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INTERNATIONAL ENERGY WORKSHOP: A PROGRESS REPORT

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FOREWORD

The International Energy Workshop (IEW) is a network of analysts concerned with international energy issues. Its aims are to compare long-term energy projections and to understand the reasons for diverging views. The IEW conducts iterative polling on key energy issues and publishes the results of these polls semi-annually. The poll results are discussed in annual meetings, alternating between Europe and North America. Participation in the IEW is informal and is open to anyone supporting the aims of the Workshop.

This report by Professor Manne of Stanford University and Dr. Schrattenholzer of IIASA describes the status and progress of the IEW in mid-1985. It served as background for the meeting held at IIASA in June 1985.

T.H. LEE

Director

International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis

International Energy Workshop: a progress report

Prof Alan S. Manne and Dr Leo Schrattenholzer

THIS PAPER REVIEWS the activities of the International Energy Workshop (IEW) during the years 1984–85. Our report is focused upon the international oil price. We present frequency distributions of oil price projections made at different times. These lead to two major observations. First, the range of projections is wide, eliminating the hope that there might be at least a near-consensus among experts about the oil price developments. Secondly, the trend (median) of the oil price projections reflects the movement of current prices. The median projection of oil prices in the year 2000 has dropped by almost 40 per cent between 1981 and 1985. This mirrors the trend in current prices between these years.

These two observations are consistent with a “random walk” model of oil prices. This model — like any other model — makes simplifying assumptions, but it exhibits an important feature, i.e. it produces a range of outcomes rather than a single value. The model thus emphasizes the uncertainty of projections into the future. Moreover, it clearly shows that the range of uncertainty widens as one looks further ahead. Basing this model upon the actual annual changes in the international oil price between 1970 and 1984 (and eliminating the biggest change as a statistical “outlier”), a range larger than 1:3 is needed to include the oil price in the year 2000 with a probability of two-thirds. This means that the results of the random walk model suggest an even greater range of uncertainty than is indicated by the IEW poll itself.

Thus, the main result of the IEW is not a “best forecast” but a quantification of the range of uncertainty of the oil price projections. This means that the oil price of the more distant future cannot be assumed as a variable that can be calculated with reasonable precision. In decision-making, it is therefore risky to use any single number for the future oil price when attempting to quantify the consequences of decision alternatives. It seems much more reasonable to check decisions with a large number of possibilities and to hedge against both upside and downside risks.

In the remainder of our paper, we summarize the poll results with respect to energy quantities supplied and demanded: primary energy consumption; and oil and gas production, consumption and international trade.

The authors are members of the International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis at Laxenburg, Austria. They are grateful to Alexander Svoronos for his assistance in the preparation of this paper.

The results are reported from two special surveys. One deals with the role of modelling methods for projecting international oil prices and the other with demand elasticities.

1. The activities of the International Energy Workshop

The International Energy Workshop provides a network for communication between analysts concerned with long-term international energy issues. It conducts iterative polling, compares alternative projections, and attempts to understand the reasons for diverging views. The poll results began to appear in 1981 and are now published semi-annually. They are discussed in annual meetings, alternating between Europe and North America. Participation in the IEW is informal and is open to anyone supporting the aims of the Workshop.

The poll covers only those items that are comparable in existing international energy statistics: crude oil prices, GNP growth, primary energy consumption, production and trade, and electricity generation. Typically, the respondents provide a "surprise-free" reference case. In addition, there may be alternative scenarios related, for example, to different economic growth rates.

No explicit probability estimates are assigned to the individual projections. Each reader is left to draw his own conclusions as to their plausibility. