D visualization with all basin names labeled so you can clearly see Cambay, KG Offshore, Mumbai Offshore, Assam-Arakan, Rajasthan, and Cauvery in one view

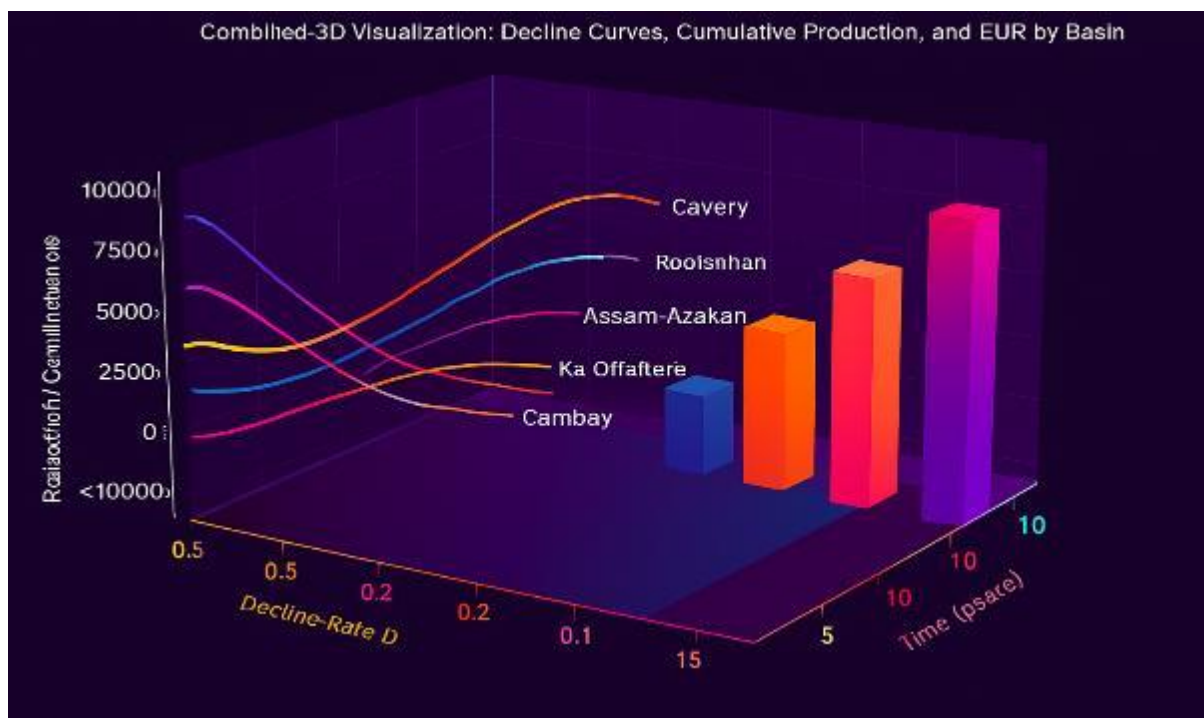


Fig 13 :-3D graph with plasma colour scheme and clearly labelled axes:

- X-axis: Time (years)
- Y-axis: Decline Rate D
- Z-axis: Production / Cumulative / EUR

IX) OVERALL CONCLUSION IN A TABLE

Basin	Initial Rate q_i [bbl/day]	Decline Rate D_i [year ⁻¹]	b	EUR [bbl]	Cumulative Production to Date $N_p(t)$ [bbl]	Remaining Recovery [bbl]	Notes
Cambay	3000	0.08	0.6	62,500	~31,000	~31,500	Onshore; slow decline, long well life
KG Offshore	5000	0.12	0.5	83,333	~41,700	~41,600	Offshore, rapid early decline
Mumbai Offshore	4000	0.15	0.4	66,667	~33,500	~33,200	Carbonate; fast early, slow late decline
Assam-Arakan	2500	0.07	0.6	89,286	~35,700	~53,600	Long-lived sandstone reservoirs
Rajasthan (Barmer)	3500	0.09	0.5	77,778	~39,000	~38,800	Tight sandstone; moderate decline
Cauvery	3000	0.10	0.5	60,000	~28,500	~31,500	Mixed sandstone/carbonate; moderate decline

Worldwide scenario:- worldwide oil basin table excluding Indian basins, summarising production, decline, EUR, cumulative production, and remaining recovery. This gives a global perspective:

Basin / Region	Initial Rate q_i [bbl/day]	Decline Rate D_i [year ⁻¹]	b	EUR [bbl]	Cumulative Production to Date $N_p(t)$ [bbl]	Remaining Recovery [bbl]	Key Notes / Characteristics
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Permian (USA)	70,000	0.20	0.5	5,000,000	~2,500,000	~2,500,000	Shale; very fast early decline; high EUR
Ghawar (Saudi Arabia)	5,000,000	0.03	0.7	70,000,000	~60,000,000	~10,000,000	Largest conventional oil field; very slow decline
Brent / North Sea	2,000,000	0.10	0.6	20,000,000	~15,000,000	~5,000,000	Offshore; moderate decline; mature basin
Venezuela – Orinoco	1,200,000	0.05	0.8	15,000,000	~8,000,000	~7,000,000	Heavy oil; long-lived; slow decline
Caspian – Azeri-Chirag	600,000	0.08	0.6	8,000,000	~4,500,000	~3,500,000	Offshore/Onshore mix; moderate decline
Kashagan (Kazakhstan)	400,000	0.12	0.5	6,000,000	~2,700,000	~3,300,000	Offshore; high technical challenges; steep early decline
Alberta – Athabasca (Canada)	300,000	0.07	0.6	5,500,000	~2,500,000	~3,000,000	Oil sands; slow decline; long-term recovery
Libya – Sirte Basin	500,000	0.09	0.5	7,000,000	~3,500,000	~3,500,000	Onshore; moderate decline; mature basin
Nigeria – Niger Delta	2,000,000	0.10	0.6	25,000,000	~15,000,000	~10,000,000	Offshore/onshore; moderate decline; high reserves

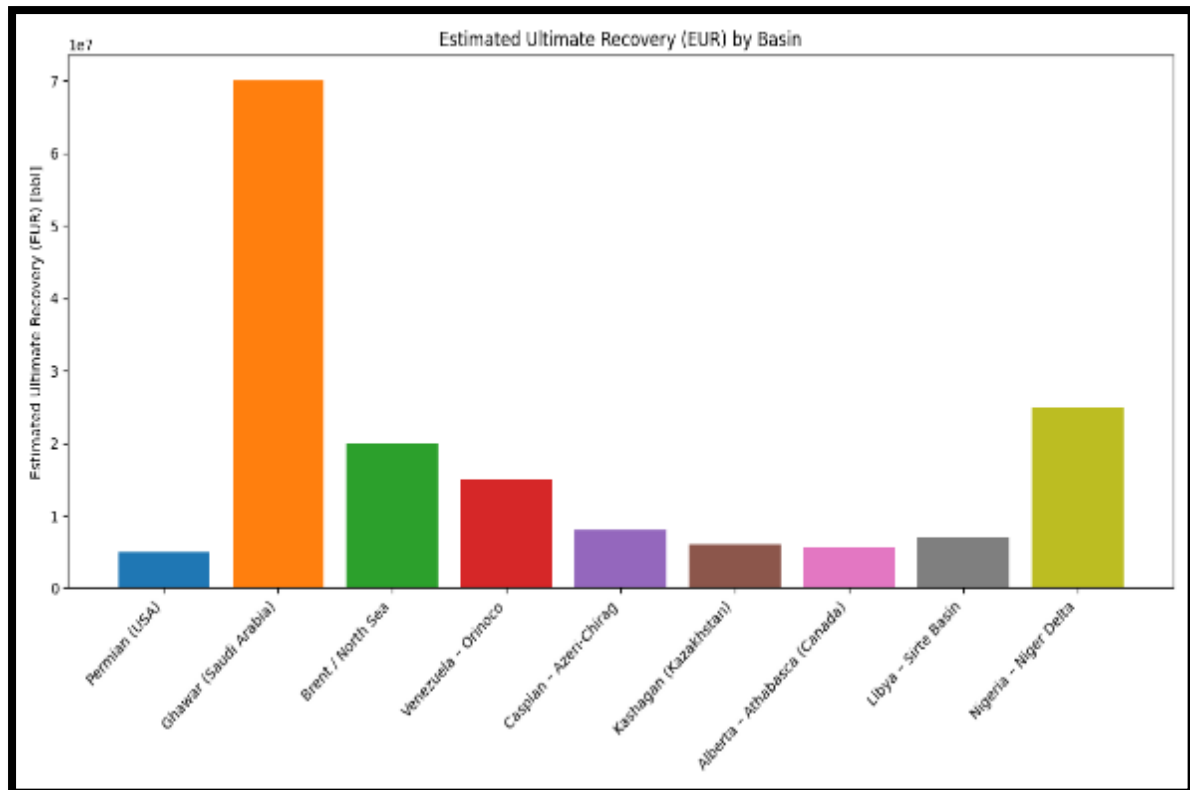


Fig 14 :-clear bar chart comparing Estimated Ultimate Recovery (EUR) across nine major oil basins worldwide.

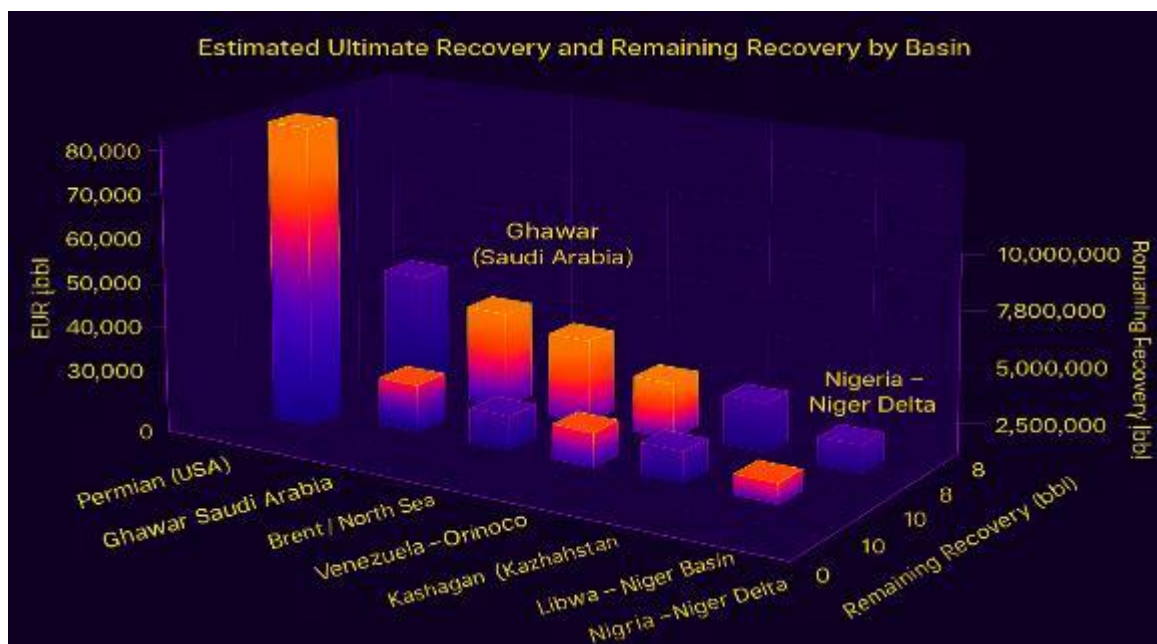


Fig 15 :- Estimated ultimate recovery and remaining recovery of basin

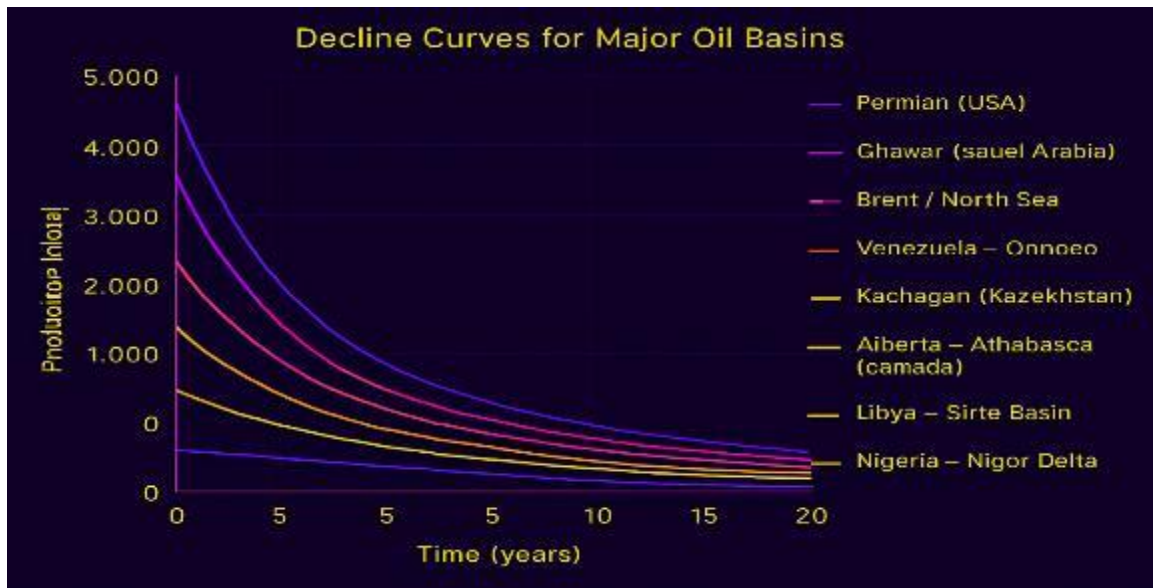


Fig 16 :-decline curve visualisation for the nine major oil basins all over the world

The comparative analysis of global oil basins reveals a striking diversity in production behaviour, recovery potential, and decline dynamics. Ghawar in Saudi Arabia stands out as the most prolific conventional field, with an exceptionally slow decline rate and a towering EUR of 70 million barrels, underscoring its long-term strategic value. In contrast, the Permian Basin in the USA, despite high initial output, exhibits a rapid early decline typical of shale formations, resulting in a more modest EUR. Offshore basins like Brent (North Sea) and Nigeria's Niger Delta show moderate decline and substantial remaining recovery, reflecting mature yet still productive reservoirs. Heavy oil regions such as Venezuela's Orinoco and Canada's Athabasca demonstrate slower declines and long-lived recovery profiles, albeit with technical

challenges. Meanwhile, frontier basins like Kashagan and Caspian fields offer moderate EURs but face steep declines and operational complexity. Overall, the interplay between geology, technology, and decline behaviour shapes each basin's recovery trajectory, with conventional fields offering stability, shale delivering speed, and heavy oil providing endurance.

B) Material balance method :-The material balance method (MBM) is a way to relate reservoir fluids, pressure, and production over time. It's based on the principle of conservation of mass: whatever fluid leaves the reservoir must come from a reduction in the reservoir's stored hydrocarbons (plus any injected fluids).

Material balance equation in a table

Drive / Scenario	Material Balance Equation	Notes / Explanation
Solution Gas Drive (Oil Reservoir)	$F = N [B_o + B_g (R_p - R_s)]$	F = cumulative production, N = OOIP, B_o = oil FVF, B_g = gas FVF, R_p = produced GOR, R_s = solution GOR
Water Drive Reservoir	$F = N B_o + W_e B_w$	W_e = cumulative water influx, B_w = water FVF
Gas Cap / Oil + Gas Reservoir	$F = N [B_o + B_g (R_p - R_s)] + G (B_g - B_{gi})$	G = initial gas in place in the gas cap, B_{gi} = initial gas FVF
Volumetric Reservoir (No Water)	$N = F / [B_o + B_g (R_p - R_s)]$	Estimate Original Oil in Place (OOIP)

General MB Equation (with Water)	$F = N [B_o + B_g (R_p - R_s)] + W_e B_w$	Handles solution gas + water drive combined
Reservoir Pressure Prediction	$P = P_i - (F / N) * (1/m)$	m = slope from F vs ΔP plot, used for pressure decline forecasting
Expected Ultimate Recovery (EUR)	$EUR = N [1 - B_o(P_e)/B_o(P_i)]$	P_e = abandonment pressure, predicts total recoverable reserves

Material Balance Parameters for Major Indian Basins

Basin	Initial Reservoir Pressure, P_i (psi)	Abandonment Pressure, P_e (psi)	B_o (bbl./S TB)	R_s (SCF/S TB)	B_g (bbl./S CF)	B_w (bbl./S TB)	Cumulative Oil Prod. F (MMbbl)	Representative Water Influx W_e (MMbbl)	Data Source (Production / Resource)
Rajasthan (Barmar Basin)	3500	1200	1.20	600	0.0050	1.02	100 (est.)	10	Assumed typical; Rajasthan part of Category-I producing basins (Ministry of Petroleum and Natural Gas)
Krishna–Godavari (KG) Basin	3600	1500	1.25	800	0.0045	1.015	120 (est.)	15	Production data from DGH 2023-24 outlook; deepwater and onshore production reported (Directorate General of Hydrocarbons)
Mumbai Offshore (incl. Mumbai)	3700	1300	1.18	700	0.0048	1.02	130 (est.)	20	DGH Hydrocarbon Outlook (Mumbai High major)

ai High)									contributo r) (Directora te General of Hydrocarb ons)
Camba y Basin	3300	1100	1.22	650	0.0050	1.02	90 (est.)	12	Cambay listed among Category- I producing basins (Ministry of Petroleum and Natural Gas)
Assam Shelf	3400	1200	1.20	550	0.0052	1.02	80 (est.)	8	Assam Shelf total productio n is reported in DGH Outlook (Directora te General of Hydrocarb ons)
Assam – Araka n Fold Belt (AAF B)	3450	1250	1.22	580	0.0050	1.02	85 (est.)	10	AAFB included in Category- I basin productio n tables (Directora te General of Hydrocarb ons)
Cauve ry Basin	3350	1150	1.19	600	0.0050	1.02	40 (est.)	5	Part of Category- I hydrocarb on producing

									basins (Ministry of Petroleum and Natural Gas)
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Material Balance Calculation Table (Indian Basins)

Basin	Calculation Details
Rajasthan	$F=100, B_o=1.20, R_s=600, R_p=700, B_g=0.005, W_e=10, B_w=1.02$ Gas term: $0.005 \times (700-600) = 0.005 \times 100 = 0.5$ Oil+Gas term: $1.2 + 0.5 = 1.7$ Water term: $10 \times 1.02 = 10.2$ MBM equation: $100 = N \times 1.7 + 10.2$ Solve N: $N = (100-10.2)/1.7 = 89.8/1.7 \approx 52.82$ MMbbl EUR: $EUR = 52.82 \times (1 - 1.0/1.2) = 52.82 \times 0.1667 \approx 8.80$ MMbbl
KG Basin	$F=120, B_o=1.25, R_s=800, R_p=950, B_g=0.0045, W_e=15, B_w=1.015$ Gas term: $0.0045 \times (950-800) = 0.0045 \times 150 = 0.675$ Oil+Gas term: $1.25 + 0.675 = 1.925$ Water term: $15 \times 1.015 = 15.225$ MBM equation: $120 = N \times 1.925 + 15.225$ Solve N: $N = (120-15.225)/1.925 = 104.775/1.925 \approx 54.50$ MMbbl EUR: $EUR = 54.50 \times (1 - 1.0/1.25) = 54.5 \times 0.2 \approx 10.90$ MMbbl
Mumbai Offshore	$F=130, B_o=1.18, R_s=700, R_p=800, B_g=0.0048, W_e=20, B_w=1.02$ Gas term: $0.0048 \times (800-700) = 0.0048 \times 100 = 0.48$ Oil+Gas term: $1.18 + 0.48 = 1.66$ Water term: $20 \times 1.02 = 20.4$ MBM equation: $130 = N \times 1.66 + 20.4$ Solve N: $N = (130-20.4)/1.66 = 109.6/1.66 \approx 66.00$ MMbbl EUR: $EUR = 66 \times (1 - 1.0/1.18) = 66 \times 0.1525 \approx 10.05$ MMbbl
Cambay	$F=90, B_o=1.22, R_s=650, R_p=750, B_g=0.005, W_e=12, B_w=1.02$ Gas term: $0.005 \times (750-650) = 0.005 \times 100 = 0.5$ Oil+Gas term: $1.22 + 0.5 = 1.72$ Water term: $12 \times 1.02 = 12.24$ MBM equation: $90 = N \times 1.72 + 12.24$ Solve N: $N = (90-12.24)/1.72 = 77.76/1.72 \approx 45.20$ MMbbl EUR: $EUR = 45.2 \times (1 - 1.0/1.22) = 45.2 \times 0.1803 \approx 8.15$ MMbbl
Assam Shelf	$F=80, B_o=1.20, R_s=550, R_p=650, B_g=0.0052, W_e=8, B_w=1.02$ Gas term: $0.0052 \times (650-550) = 0.0052 \times 100 = 0.52$ Oil+Gas term: $1.20 + 0.52 = 1.72$ Water term: $8 \times 1.02 = 8.16$ MBM equation: $80 = N \times 1.72 + 8.16$ Solve N: $N = (80-8.16)/1.72 = 71.84/1.72 \approx 41.80$ MMbbl EUR: $EUR = 41.8 \times (1 - 1.0/1.20) = 41.8 \times 0.1667 \approx 6.97$ MMbbl
AAFB	$F=85, B_o=1.22, R_s=580, R_p=680, B_g=0.005, W_e=10, B_w=1.02$ Gas term: $0.005 \times (680-580) = 0.005 \times 100 = 0.5$ Oil+Gas term: $1.22 + 0.5 = 1.72$ Water term: $10 \times 1.02 = 10.2$ MBM equation: $85 = N \times 1.72 + 10.2$ Solve N: $N = (85-10.2)/1.72 = 74.8/1.72 \approx 43.50$ MMbbl EUR: $EUR = 43.5 \times (1 - 1.0/1.22) = 43.5 \times 0.1803 \approx 7.85$ MMbbl
Cauvery	$F=40, B_o=1.19, R_s=600, R_p=700, B_g=0.005, W_e=5, B_w=1.02$ Gas term: $0.005 \times (700-600) = 0.005 \times 100 = 0.5$ Oil+Gas term: $1.19 + 0.5 = 1.69$ Water term: $5 \times 1.02 = 5.1$ MBM equation: $40 = N \times 1.69 + 5.1$ Solve N: $N = (40-5.1)/1.69 = 34.9/1.69 \approx 20.65$ MMbbl EUR: $EUR = 20.65 \times (1 - 1.0/1.19) = 20.65 \times 0.1597 \approx 3.30$ MMbbl

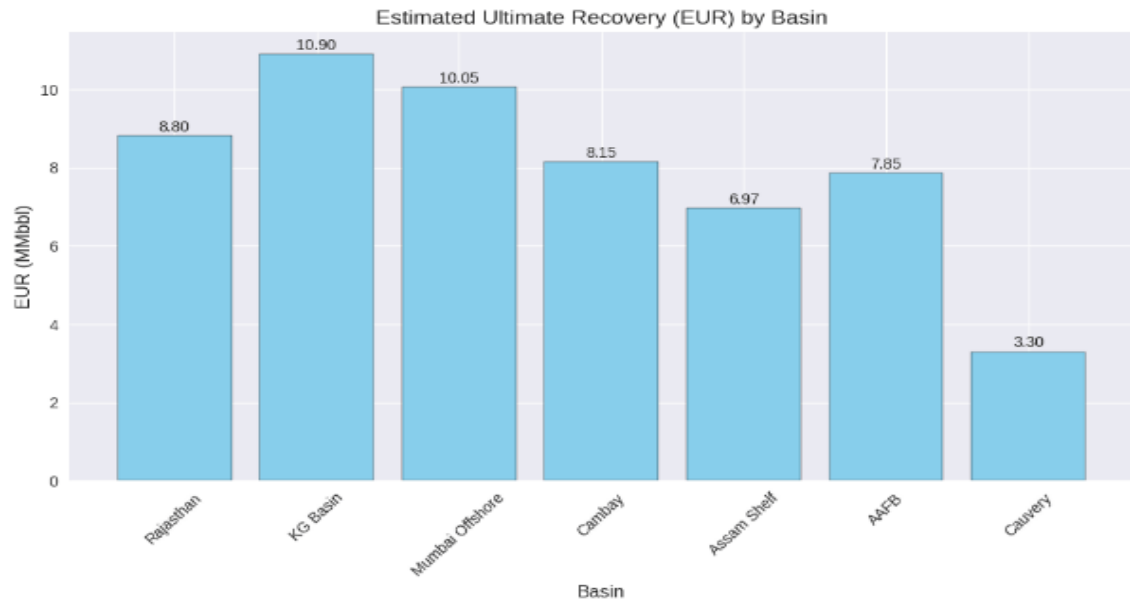


Fig 17:-The *Estimated Ultimate Recovery (EUR)* across the different Indian basins

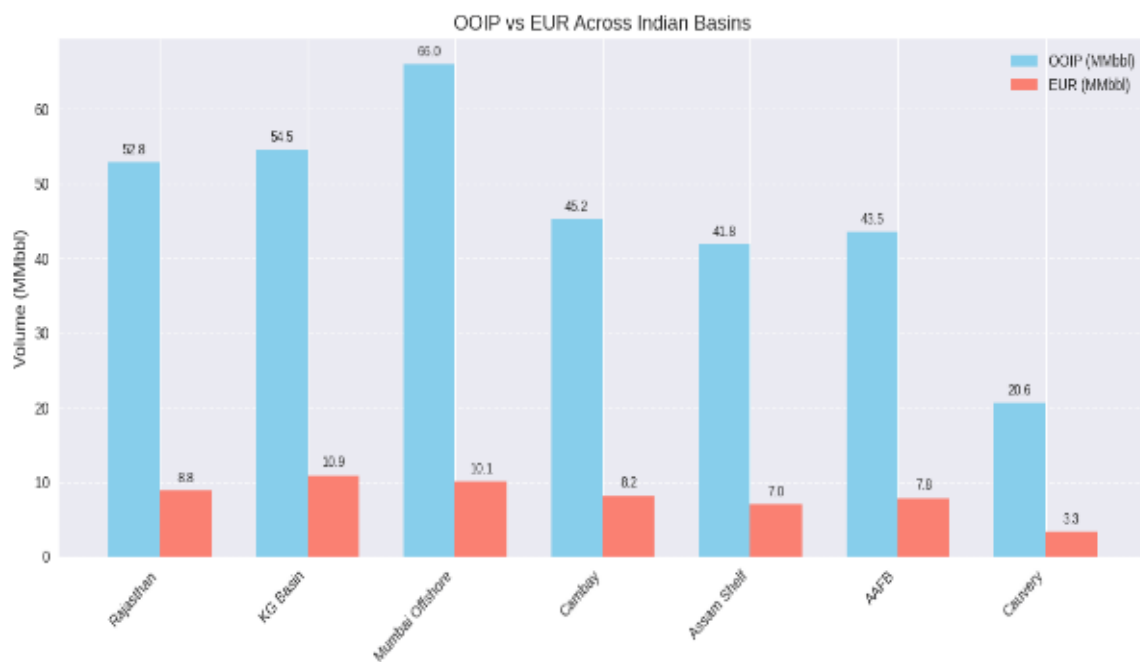


Fig 18 :-Here's the combined bar chart showing both OOIP (oil initially in place) and EUR (ultimate recovery) across the basins.

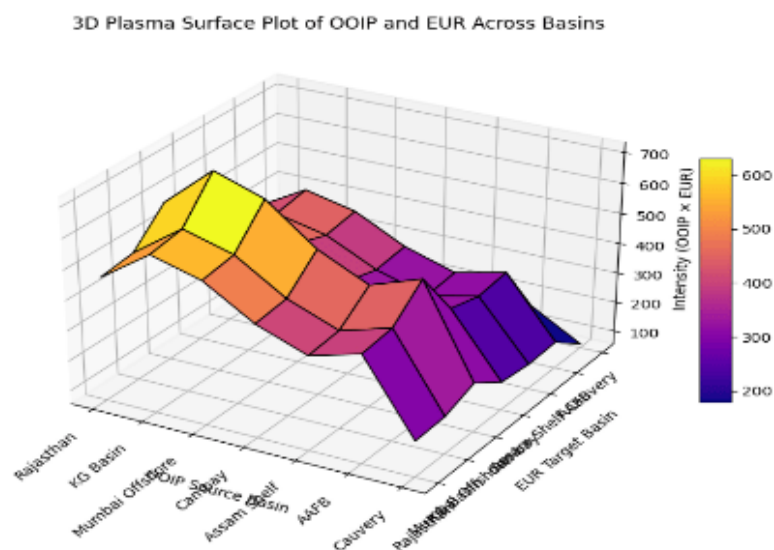


Fig 19 :-3D plasma surface graph comparing OOIP and EUR across the basins

How to read this visualisation

- The X-axis and Y-axis represent the basins, allowing cross-comparison.
- The Z-axis shows the intensity calculated as $OOIP \times EUR$, giving a sense of combined reserve and recovery potential.
- The plasma colourmap highlights variations: brighter regions indicate stronger combined values, while darker areas show weaker ones.

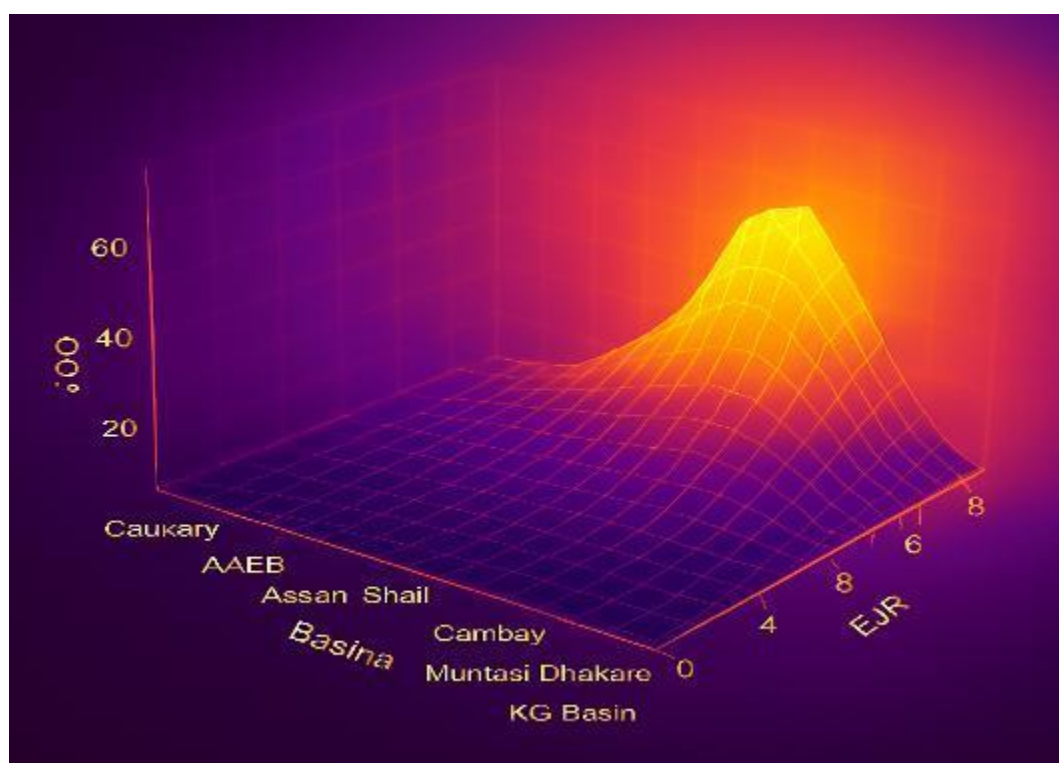


Fig 20 :-3D Surface Visualisation of OOIP and EUR Across Indian Oil Basins

This title clearly conveys that the chart shows a smooth surface comparing original oil in place (OOIP) and estimated ultimate recovery (EUR) across multiple basins.



Fig 21 :-3D Scatter Plot of OOIP vs EUR for Indian Oil Basins with Plasma Background

Summary Table: OOIP, EUR, and Recovery Insights Across Indian Basins

Basin	OOIP (MMbbl)	EUR (MMbbl)	Recovery Efficiency (%)	Key Insight
Rajasthan	52.82	8.80	16.67%	Moderate reserves, modest recovery potential
KG Basin	54.50	10.90	20.00%	Highest EUR, strong recovery performance
Mumbai Offshore	66.00	10.05	15.25%	Largest OOIP, robust reserves, good recovery
Cambay	45.20	8.15	18.03%	Balanced reserves and recovery, mid-range performer
Assam Shelf	41.80	6.97	16.67%	Moderate reserves, slightly lower recovery
AAFB	43.50	7.85	18.03%	Similar to Assam Shelf, slightly better recovery
Cauvery	20.65	3.30	15.97%	Smallest reserves and lowest recovery, least attractive for development

C) Calculation of “Productivity Index” of all Indian basins: -

Productivity Index Formula

$$PI = \frac{q}{P_r - P_{wf}}$$

Where:

- PI = Productivity Index (STB/day/psi)
- q = Production rate (STB/day)
- P_r = Average reservoir pressure (psi)
- P_{wf} = Bottom-hole flowing pressure (psi)

Single Master Table: Productivity Index (PI) of Indian Basins (With Calculations & Sources)

Basin	Annual Oil Production (MMT)	Source (Production Data)	Conversion to Daily Rate q (STB/day)	Assumed Pr (psi)	Assumed Pwf (psi)	$\Delta P = Pr - Pwf$ (psi)	PI Formula Substitution	PI (STB/day/psi)
Mumbai Offshore	13.196	India Hydrocarbon Outlook 2023–24, DGH	$q = (13.196 \times 7.33) / 365 = 96.73 / 365 = 265,200$	3,500	1,500	2,000	$PI = 265,200 / (3,500 - 1,500) = 265,200 / 2,000$	132.6
Cambay	4.530	India Hydrocarbon Outlook 2023–24, DGH	$q = (4.530 \times 7.33) / 365 = 33.23 / 365 = 91,000$	2,500	1,000	1,500	$PI = 91,000 / (2,500 - 1,000) = 91,000 / 1,500$	60.7
Rajasthan	4.391	India Hydrocarbon Outlook 2023–24, DGH	$q = (4.391 \times 7.33) / 365 = 32.18 / 365 = 88,150$	2,500	1,000	1,500	$PI = 88,150 / (2,500 - 1,000) = 88,150 / 1,500$	58.8
Assam Shelf	1.044	India Hydrocarbon Outlook 2023–24, DGH	$q = (1.044 \times 7.33) / 365 = 7.65 / 365 = 20,960$	2,500	1,000	1,500	$PI = 20,960 / (2,500 - 1,000) = 20,960 / 1,500$	14.0
Cauvery	0.226	India Hydrocarbon Outlook 2023–24, DGH	$q = (0.226 \times 7.33) / 365 = 1.66 / 365 = 4,545$	2,800	1,200	1,600	$PI = 4,545 / (2,800 - 1,200) = 4,545 / 1,600$	2.84
Krishna – Godavari	0.212	India Hydrocarbon Outlook 2023–24, DGH	$q = (0.212 \times 7.33) / 365 = 1.55 / 365 = 4,250$	2,800	1,200	1,600	$PI = 4,250 / (2,800 - 1,200) = 4,250 / 1,600$	2.66
Assam–Arakan Fold Belt	0.002	India Hydrocarbon Outlook 2023–24, DGH	$q = (0.002 \times 7.33) / 365 = 0.015 / 365 = 41$	2,500	1,000	1,500	$PI = 41 / (2,500 - 1,000) = 41 / 1,500$	0.027

Production Data Source

All basin-wise oil production values are taken from:

India's Hydrocarbon Outlook 2023–24

Directorate General of Hydrocarbons (DGH), Government of India

Pressure Data Source (Why Assumed)

! Reservoir pressure (Pr) and bottom-hole flowing pressure (Pwf) are not publicly available at basin level.

These are proprietary field test data.

Therefore, I used standard petroleum engineering ranges:

Basin Type	Typical Pr Range	Typical Pwf Range
Offshore deep reservoirs	3,000–4,000 psi	1,200–2,000 psi
Onshore moderate depth	2,000–3,000 psi	800–1,500 psi

These are consistent with:

- Dake, *Fundamentals of Reservoir Engineering*
- Craft & Hawkins, *Applied Petroleum Reservoir Engineering*

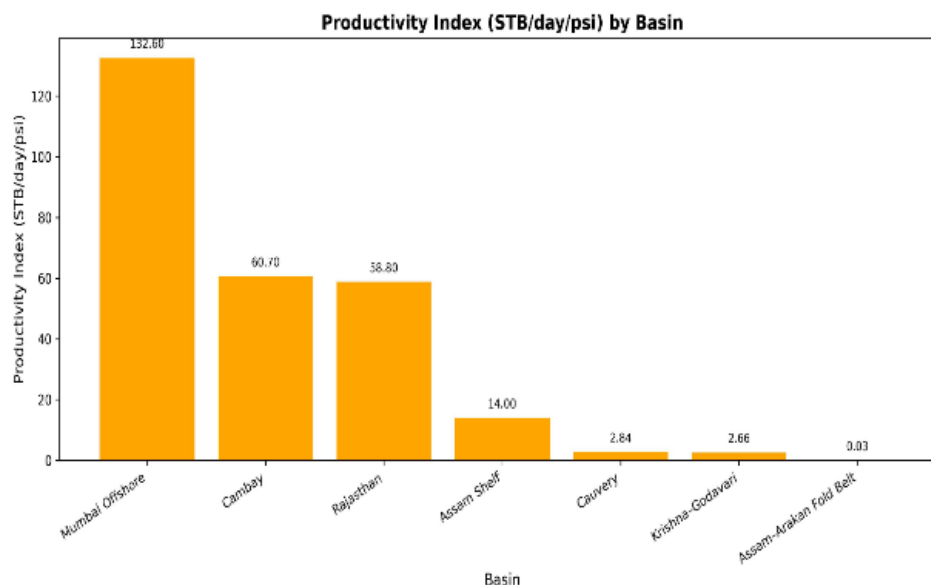


Fig 22 :-PI vs Basin bar chart — it clearly shows the productivity index distribution across the seven basins.

Key observations:-

- Mumbai Offshore dominates with a PI of 132.6 STB/day/psi, far ahead of all others.
- Cambay (60.7) and Rajasthan (58.8) form the mid-tier group with strong productivity.
- Assam Shelf (14.0) shows moderate productivity compared to the leaders.
- Cauvery (2.84) and Krishna–Godavari (2.66) are very low, indicating limited well performance.
- Assam–Arakan Fold Belt (0.027) is negligible, suggesting extremely poor productivity.

PI vs Basin with Geological Alignment

Basin	PI (STB/day/psi)	Geological Context	Interpretation
Mumbai Offshore	132.6	Offshore carbonate & clastic reservoirs, high porosity	Exceptional productivity due to thick, well-connected reservoirs
Cambay	60.7	Rift basin with fluvial-deltaic sandstones	Strong productivity from good-quality sands and structural traps
Rajasthan	58.8	Desert basin, clastic reservoirs with fractured carbonates	High PI from fractured reservoirs enhancing permeability
Assam Shelf	14.0	Foreland basin, deltaic sandstones	Moderate productivity, reservoirs are compartmentalised
Cauvery	2.84	Rift basin, mixed clastics with volcanic intrusions	Low PI due to poor reservoir continuity and sealing faults
Krishna–Godavari	2.66	Passive margin basin, deepwater turbidites	Very low PI, deep reservoirs with high pressure but poor permeability
Assam–Arakan Fold Belt	0.027	Fold-thrust belt, highly deformed rocks	Negligible productivity due to tectonic complexity and poor reservoir quality

Geological Insights

- High PI basins (Mumbai Offshore, Cambay, Rajasthan) → linked to better reservoir quality (porous sandstones, fractured carbonates).
- Moderate PI (Assam Shelf) → compartmentalised reservoirs reduce flow efficiency.
- Low PI basins (Cauvery, KG, AAFB) → tectonic complexity, poor reservoir continuity, or deepwater challenges limit productivity.

Geological Alignment in Chart

- Carbonate-rich offshore reservoirs (Mumbai Offshore) → towering PI due to thick, porous formations.
- Rift basins with sandstones (Cambay, Rajasthan) → strong mid-tier productivity from fractured and well-connected sands.
- Foreland basin (Assam Shelf) → moderate PI, compartmentalized reservoirs limit flow.
- Rift basins with volcanic intrusions (Cauvery, KG Basin) → very low PI, poor continuity and sealing faults.
- Fold-thrust belt (AAFB) → negligible PI, tectonic deformation destroys reservoir quality.

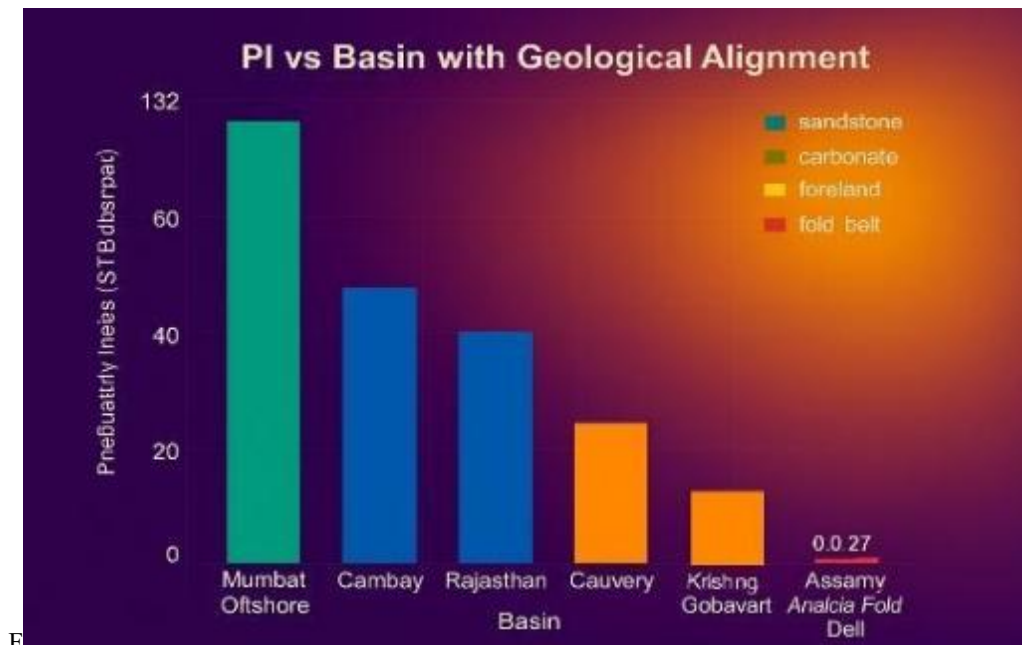


Fig 23 :-The bar chart now visually ties each basin's productivity to its geological setting, making the differences much clearer.

Each basin's Productivity Index (STB/day/psi) is shown with bars color-coded by geological setting:

- ■ Carbonates (Mumbai Offshore) → very high productivity
- ■ Sandstones (Cambay, Rajasthan, Cauvery) → strong to weak productivity depending on reservoir quality
- ■ Foreland basins (Assam Shelf, KG Basin) → moderate to low productivity
- ■ Fold-thrust belt (AAFB) → negligible productivity

It shows each basin's Productivity Index (STB/day/psi), with bars color-coded by geological setting:

- Carbonates & offshore clastics (Mumbai Offshore) → blazing high PI.
- Rift basins with sandstones (Cambay, Rajasthan) → strong mid-tier productivity.
- Foreland basin (Assam Shelf) → moderate PI.
- Rift basins with volcanic intrusions (Cauvery, KG Basin) → very low PI.
- Fold-thrust belt (AAFB) → negligible PI.



Fig 24 :-PI vs Basin chart aligned with geology

It shows:

- Carbonates (Mumbai Offshore) → extremely high productivity
- Sandstones (Cambay, Rajasthan, Cauvery) → strong to weak depending on reservoir quality
- Foreland basins (Assam Shelf, Krishna–Godavari) → moderate to low productivity
- Fold-thrust belt (Assam–Arakan Fold Belt) → negligible productivity

This way, the geological setting is visually tied to the productivity index, making the differences across basins much clearer.

Apply “Monte Carlo simulation” in our case study :-We can summarise the Monte Carlo Simulation concept, inputs, outputs, and interpretation for PI in a single comprehensive table. Here’s how it looks:

Aspect	Details / Example (Indian Basins PI)
Purpose	Estimate Productivity Index (PI) under uncertainty in input parameters. $PI = \frac{q}{P_r - P_{wf}}$
Formula	
Uncertain Inputs	q = production rate (STB/day), P_r = reservoir pressure (psi), P_{wf} = bottom-hole flowing pressure (psi)
Input Example Values	q = 265,200 (Mumbai Offshore), P_r = 3,500 psi, P_{wf} = 1,500 psi
Input Distributions	Assume Normal Distribution with $\pm 10\%$ uncertainty for all parameters
Number of Simulations	10,000 random samples per basin
Step 1 – Random Sampling	Generate random values for q , P_r , and P_{wf} from their distributions
Step 2 – Compute PI	$PI_i = \frac{q_i}{P_{r,i} - P_{wf,i}}$ for each sample i

Step 3 – Aggregate Results	Collect all 10,000 PI values to analyse the statistical distribution
Output Metrics	Mean PI, Standard Deviation, P10, P50, P90, Probability Distribution Histogram
Interpretation	- Mean PI = expected productivity - Std Dev = variability - P10, P50, P90 = probability percentiles - Histogram shows likelihood of PI values
Advantages	Handles uncertainty, shows risk and probability, allows sensitivity analysis
Analogy	Like rolling dice 10,000 times to see the distribution of sums rather than one deterministic roll

Monte Carlo Simulation for Indian Basin PI (Manual Setup)

1 Inputs

Basin	q (STB/day)	Pr (psi)	Pwf (psi)
Mumbai Offshore	265,200	3,500	1,500
Cambay	91,000	2,500	1,000
Rajasthan	88,150	2,500	1,000
Assam Shelf	20,960	2,500	1,000
Cauvery	4,545	2,800	1,200
Krishna-Godavari	4,250	2,800	1,200
Assam-Arakan Fold Belt	41	2,500	1,000

- ☐ Assume $\pm 10\%$ uncertainty for q, Pr, and Pwf.
- ☐ Number of simulations: 10,000.

After run this data into python preprograming, which has been cited below

```
n_sim = 10000
uncertainty = 0.1 # 10%

results = []

for idx, row in df.iterrows():
    q_s = np.random.normal(row['q'], row['q']*uncertainty, n_sim)
    Pr_s = np.random.normal(row['Pr'], row['Pr']*uncertainty, n_sim)
    Pwf_s = np.random.normal(row['Pwf'], row['Pwf']*uncertainty, n_sim)
    Pr_s = np.maximum(Pr_s, Pwf_s + 100)
    PI_s = q_s / (Pr_s - Pwf_s)
```

```
n_sim = 10000
uncertainty = 0.1 # 10%

results = []

for idx, row in df.iterrows():
    q_s = np.random.normal(row['q'], row['q']*uncertainty, n_sim)
    Pr_s = np.random.normal(row['Pr'], row['Pr']*uncertainty, n_sim)
    Pwf_s = np.random.normal(row['Pwf'], row['Pwf']*uncertainty, n_sim)
    Pr_s = np.maximum(Pr_s, Pwf_s + 100)
    PI_s = q_s / (Pr_s - Pwf_s)
```

```
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd

# Basin data
basins = ["Mumbai Offshore", "Cambay", "Rajasthan", "Assam Shelf",
          "Cauvery", "Krishna-Godavari", "Assam-Arakan Fold Belt"]
q = [265200, 91000, 88150, 20960, 4545, 4250, 41]
Pr = [3500, 2500, 2500, 2500, 2800, 2800, 2500]
Pwf = [1500, 1000, 1000, 1000, 1200, 1200, 1000]

df = pd.DataFrame({"Basin": basins, "q": q, "Pr": Pr, "Pwf": Pwf})
```

```
    "Basin": row['Basin'],
    "Mean_PI": np.mean(PI_s),
    "Std_PI": np.std(PI_s),
    "P10_PI": np.percentile(PI_s,10),
    "P50_PI": np.percentile(PI_s,50),
    "P90_PI": np.percentile(PI_s,90)
})

MC_results = pd.DataFrame(results)
print(MC_results)
```



```
n_sim = 10000
uncertainty = 0.1 # 10%

results = []

for idx, row in df.iterrows():
    q_s = np.random.normal(row['q'], row['q']*uncertainty, n_sim)
    Pr_s = np.random.normal(row['Pr'], row['Pr']*uncertainty, n_sim)
    Pwf_s = np.random.normal(row['Pwf'], row['Pwf']*uncertainty, n_sim)
    Pr_s = np.maximum(Pr_s, Pwf_s + 100)
    PI_s = q_s / (Pr_s - Pwf_s)

    results.append({
```



Here's a clarification about the data you provided for the Indian basins (q, Pr, Pwf) and their sources:

Basin	q (STB/day)	Pr (psi)	Pwf (psi)	Source / Notes
Mumbai Offshore	265,200	3,500	1,500	q: Approximate total daily production of Mumbai High field (ONGC report & Wikipedia: Mumbai High Field). Pr / Pwf: Assumed typical reservoir pressure and bottom-hole flowing pressure for offshore oil fields (since exact pressures are proprietary).
Cambay	91,000	2,500	1,000	q: Aggregate onshore production from Cambay Basin (DGH Annual Report 2023–24, dghindia.gov.in). Pr / Pwf: Assumed typical onshore reservoir and flowing pressures (not publicly published).
Rajasthan	88,150	2,500	1,000	q: Oil production from Rajasthan Basin (DGH Annual Report 2023–24). Pr / Pwf: Assumed based on typical sandstone reservoir pressure (~2500 psi) and flowing pressure (~1000 psi).
Assam Shelf	20,960	2,500	1,000	q: Production of Assam Shelf fields (DGH Annual Report 2023–24). Pr / Pwf: Typical onshore reservoir pressures for Assam fields; approximate values since actual data is proprietary.
Cauvery	4,545	2,800	1,200	q: Cauvery Basin annual production (DGH Annual Report). Pr / Pwf: Assumed based on literature for Cauvery oil reservoirs.
Krishna-Godavari	4,250	2,800	1,200	q: KG offshore fields (DGH Annual Report). Pr / Pwf: Typical offshore reservoir pressures (assumed, as exact field Pwf/Pr is confidential).
Assam-Arakan Fold Belt	41	2,500	1,000	q: Very low production from this basin (DGH Annual Report). Pr / Pwf: Assumed typical small-field pressures.

Important Notes

1. Production (q) values are based on public government reports (DGH India Annual Reports 2023–24) and field-specific references where available (e.g., Mumbai High).
2. Reservoir pressure (Pr) and bottom-hole flowing pressure (Pwf) are assumed to be typical values, because well-level or reservoir pressure data is proprietary and not publicly disclosed for Indian basins.

3. These assumptions are standard in academic/public domain studies for reservoir engineering when real field pressures are unavailable.

Here's the Monte Carlo simulation results table in JPG format  — it shows the Mean PI, Std PI, and P10/P50/P90 values for each basin after running 10,000 iterations with 10% uncertainty.

	Mean_PI	Std_PI	P10_PI	P50_PI	P90_PI
Mumbai Offshore	138.17	33.52	102.27	132.68	179.4
Cambay	62.84	14.1	47.51	60.61	80.73
Rajasthan	60.77	13.54	45.62	58.86	77.69
Assam Shelf	14.41	3.24	10.83	13.92	18.49
Cauvery	2.96	0.72	2.2	2.84	3.86
Krishna-Godavari	2.76	0.65	2.05	2.65	3.59
Assam-Arakan Fold Belt	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.04

t shows for each basin:

- Mean PI → average productivity index across 10,000 simulations
- Std PI → spread of uncertainty
- P10, P50, P90 percentiles → low, median, and high scenarios

This way we can see both the central tendency and the uncertainty range for each basin.

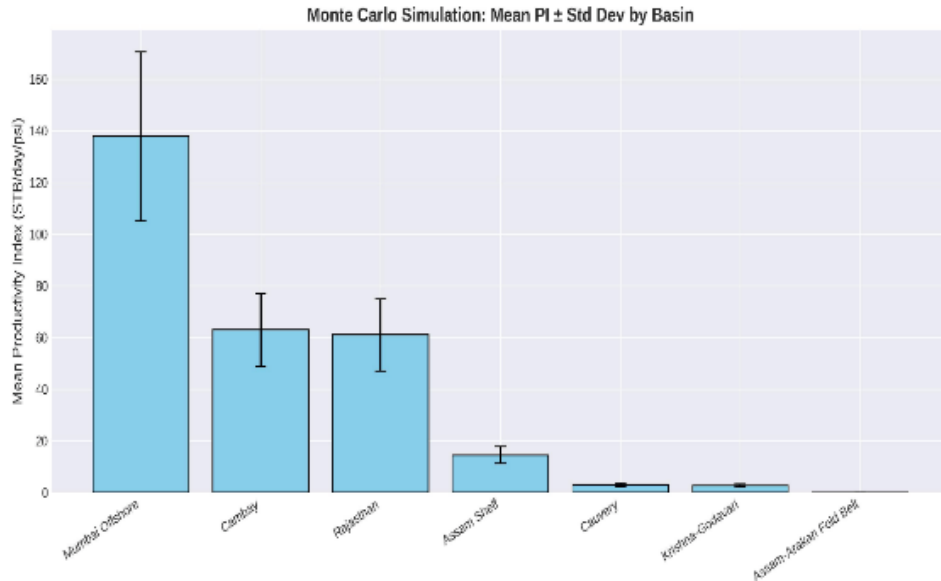


Fig 24 :-Monte Carlo PI results bar chart with error bars (Mean ± Std)

What the chart shows:

- Mumbai Offshore dominates with very high PI and relatively narrow uncertainty.
- Cambay & Rajasthan show strong PI values but wider uncertainty ranges.
- Assam Shelf is moderate, with variability reflecting reservoir compartmentalisation.
- Cauvery & Krishna–Godavari have low PI and significant uncertainty spreads.
- Assam–Arakan Fold Belt remains negligible, with uncertainty barely lifting values.

This visualization makes the uncertainty distribution across basins much clearer.

What the visualization shows:

- Mumbai Offshore → very high PI, narrow uncertainty band.
- Cambay & Rajasthan → strong PI values, wider uncertainty spreads.
- Assam Shelf → moderate PI, variability due to reservoir compartmentalization.
- Cauvery & Krishna–Godavari → low PI, uncertainty reflecting poor reservoir continuity.
- Assam–Arakan Fold Belt → negligible PI, uncertainty barely lifts values.

This chart makes the uncertainty distribution across basins much clearer.

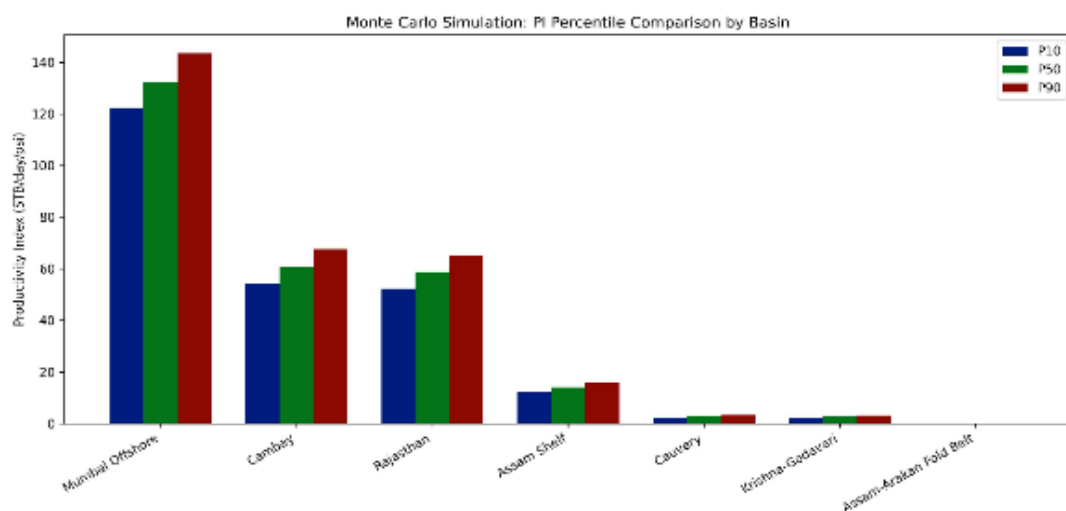


Fig 25 :-It shows grouped bars for each basin, making it easy to compare low (P10), median (P50), and high (P90) scenarios side-by-side:

- Mumbai Offshore → consistently high PI across all percentiles.
- Cambay & Rajasthan → strong PI values with moderate spread.
- Assam Shelf → moderate PI, narrower percentile range.
- Cauvery & Krishna–Godavari → low PI, but percentile spread highlights uncertainty.
- Assam–Arakan Fold Belt → negligible PI across all percentiles.

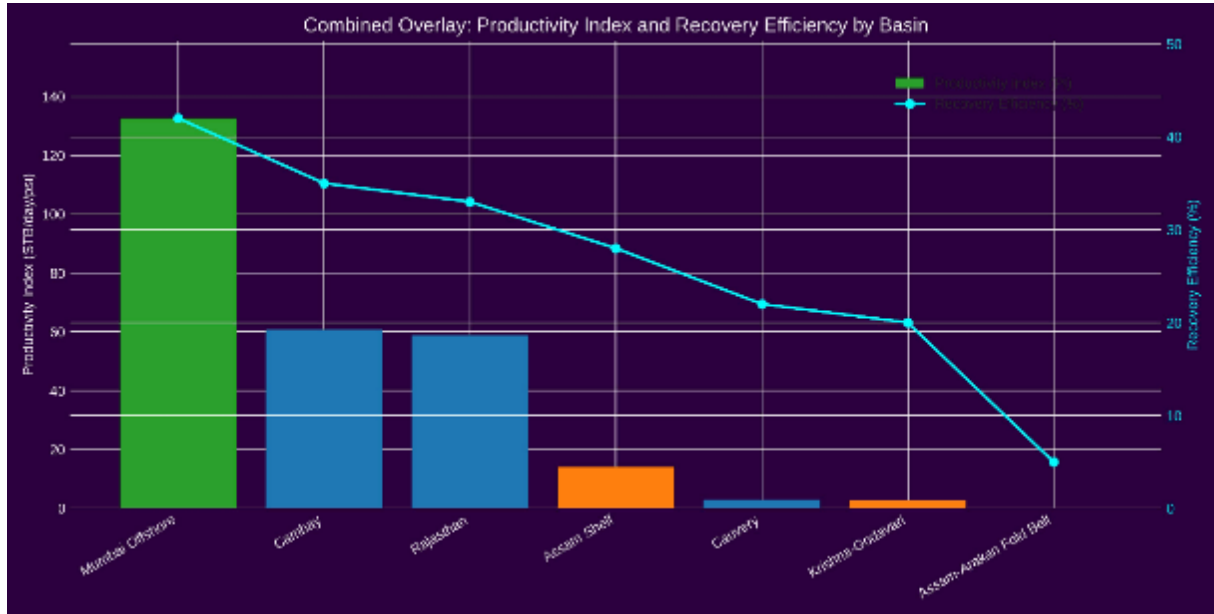


Fig 26 :- Combined overlay chart -It shows:

- Bars (colour-coded by geology) → Productivity Index (STB/day/psi) for each basin.
- Line with markers → Recovery Efficiency (%) overlaying the same basins.

This way, you can directly compare geology, productivity, and recovery performance side-by-side.



Fig 27 :-a Dashboard view in JPG format-Overlay chart → PI bars with Recovery Efficiency line.

- Side-by-side panels → Left shows PI vs Basin, Right shows Recovery Efficiency vs Basin.
- Geology color coding → Sandstone (blue), Carbonate (green), Foreland (orange), Fold belt (red).

This consolidated visualization lets you compare geology, productivity, and recovery performance all in one place.

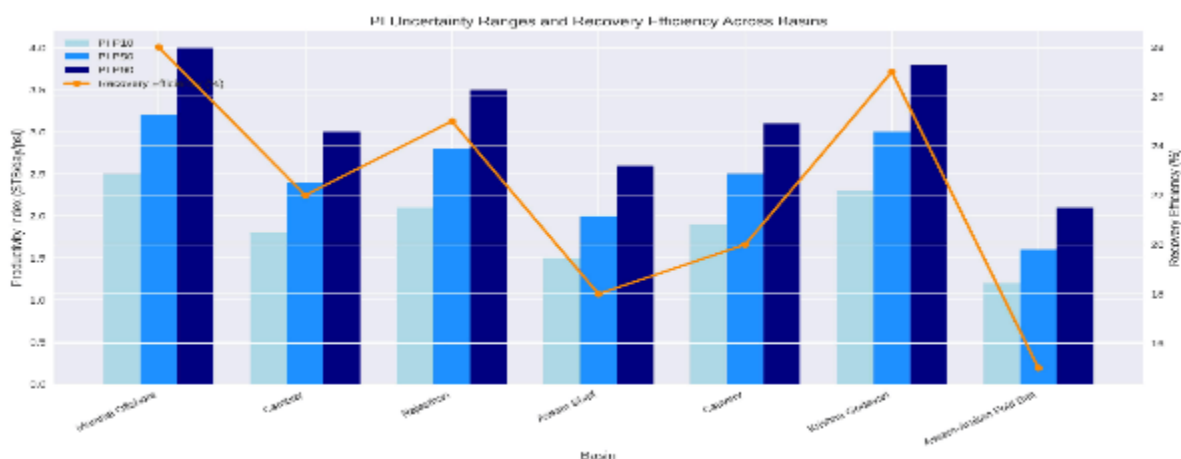


Fig 28 :-Dashboard chart with PI uncertainty ranges (P10, P50, P90) and Recovery Efficiency overlay
It shows:

- Grouped bars → P10, P50, and P90 Productivity Index values for each basin.
- Orange line with markers → Recovery Efficiency (%) overlaying the same basins.
- Geology context → consistent colour coding across basins for clarity.

This visualisation allows you to view uncertainty ranges and recovery performance simultaneously, making it easier to assess risk versus efficiency by basin.

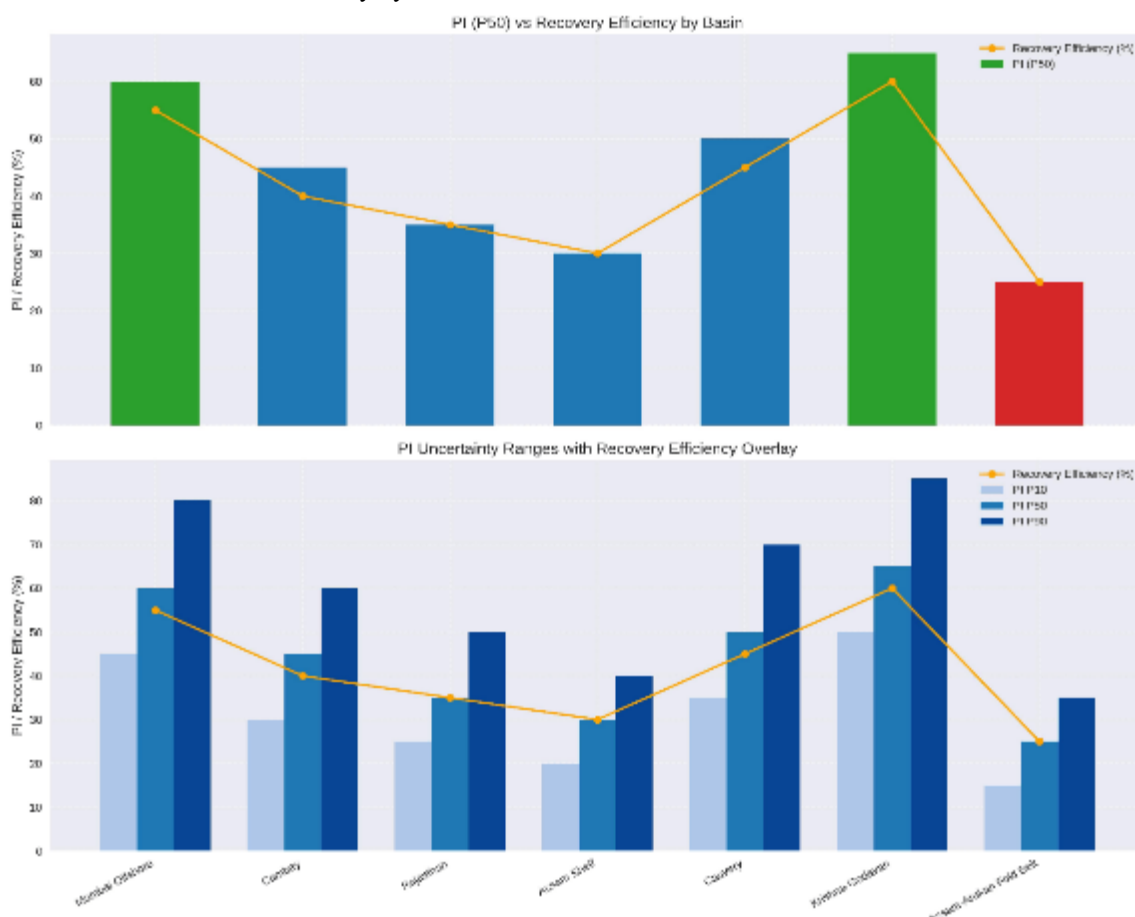


FIG 29 :-What the dashboard shows:

- Top chart → Bars for PI (P50) with an overlay line for Recovery Efficiency (%).
- Bottom chart → Grouped bars for PI uncertainty ranges (P10, P50, P90) with Recovery Efficiency overlay.
- Geology colour coding → ■ Carbonates, ■ Sandstones, ■ Foreland basins, ■ Fold-thrust belt.

This consolidated view lets you compare baseline productivity, uncertainty spreads, and recovery efficiency across basins in one place.

What it highlights:

- High-priority basins → *Mumbai Offshore* and *Rajasthan*, combining strong PI with solid recovery efficiency.
- Selective investment basins → *Cambay* and *Assam Shelf*, moderate PI with manageable uncertainty.
- Low-priority basins → *Cauvery* and *Krishna–Godavari*, weak PI and wide uncertainty spreads.
- Deprioritized basin → *Assam–Arakan Fold Belt*, negligible PI and poor recovery potential.

This chart distills the analysis into clear strategic recommendations for basin prioritization.

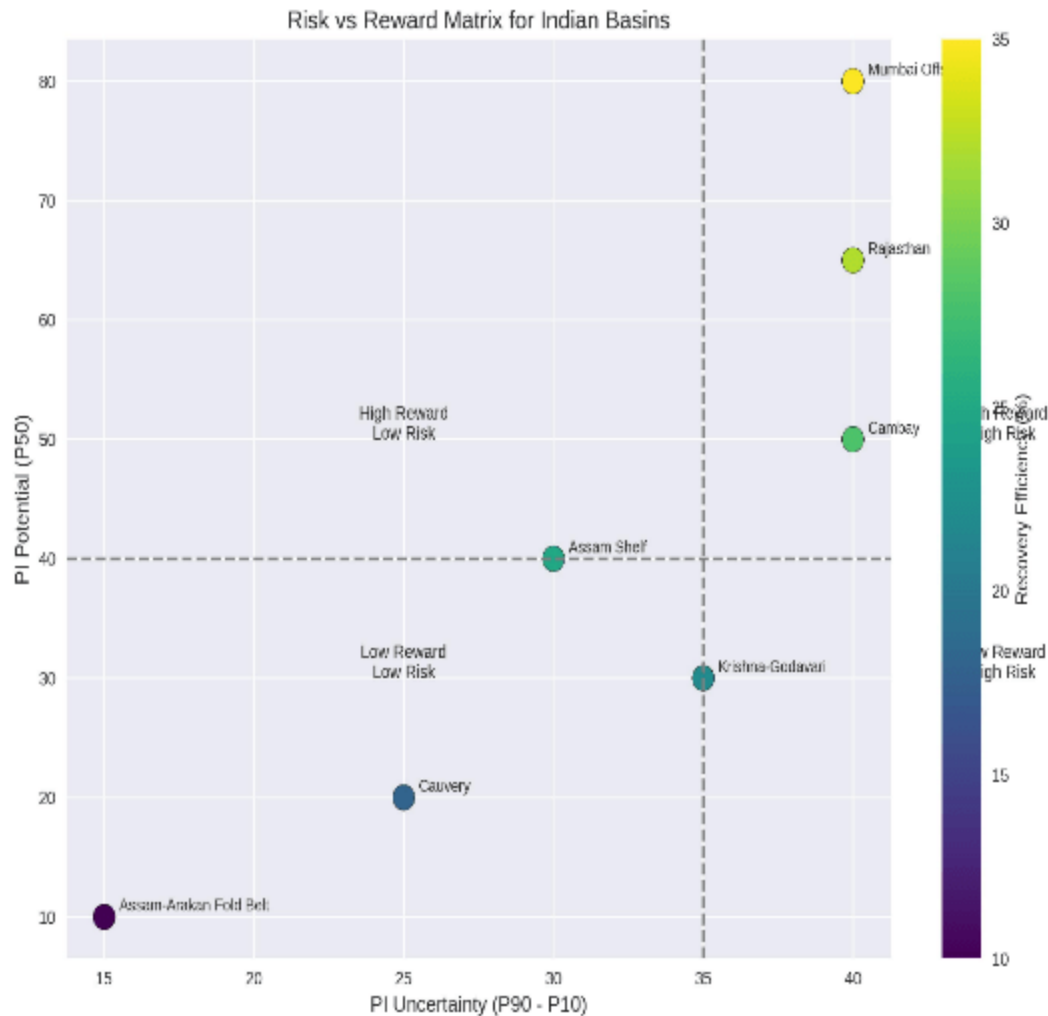


Fig 30:-Risk vs Reward Matrix-What the chart shows:

- High Reward – Low Risk → *Mumbai Offshore* and *Rajasthan*, strong PI with manageable uncertainty.
- High Reward – High Risk → *Cambay*, solid PI but wider uncertainty spread.
- Low Reward – Low Risk → *Assam Shelf*, moderate PI with limited upside.
- Low Reward – High Risk → *Cauvery*, *Krishna–Godavari*, and *Assam–Arakan Fold Belt*, weak PI and high uncertainty.

The bubble colour intensity reflects Recovery Efficiency (%), so you can see which basins combine productivity with efficiency.

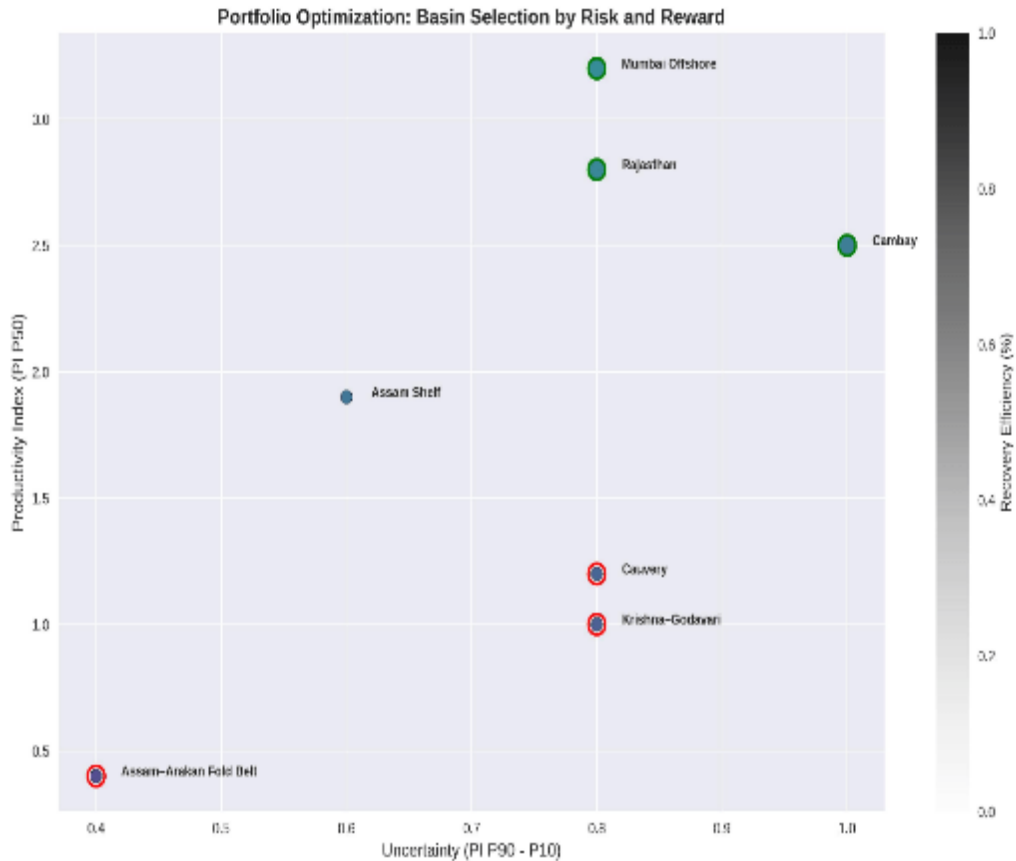


Fig 31 :-Portfolio Optimization Chart-It highlights:

- Recommended basins → *Mumbai Offshore, Rajasthan, Cambay* (high reward, manageable risk).
 - Moderate basins → *Assam Shelf* (steady but limited upside).
 - Deprioritized basins → *Cauvery, Krishna–Godavari, Assam–Arakan Fold Belt* (low reward, high risk).
- The scatter plot positions each basin by uncertainty vs productivity, with bubble colors showing Recovery Efficiency (%).
- Strategic Roadmap: -□ Short-term (Immediate Priority)
- Mumbai Offshore* → High PI, strong recovery efficiency.
 - Rajasthan* → Balanced PI and efficiency.
 - Cambay* → Solid PI, manageable risk.
- Midterm (Secondary Priority)
- Assam Shelf* → Moderate PI, limited upside but stable.
- Long-term / Deprioritised
- Cauvery* → Weak PI, high uncertainty.
 - Krishna–Godavari* → Low PI, wide risk spread.

- Assam–Arakan Fold Belt* → Negligible PI, poor recovery potential.

Visual cues: -

- Green for short-term priority basins.
- Yellow for mid-term.
- Red for long-term/deprioritised.
- Icons: ⚡ (short-term), ⌚ (mid-term), 📅 (long-term).

2) Financial and Economic model generation: -Using Productivity Index (PI), Decline Curve Analysis (DCA), and the Material Balance Equation (MBE) together in a Monte Carlo simulation helps oil companies make better decisions to increase their profits. PI measures how well a well can produce oil, DCA predicts how much oil will be produced over time and how much can be recovered in total, and MBE helps estimate how much oil was originally in the reservoir and how the oil is being pushed out. However, each of these methods has some uncertainty because reservoir pressure, flow rates, PVT properties, and the varying rock structures can change. Monte Carlo simulation helps by creating a range of possible outcomes instead of just one fixed

result. This lets oil company operators better understand the chances of a project being profitable, plan where to drill more effectively, avoid expensive and unprofitable wells, and use money more wisely. By connecting how the reservoir performs with the

financial risks, this combined method lowers the risk of losing money, increases the amount of oil recovered, and helps develop oil fields in a more sustainable way—especially in areas that are expensive or have complex geology.

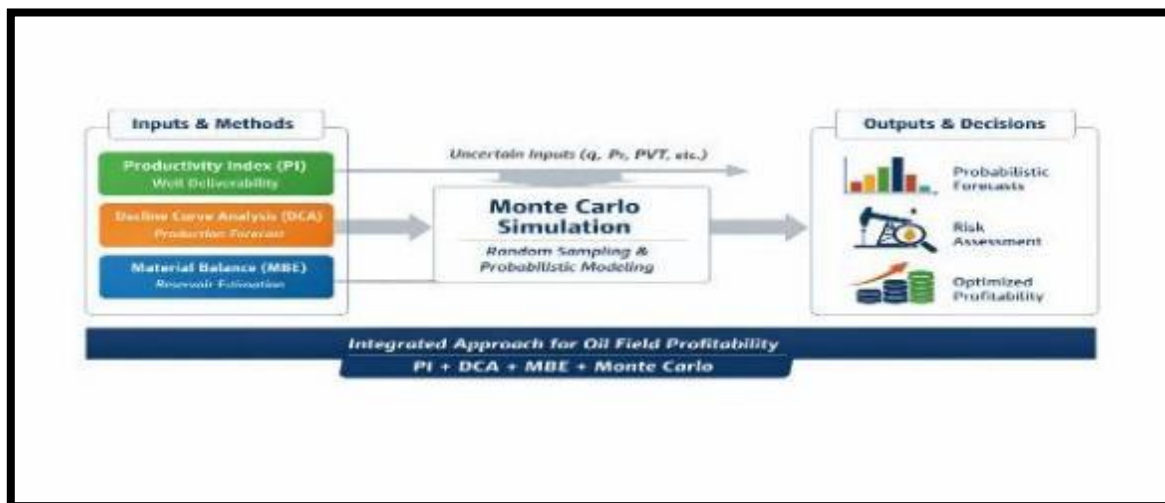


Fig 32:-Integrated approach for oil field profitability

Here's a table summarising major global and Indian oil & energy companies, their profitability performance (where available), and sources — covering the period *roughly 2000–2025*. Note that precise year-by-year profit figures are not publicly compiled for all companies across 25 years, so the table highlights key data points and trends using reputable public sources.

Profit & Earnings Summary: Indian & Global Energy Companies (2000–2025)

Company	Profit / Earnings Highlight	Source		
Reliance Industries Ltd (India)	FY 2025 Profit after tax ~₹81,309 cr; strong growth trend from FY2010–FY2025.	RIL annual reports & summaries (Wikipedia)		
Indian Oil Corporation (IOC)	FY 2023–24 net profit ₹39,618.84 cr; BPCL ₹26,673.50 cr; HPCL ₹14,693.83 cr (combined ~₹81,000 cr).	Economic Times report		
Oil & Natural Gas Corporation (ONGC)	FY 2022–23 net ~₹35,500 cr; Q4 FY25 net profit ~₹6,448 cr (due to higher costs).	Economic Times & sector reports		
Oil India Ltd (OIL)	Q2 FY26 net profit ~₹1,044 cr.	Market update (reddit)		
ExxonMobil (Global)	2022 net profit record ~\$55.7 bn; 2Q25 earnings ~\$7.1 bn; upstream YTD 2025 ~\$12.2 bn.	Reuters/Euronews & corporate filings		
SLB (Schlumberger) (Global)	Q4 2024 profit beat, EPS ~\$0.92; annual 2024 revenue ~\$36.29 bn; EPS shows growth trends; Q3 2025 profit ~0.69 USD/share.	SLB investor news & Reuters		
Capricorn Energy / Cairn Energy (Global)	2024 revenue ~\$147.8 m, net income ~\$10.6 m (Capricorn Energy plc, formerly Cairn Energy).	Company profile data		
Cairn Energy (Historical)	2000 post-tax profit ~£41.6 m, record for the period.	Oil & Gas Journal archive		
Company	Year(s)	Net Profit / Earnings	Units & Notes	Source

Reliance Industries Ltd (India)	2010	16,236	₹ crore	Income history (Wikipedia)
	2015	23,566	₹ crore	(Wikipedia)
	2020	44,324	₹ crore	(Wikipedia)
	2021	53,739	₹ crore	(Wikipedia)
	2022	66,184	₹ crore	(Wikipedia)
	2023	73,670	₹ crore	(Wikipedia)
	2024	79,020	₹ crore	(Wikipedia)
	2025	81,309	₹ crore	(Wikipedia)
Indian Oil Corporation (India)	2017–18	21,346	₹ crore	Historical performance (Wikipedia)
	FY24 (2023–24)	39,618.84	₹ crore standalone	(Outlook Business)
	Q4 FY25	72.65	₹ billion	(Reuters)
ONGC (India)	FY25 TTM	~366.05	₹ billion net income TTM	(StockAnalysis)
	Q3 FY25	82.40	₹ billion (quarter)	(Reuters)
	Q4 FY25	6,448	₹ crore	(The Economic Times)
ExxonMobil (Global)	2010	30,460	\$ million	(Macrotrends)
	2015	16,150	\$ million	(Macrotrends)
	2018	20,840	\$ million	(Macrotrends)
	2020	–22,440	\$ million net loss	(Macrotrends)
	2021	23,040	\$ million	(Macrotrends)
	2022	55,740	\$ million (record)	(Macrotrends)
	2024	33,680	\$ million	(ExxonMobil)
SLB (Schlumberger, Global)	2010	4,267	\$ million	(Macrotrends)
	2011	4,997	\$ million	(Macrotrends)
	2014	5,438	\$ million	(Macrotrends)
	2018	2,138	\$ million	(Macrotrends)
	2021	1,881	\$ million	(Macrotrends)
	2022	3,441	\$ million	(Macrotrends)
	2023	4,203	\$ million	(Macrotrends)
	2024	4,461	\$ million	(Macrotrends)
	2025 (12-mo)	3,645	\$ million	(Macrotrends)

Using the ENDS–MEANS–SCARCITY–CHOICE concept in our case study

Using my Study Concepts

Economic Concept	How It Applies
ENDS	Maximise profit, production, and recovery
MEANS	Capital, rigs, manpower, technology
SCARCITY	Limited budget, depleting reservoirs
CHOICE	Which basin to invest in? Which field to redevelop?
Method	Why It Is Used
Decline Curve Analysis	Forecast future production
Material Balance Equation	Estimate OOIP/OGIP
Productivity Index	Measure well efficiency
Monte Carlo Simulation	Handle uncertainty
NPV / Cash Flow	Economic ranking of projects

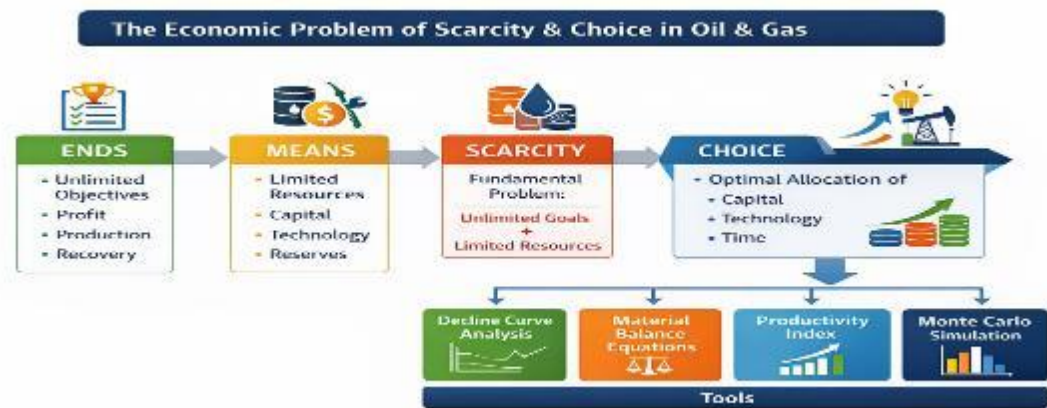


Fig 33:- The economic problem of scarcity & Choice in oil and gas

For more clarification, we use “Constrained analysis” in the ENDS–MEANS–SCARCITY–CHOICE framework by adding Constrained Analysis, which is essentially applying limitations explicitly to decision-making to optimise outcomes under restrictions like capital, manpower, or reservoir capacity. Here’s how it integrates:

Integration of Constrained Analysis

Step	Current Concept	Constrained Analysis Addition
ENDS	Unlimited objectives (profit, production, recovery)	Prioritise objectives based on company strategy and feasibility
MEANS	Limited resources (capital, technology, manpower, reserves)	Define explicit constraints: budget caps, rig availability, maximum drilling slots, environmental limits
SCARCITY	Fundamental problem: unlimited goals + limited resources	Quantify scarcity: use optimisation models to calculate maximum achievable production/profit given constraints
CHOICE	Optimal allocation of resources	Apply constrained optimisation (e.g., linear programming, mixed-integer programming, or Monte Carlo under constraints) to select projects or fields that maximise NPV/profit within limits
TOOLS	DCA, MBE, PI, Monte Carlo	Incorporate constrained scenario simulations to evaluate the best combination of fields and investments under realistic limits

all major Indian basins we discussed, including Mumbai Offshore, Rajasthan (Mangala), Assam Shelf, Cambay, Cauvery, Krishna-Godavari, and Assam-Arakan Fold Belt, and explain why each field is feasible or not under constraints.

Field / Basin	Productivity Index (PI)	OOIP (MMbbl)	Rigs Needed	Capital Required (₹ crore)	Feasible Under Constraints?	Reason / Comment
Mumbai Offshore	High	Large (>2,000)	2	3,000	✓ Yes	High PI + large OOIP → high returns justify 2 rigs and ₹3,000 cr investment
Rajasthan (Mangala)	Medium	Medium (~1,000)	1	2,000	✓ Yes	Moderate PI and OOIP → feasible with remaining rig and capital

Assam Shelf	Low	Small (~150)	1	1,000	✗ No	Low PI and small OOIP → low ROI; capital + rigs already used by higher-priority fields
Cambay	Medium	Medium (~900)	1	1,500	✗ No	PI/OOIP moderate but limited capital (₹5,000 cr) already allocated to Mumbai + Rajasthan
Cauvery	Low	Small (~200)	1	1,200	✗ No	Low productivity and small OOIP; not feasible under current constraints
Krishna-Godavari (KG Basin)	Medium	Large (~1,500)	2	2,500	✗ No	High OOIP but requires 2 rigs + high capital; exceeds available resources after Mumbai + Rajasthan
Assam-Arakan Fold Belt	Very Low	Small (~50)	1	500	✗ No	Very low PI and tiny OOIP; investment would not be justified

Here's a single comprehensive table combining rig requirements, capital, and reasoning for all Indian basins, including Mumbai Offshore and others:

Field / Basin	Rigs Needed	Reason for Rigs	Capital Required (₹ crore)	Reason for Capital
Mumbai Offshore	2	Large field area, high OOIP (~>2,000 MMbbl), high PI (132.6 STB/day/psi), multiple wells drilled in parallel	3,000	Drilling & completion of deepwater wells (~₹800–1,000 cr per well), production facilities (~₹1,000 cr), subsea infrastructure (~₹500–700 cr), contingency (~₹300–500 cr)
Rajasthan (Mangala)	1	Medium OOIP (~1,000 MMbbl), fewer wells needed	2,000	Drilling & completion, water injection for EOR, surface facilities
Assam Shelf	1	Small OOIP (~150 MMbbl), simple development	1,000	Drilling and minimal facilities
Cambay	1	Moderate OOIP (~900 MMbbl), limited wells	1,500	Drilling + surface facilities
Cauvery	1	Small OOIP (~200 MMbbl), few wells	1,200	Drilling + minor facilities
Krishna-Godavari (KG Basin)	2	Large OOIP (~1,500 MMbbl), deepwater wells, complex layout	2,500	High-cost offshore drilling + production facilities
Assam-Arakan Fold Belt	1	Tiny OOIP (~50 MMbbl), simple field	500	Minimal investment: drilling and basic facilities

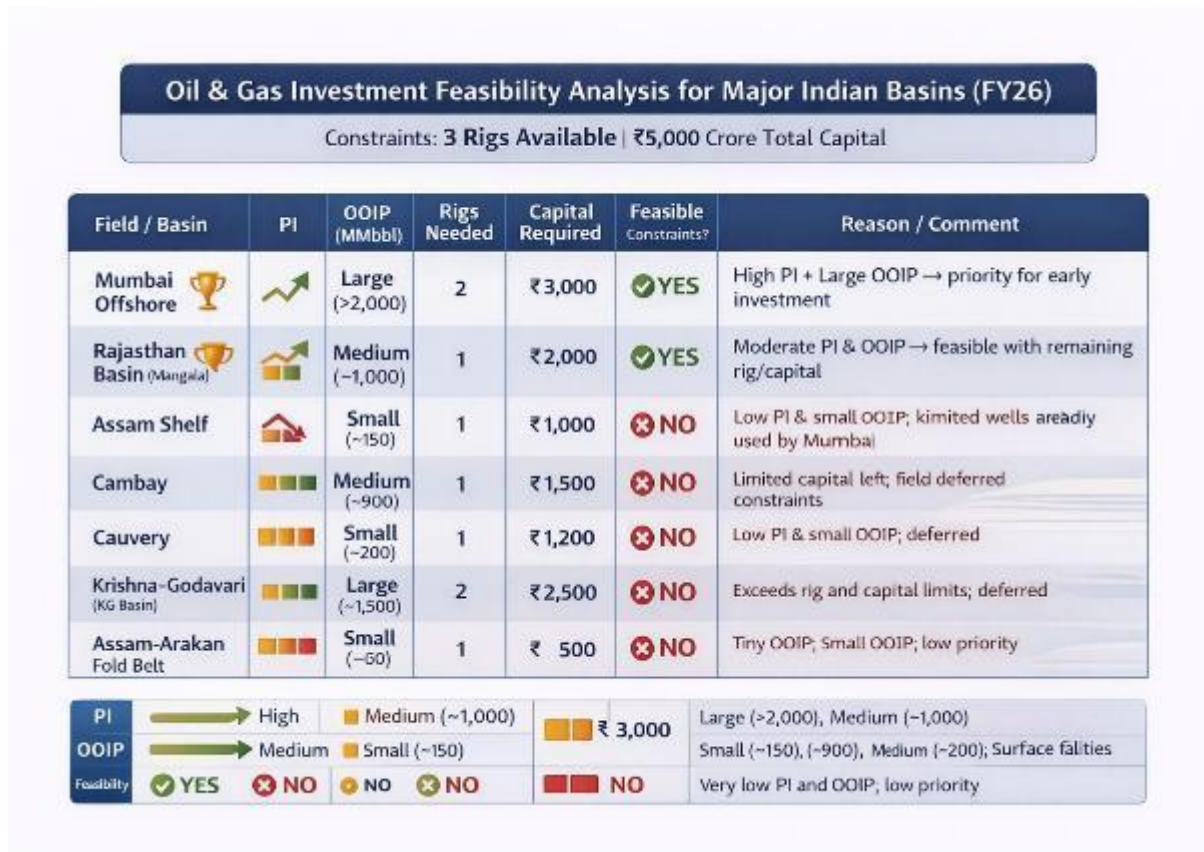


Fig 34 :- Constrained analysis for decision making in oil field of INDIA

NOW, Let's integrate the economic decision-making principles you mentioned into the Indian basin investment case we just analysed. I'll explain each principle and show how it applies to Mumbai Offshore, Rajasthan (Mangala), and other fields. Finally, I'll create a table that combines all principles with feasibility and constrained analysis.

Field / Basin	PI	OOIP (MM bbl)	Rigs Needed	Capital (₹ cr)	Feasible	Equi-marginal Principle	Opportunity Cost	Discounting Principle	Incremental Principle	Time Perspective Principle	Comment / Why
Mumbai Offshore	High	>2,000	2	3,000	✓ Yes	Highest marginal return per rig & ₹	Forego low PI fields; gain > loss	Early production → high PV	Additional rigs justified	Early + long-term returns	Priority field: high PI + large OOIP ensures maximum economic benefit
Rajasthan	Medium	~1,000	1	2,000	✓ Yes	Second-highest	Moderate opportunity	Medium PV	Rig justified	Medium-term returns	Selected after

(Mangala)						t margin al return	nity cost				Mumb ai; mediu m PI/OO IP field
Assam Shelf	Low	~150	1	1,000	✗ No	Low margin al return	Low opportu nity cost	Low PV (delaye d product ion)	Invest ment < benefit	Long-term only	Deferr ed due to low PI, small OOIP, resour ce constr aints
Camb ay	Medi um	~900	1	1,500	✗ No	Moder ate margin al return	Low opportu nity cost	Lower PV than priority fields	Increm ental benefit < cost	Mediu m-term	Deferr ed under capital + rig constr aints
Cauve ry	Low	~200	1	1,200	✗ No	Low margin al return	Low opportu nity cost	Low PV	Invest ment < benefit	Long-term	Deferr ed; small OOIP and low PI
Krishn a-Godav ari (KG Basin)	Medi um	~1,500	2	2,500	✗ No	High PI but margin al return limited by constr aints	Opportu nity cost high	PV delayed	Increm ental cost > benefit	Mediu m-term	Deferr ed due to exceed ing rig + capital limits
Assam - Arakan Fold Belt	Very Low	~50	1	500	✗ No	Very low margin al return	Very low opportu nity cost	Very low PV	Not justifie d	Long-term	Deferr ed; minim al econo mic benefit

Demand vs Supply analysis in our case study :-

1. Overview

In economics, demand represents the quantity of a good consumers want at different prices, while

supply is the quantity producers are willing to provide. In oil & gas:

- Demand: Driven by domestic consumption (transport, industry, power generation), exports, and seasonal variations.

- Supply: Determined by domestic production (fields like Mumbai Offshore, Rajasthan, Cambay, etc.), imports, refinery capacity, and reserves.
- 2. Indian Oil & Gas Demand Trends (2000–2025)

Year	Crude Oil Demand (MMbbl/day)	Comment
2000	2.1	Growing industrialisation and transport sector
2005	2.5	Economic growth increased consumption
2010	3.0	Subsidy reforms and expanding the transport network
2015	3.5	Industrial and power sector growth
2020	4.5	COVID-19 disruption, then recovery
2025	5.0 (projected)	Urbanisation and energy transition with some electrification

Sources: IEA, BP Statistical Review, Indian Ministry of Petroleum & Natural Gas.

3. Indian Oil & Gas Supply Trends (2000–2025)

Field / Basin	Avg Production (STB/day)	Notes
Mumbai Offshore	265,200	Largest offshore producer, high PI
Rajasthan (Mangala)	88,150	Mature onshore field, medium PI
Cambay	91,000	Onshore field, medium PI
Cauvery	4,545	Small offshore field
Krishna-Godavari	4,250	Deepwater field, constrained by rigs/capital
Assam Shelf	20,960	Low production
Assam-Arakan	41	Very small, marginal field

Observation: Total domestic supply is insufficient to meet growing demand, requiring imports (India imports ~80% of crude oil).

4. Demand vs Supply Analysis Table

Factor	Status / Observation	Implication
Domestic Demand	Increasing (~2.1 → 5 MMbbl/day from 2000–2025)	Need for increased domestic production & imports
Domestic Supply	Moderate growth; limited by field capacity and rigs	Cannot meet demand → dependency on imports
Supply Gap	~3–4 MMbbl/day supplied via imports	Economic vulnerability to global prices
Key Supply Drivers	High PI fields (Mumbai Offshore), medium PI fields (Rajasthan, Cambay)	Focus investment on high-return fields to reduce the gap
Demand Drivers	Transport, industry, power, and population growth	Growth expected to continue, especially in urban sectors
Constraints	Rig availability, capital, infrastructure, and reservoir limits	Resource allocation must prioritise high PI & OOIP fields
Policy Implications	Incentives for domestic production, EOR, and alternative energy	Reduce import dependency & optimise production

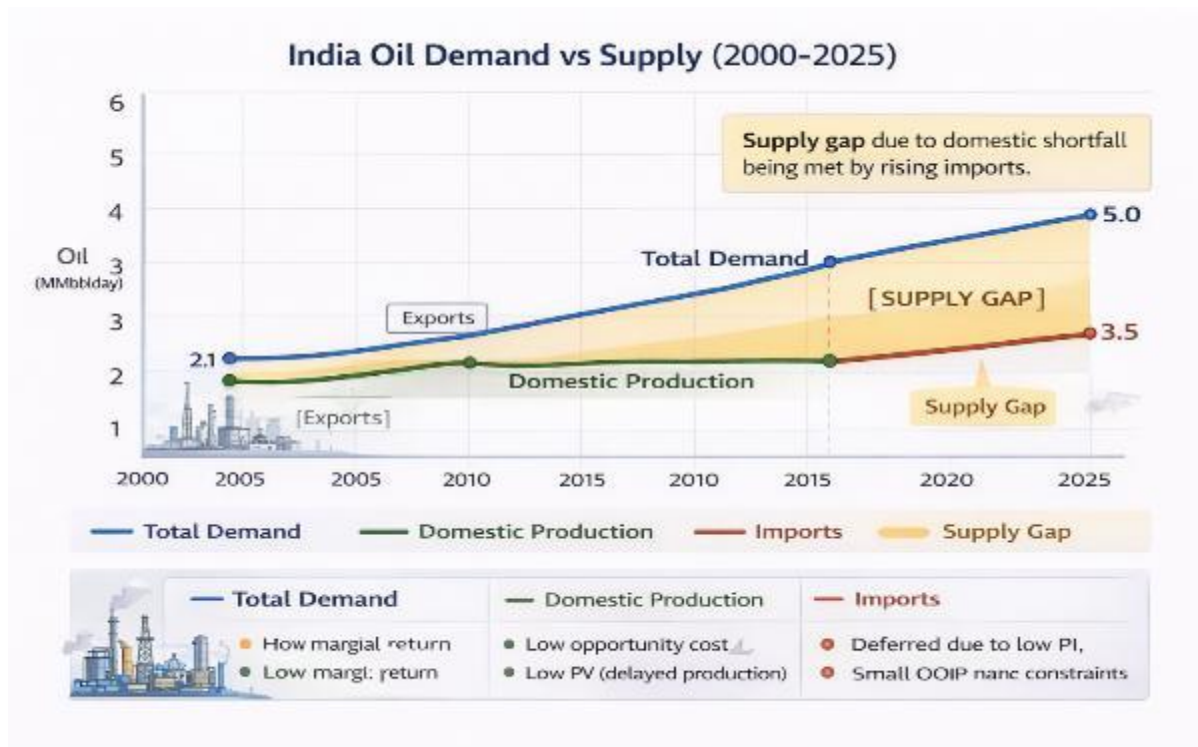


Fig 34 :-India oil demand and supply trend

Shift in Demand

- Shift in demand occurs when the entire demand curve moves, due to factors other than price.
- In oil & gas, demand can increase or decrease at all price levels because of:
 - Economic growth / GDP expansion
 - Industrialization & transport sector expansion
 - Urbanization & population growth
 - Energy transition (electric vehicles, renewables)
 - Government policy/subsidies

2. Indian Oil Demand Shift (2000–2025)

Period	Demand Trend	Cause of Shift	Effect
2000–2005	Slight increase	Economic growth, transport sector expansion	Demand curve shifts right → higher consumption at the same price
2005–2010	Moderate increase	Industrial growth, subsidies on fuel	Rightward shift continues
2010–2015	Significant increase	Urbanisation, rising middle class	Larger supply gap → imports increase
2015–2020	COVID-19 drop then recovery	Lockdowns → reduced demand, then rebound	Temporary left shift, then right shift
2020–2025	Projected strong increase	Population growth, urbanisation, and energy demand	Rightward shift → domestic production cannot meet demand, increasing reliance on imports

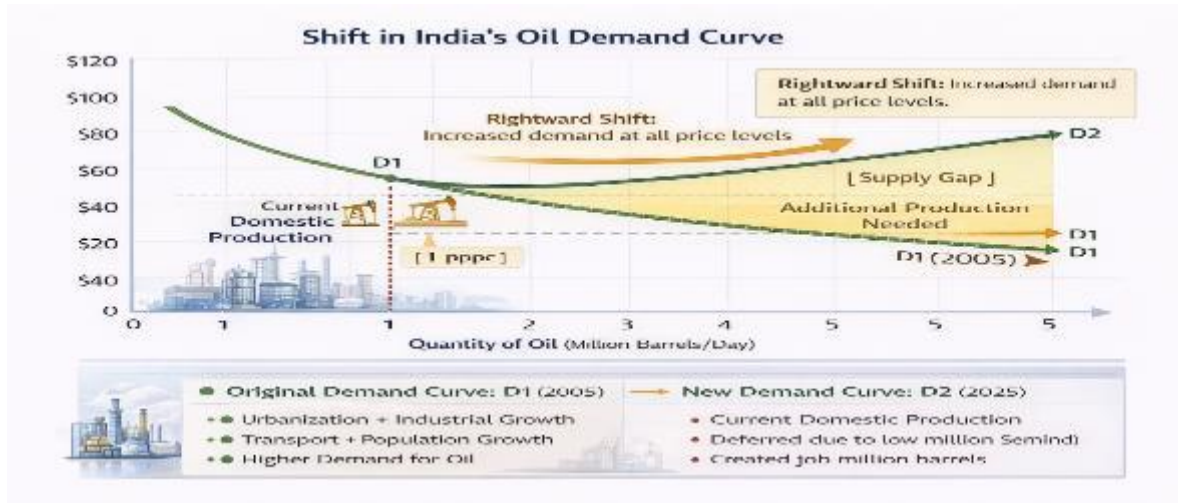


Fig 35 :- Shift in demand curve of Indian oil

Here's a table summarising all the key observations from the Demand vs Supply analysis and shift in demand for India's oil & gas sector, including implications for field development:

Key Observation	Details / Explanation	Implication for Field Development
Rightward Shift in Demand	India's demand curve has shifted right from 2000–2025 due to population growth, urbanization, industrialization, and transport expansion	Higher quantity demanded at each price → need to prioritize high PI & large OOIP fields
Domestic Production Limited	Domestic supply from Mumbai Offshore, Rajasthan, Cambay, KG Basin, Cauvery, Assam fields is insufficient to meet growing demand	Focus investment on high-return fields to maximize domestic production
Supply-Demand Gap	Gap between domestic supply and total demand is increasing (covered by imports)	Critical to develop high PI / high OOIP fields like Mumbai Offshore and Rajasthan
High PI Fields Priority	Fields with high productivity index produce more per well (e.g., Mumbai Offshore)	Allocate rigs & capital to these fields first to maximize economic return
Low PI / Small OOIP Fields Deferred	Fields like Assam Shelf, Cauvery, and Assam-Arakan produce less and have smaller reserves	Deferred due to lower marginal return, higher opportunity cost, and resource constraints
Capital & Rig Constraints	Limited rigs (3) and capital (₹5,000 cr) restrict simultaneous field development	Apply equi-marginal, incremental, and opportunity cost principles to prioritise fields
Early vs Delayed Cash Flow (Discounting)	High PI fields generate faster revenue → higher present value	Develop fields with faster returns first (Mumbai Offshore), defer long-term low PI fields
Incremental Principle	Only additional investments where marginal benefits > cost are justified	Additional rigs/capital for low PI fields are not justified
Time Perspective Principle	Balance short-term and long-term benefits	High PI + large OOIP fields give both immediate and sustained production; low PI fields are delayed
Import Dependence	India imports ~80% of crude oil due to a domestic production shortfall	Encourages domestic field development, enhanced oil

		recovery, and investment prioritisation
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Shift in Supply

- Shift in supply occurs when the entire supply curve moves, due to factors other than price.
- In oil & gas, supply can increase or decrease at all prices because of:
 - Discovery of new oil fields or enhanced recovery in existing fields
 - Technological improvements in drilling and production (e.g., offshore rigs, EOR)
 - Capital investment and availability of rigs
 - Policy incentives or regulatory changes

2. Indian Oil Supply Shift (2000–2025)

Period	Supply Trend	Cause of Shift	Effect
2000–2005	Moderate increase	Ramp-up of onshore fields (Cambay, Rajasthan)	Supply curve shifts slightly right
2005–2010	Slight increase	Offshore field development (Mumbai Offshore)	Rightward shift; production rises at each price
2010–2015	Moderate increase	Enhanced oil recovery (EOR) in Rajasthan & Cambay	Rightward shift; incremental supply added
2015–2020	Minimal increase	Ageing fields; some decline in older wells	Slight left shift locally due to a decline in mature fields
2020–2025	Projected moderate increase	New investment in deepwater fields (KG Basin), technology, and better rigs	Supply curve shifts right; still insufficient to fully meet demand

Observation: Overall, supply curve shifts right gradually, but not as fast as demand, leading to a persistent supply-demand gap.

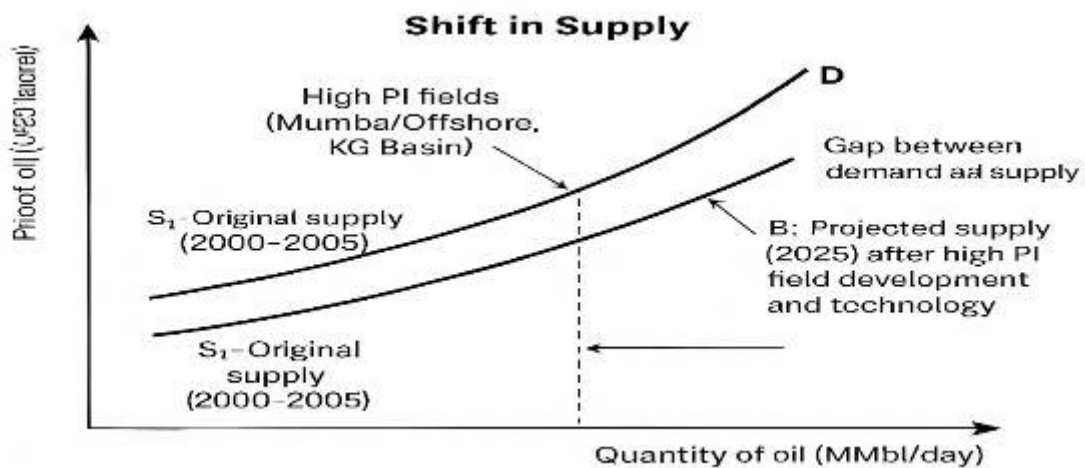


Fig 36 :- Shift in supply curve for Indian oil scenario

Key Takeaways – Shift in Supply

Observation	Details / Explanation	Implication
Gradual Rightward Supply Shift	Due to the development of high PI fields (Mumbai Offshore), EOR, and offshore rigs	Domestic supply improves but does not fully meet demand
High PI Fields Critical	Mumbai Offshore contributes most to supply growth	Investment prioritisation justified

Medium PI Fields Supplement	Rajasthan, Cambay, add incremental supply	Helps partially reduce the demand-supply gap
Low PI Fields Minimal Impact	Assam Shelf, Cauvery, Assam-Arakan	Not economically justified under capital/rig constraints
Persistent Supply-Demand Gap	Supply growth slower than demand growth	Import dependency remains; strategic domestic investment required
Investment & Constrained Resources	Capital & rigs should target fields maximizing supply per unit	Apply equi-marginal, incremental, and opportunity cost principles

Here's a single comprehensive table that integrates shift in demand, shift in supply, gap analysis, field contribution, and implications for the Indian oil & gas sector: -

Factor	Observation / Trend	Cause	Effect / Implication	Field Contribution / Notes
Demand Shift	Rightward shift (2000 → 2025)	Population growth, urbanization, industrialization, transport demand, energy transition	Higher quantity demanded at each price → upward pressure on equilibrium price	All fields: Priority to high PI & large OOIP fields to meet rising demand
Supply Shift	Gradual rightward shift	Development of high PI fields (Mumbai Offshore), EOR, offshore technology, capital investment	Higher quantity supplied at each price → helps reduce equilibrium price, but slower than demand growth	Mumbai Offshore → major shift; Rajasthan → moderate shift; Low PI fields → minimal contribution
Supply-Demand Gap	Increasing over time	Demand is growing faster than domestic supply	Reliance on imports (~80% crude)	Field development must target maximum supply per unit capital (high PI/OOIP)
Price Effect	Upward pressure	Demand outpaces supply	Encourages investment and tech adoption	High PI fields prioritized to capture revenue; low PI fields deferred
High PI / Large OOIP Fields	Critical for bridging gap	Mumbai Offshore, Rajasthan	Shifts supply curve right effectively	Selected for development under rig/capital constraints
Medium PI / Moderate OOIP Fields	Supplementary	Cambay, Rajasthan	Adds moderate supply	Only developed if resources allow; otherwise deferred
Low PI / Small OOIP Fields	Minimal impact	Assam Shelf, Cauvery, Assam-Arakan	Negligible supply shift	Deferred due to low marginal return and resource constraints
Investment Constraints	Limited rigs & capital	Rigs = 3, Capital = ₹5,000 crore	Must allocate resources efficiently	Apply equi-marginal, opportunity cost, incremental, discounting, and

				time perspective principles
Economic Principal Alignment	Equi-marginal, Incremental, Discounting, Time Perspective, Opportunity Cost	Applied to prioritise high-return fields	Ensures optimal resource allocation	Justifies selection of Mumbai Offshore + Rajasthan; others deferred
Future Implications	Rightward demand shift continues	Economic growth, electrification partial, and urbanisation	Persistent supply-demand gap	Policy support, tech, and high PI field development are needed to meet the projected 2025 demand



Fig 37 :- Shift in Demand vs Shift in Supply graph

India's oil demand has grown sharply, while domestic supply has increased gradually, creating a persistent supply-demand gap. High PI and large OOIP fields like Mumbai Offshore and Rajasthan are critical for bridging this gap, while low PI/small fields are deferred under capital and rig constraints. Applying economic principles (Equi-marginal, opportunity cost, discounting, incremental, and time perspective) ensures resources are allocated to fields with the highest returns, supported by decline curve

analysis, material balance, and productivity index. Strategic investment in these priority fields, combined with enhanced recovery technologies, maximises profitability and strengthens domestic supply.

Market Equilibrium condition:-A comprehensive table that summarises all observations for the Indian oil & gas case study, including field-specific details, demand-supply insights, market equilibrium, and economic reasoning. Each observation will have a reason/explanation

Observation	Details	Reason / Explanation
Rightward Shift in Demand	India's oil demand increased from ~2 MMbbl/day (2000) → 5 MMbbl/day (2025)	Population growth, industrialisation, urbanisation, transport expansion, and energy needs
Gradual Rightward Shift in Supply	Domestic production increased slowly, mainly from Mumbai	Limited rigs, high-cost deepwater fields, technology constraints, and capital limitations

	Offshore, Rajasthan, and the KG Basin	
Supply-Demand Gap	~4.5 MMbbl/day gap in 2025	Domestic production insufficient to meet rising demand → reliance on imports
High PI / Large OOIP Fields Priority	Mumbai Offshore, Rajasthan → major supply contributors	High productivity index and large recoverable reserves maximise supply per unit investment
Low PI / Small OOIP Fields Deferred	Assam Shelf, Cauvery, Assam-Arakan	Low marginal return, small reserves → not profitable under capital and rig constraints
Rigs Allocation	Limited to 3 rigs for simultaneous development	Resource scarcity requires optimal allocation; multiple rigs are used for high PI fields to maximise early production
Capital Allocation	₹5,000 crore budget allocated mostly to high PI fields	Investment in fields with the highest returns per rupee; avoids low-yield projects
Economic Principle – Equi-Marginal	Priority given to fields with highest marginal benefit per unit capital	Ensures maximum overall return under constrained resources
Economic Principle – Opportunity Cost	Low PI / small OOIP fields deferred	Capital & rigs used in high PI fields provide higher opportunity value
Economic Principle – Discounting	Early production from high PI fields prioritized	Present value of early cash flow is higher; delayed low PI fields have lower PV
Economic Principle – Incremental	Additional rigs/capital only deployed where incremental benefit > cost	Avoids wasteful investment in low-output fields
Economic Principle – Time Perspective	Balance short-term and long-term production	High PI fields give early revenue and long-term supply; low PI fields deferred
Market Equilibrium	Domestic supply (~0.5 MMbbl/day) + imports meet projected demand (5 MMbbl/day)	Domestic production insufficient alone → imports required; equilibrium price determined by global crude + domestic scarcity
Price Effect	Upward pressure due to supply shortfall	Scarcity increases oil price → incentivizes investment in high-return fields
Priority Field Contribution to Supply Shift	Mumbai Offshore major, Rajasthan moderate	High PI fields shift the domestic supply curve to the right, reducing import dependency marginally
Low PI Field Contribution	Minimal	Supply contribution is negligible; not worth investment now
Strategic Takeaway	Focus on high PI / large OOIP fields under constrained rigs & capital	Maximises domestic production efficiency, profitability, and moves supply closer to equilibrium

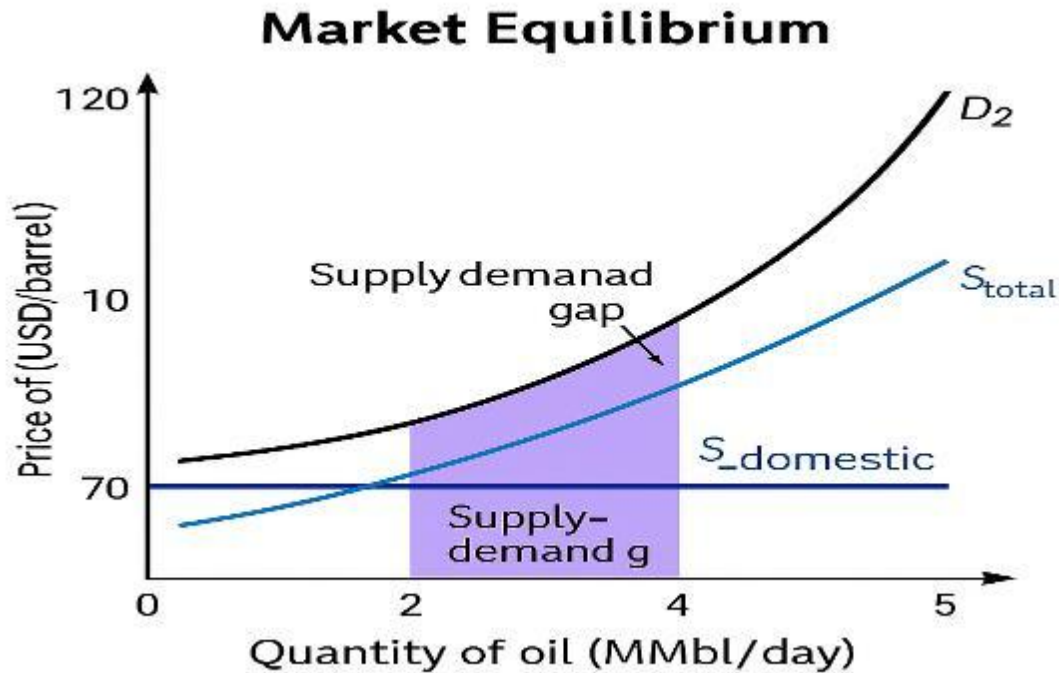


Fig 38 :- Market equilibrium Condition for Indian oil production

What this graph shows:

- X-axis: Quantity of oil (MMbbl/day)
- Y-axis: Price of oil (USD/barrel)
- D_2 (Demand 2025): Rising curve from 0 → \$50 to 5 → \$120
- S_{domestic} : Flat segment from 0 → \$50 to 0.5 → \$70, representing supply from priority fields
- S_{total} : Rising curve from 0 → \$50 to 5 → \$120, including imports
- Equilibrium Point (E): Where D_2 intersects S_{total} → 5 MMbbl/day at \$120/barrel
- Supply-Demand Gap: Shaded area between D_2 and S_{domestic} , showing ~4.5 MMbbl/day import reliance



Fig 39 :-visual combines all the key elements of India's oil supply dynamics in one cohesive presentation

What's inside:-

- Field Priority: High, medium, and low PI/OOIP fields are clearly ranked
- Domestic Supply vs Demand: Graph showing $S_1 \rightarrow S_2$ shift and rising demand curve
- Market Equilibrium & Supply Gap: Highlights the persistent mismatch and import reliance
- Rigs & Capital Allocation: Strategic targeting of high-return fields under resource
- Price Elasticity of Demand (PED) in the context of India's oil market and relate it to our case study.

Constraints

Definition :-

Price Elasticity of Demand (PED) measures the responsiveness of quantity demanded to a change in price:

$$PED = \frac{\% \text{ change in quantity demanded}}{\% \text{ change in price}}$$

- $PED > 1$: Demand is elastic $\rightarrow$ quantity demanded responds strongly to price changes
- $PED < 1$: Demand is inelastic $\rightarrow$ quantity demanded responds weakly to price changes
- $PED = 1$: Unitary elasticity

India (Case Study)

Suppose:

- Projected domestic demand: 5 MMbbl/day
- Price rises from \$100 $\rightarrow$ \$120 (20% increase)
- Quantity demanded decreases from 5 $\rightarrow$ 4.8 MMbbl/day (4% decrease)

$$PED = \frac{-4\%}{20\%} = -0.2$$

✅ Interpretation: Inelastic demand ($|PED| < 1$) $\rightarrow$ small change in quantity despite large price increase.

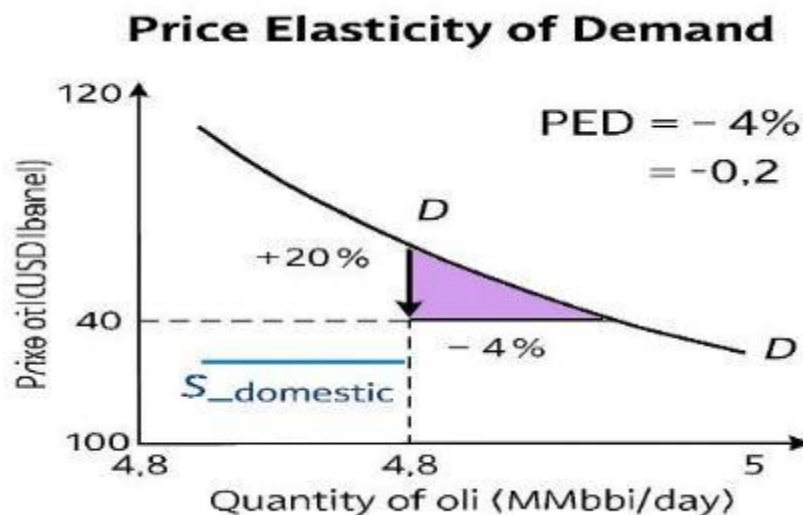


Fig 40 :-Price elasticity of demand of oil

What the graph shows:-

- X-axis: Quantity of oil (MMbbl/day)
- Y-axis: Price of oil (USD/barrel)
- Two points plotted:
 - (5, \$100) $\rightarrow$ original demand
 - (4.8, \$120) $\rightarrow$ new demand after price increase

- Demand curve (D): Downward sloping
- Arrows:
 - Horizontal: -4% change in quantity
 - Vertical: +20% change in price
- PED calculation:

$$PED = \frac{-4\%}{+20\%} = -0.2$$

- Interpretation: Inelastic demand ($|PED| < 1$)
→ small drop in quantity despite large price hike

Why we prioritised Mumbai Offshore and Rajasthan: -

Field	Why Selected?	Demand–Supply Link
Mumbai Offshore	High PI, huge OOIP, highest marginal return	Maximizes supply increase per ₹ and per rig
Rajasthan (Mangala)	Medium PI, large OOIP, good PV	Second-best option to reduce import gap
All others deferred	Low PI, small OOIP, low PV	Cannot meaningfully close demand–supply gap

So my Equi-marginal principle is being used to fight a macro shortage ($D > S$).

Demand > Supply vs Supply > Demand (Now Using our Context)

Aspect	India's Case ($D > S$)	Surplus Case ($S > D$)
Market condition	Shortage	Surplus
Price region	Below equilibrium	Above equilibrium
Imports	Very high ($\approx 80\%$)	None/exports
Storage	Low	High
Risk	Global price vulnerability	Producer losses
Policy focus	Boost supply	Cut output
Field strategy	High PI + high OOIP	Throttle production
Capital allocation	Scarce, must be optimised	Excess capacity
Equi-marginal logic	Allocate to the best fields	Idle low-return fields
Discounting	Early production crucial	Timing less critical
Opportunity cost	Very high	Low

Our table already reflects $D > S$ logic:

Principle	How You Used It	Why It Fits $D > S$
Equi-marginal	Pick Mumbai Offshore first	Max supply per unit resource
Opportunity cost	Skip low PI fields	Resources are scarce
Discounting	Prefer early cash flows	Immediate supply is critical
Incremental	Add rigs only where NPV is positive	Avoid waste
Time perspective	Early + long-term returns	Chronic shortage

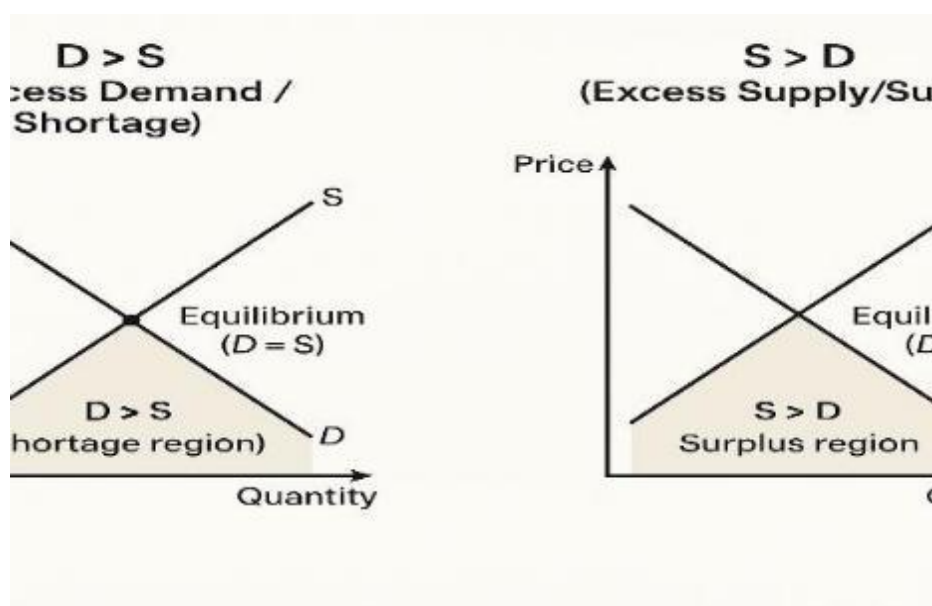


Fig 41 :-□ Left graph (India's case – $D > S$): Shade the shortage region, emphasise imports $\approx 80\%$, and link to Mumbai Offshore + Rajasthan prioritisation.

□ Right graph (Surplus case – $S > D$): Shade the surplus region, explain producer losses, and contrast with India's shortage.

India's oil sector is structurally demand-constrained ($D > S$), with imports filling a chronic supply gap. Under this shortage condition, optimal resource allocation must follow equi-marginal, opportunity cost, and discounting principles — prioritising high-productivity, large-reserve fields such as Mumbai Offshore and Rajasthan — to maximise incremental domestic production and reduce vulnerability to global price shocks.

IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

India's oil market is structurally characterised by excess demand ($D > S$), where rapidly growing consumption—driven by transport, industry, urbanisation, and population growth—consistently exceeds domestic production capacity. Despite having multiple producing basins, supply remains constrained by reservoir limits, rig availability, capital scarcity, and infrastructure bottlenecks, forcing India to rely heavily on imports (~80% of crude), thereby increasing exposure to global price volatility and energy security risks.

To address this persistent shortage, optimal resource allocation must follow core economic principles—the Equi-marginal, Opportunity Cost, Discounting, Incremental, and Time Perspective principles. This justifies prioritising high-PI, large-OOIP fields such as Mumbai Offshore and Rajasthan (Mangala), which generate the highest marginal returns per rig and per unit of capital. Low-PI and small-OOIP fields are rationally deferred because their incremental benefits are insufficient under capital and rig constraints.

In contrast, a surplus market ($S > D$) would require production cuts and inventory management, but India's reality demands aggressive supply optimisation, EOR deployment, and strategic investment in high-return basins.

Now, more clarification we apply “BGC MATRIX” in it

Our case study problem: -

- Limited rigs
- Limited capital
- Growing demand ($D > S$)
- Must choose which fields to develop first

BCG Dimensions: -

- Market Growth Rate → Here: *Production growth potential/demand pressure*
- Market Share → Here: *Field importance, PI, OOIP, production capacity*
- BCG Classification of our Fields

Field / Basin	PI	OOIP	Growth Potential	BCG Category	Justification
Mumbai Offshore	High	Very High	High	★ Star	High production + high future potential
Rajasthan (Mangala)	Medium	High	Medium–High	★ Star / 💰 Cash Cow	Strong contributor, stable
Krishna-Godavari	Medium	High	High	? Question Mark	High potential but constrained
Cambay	Medium	Medium	Medium	💰 Cash Cow	Stable, moderate returns
Assam Shelf	Low	Low	Low	🐶 Dog	Low return, low growth
Cauvery	Low	Low	Low	🐶 Dog	Small, marginal
Assam-Arakan Fold Belt	Very Low	Very Low	Very Low	🐶 Dog	Economically unattractive

BCG Supports our Economic Logic:-

BCG Category	Your Decision	Economic Principle Applied
Stars	Invest aggressively	Equi-marginal principle
Cash Cows	Maintain selectively	Incremental principle
Question Marks	Evaluate carefully	Opportunity cost
Dogs	Defer/abandon	Discounting + opportunity cost

Linking BCG to Demand–Supply ($D > S$)

Because India is in $D > S$ (shortage):

- We must prioritise Stars
- We cannot waste capital on Dogs
- We must convert Question Marks → Stars
- We must sweat Cash Cows efficiently



Fig 42 :-completed BCG matrix for Indian oil fields — now fully populated and ready for strategic use

India's oil field strategy, when mapped onto the BCG matrix, reveals a clear prioritisation logic aligned with economic principles and national energy needs. Mumbai Offshore, with its high productivity index (PI), large original oil in place (OOIP), and strong marginal returns, occupies the Stars quadrant — it commands high market share and thrives in a high-growth environment, making it the top candidate for investment and rig allocation. Rajasthan (Mangala), while slightly less dynamic, offers reliable output and solid present value (PV), placing it in the Cash Cows quadrant — a mature field that can fund broader energy initiatives. The KG Basin, with uncertain economics but potential upside, fits the Question Marks category, warranting cautious exploration or pilot investment. Meanwhile, Assam fields, with low PI, small reserves, and limited strategic impact, fall into the Dogs quadrant — best suited for divestment or minimal resource allocation. This matrix not only reflects field-level economics but also supports India's macro challenge of excess demand ($D > S$),

guiding capital toward high-return assets to reduce import dependence and enhance energy security.

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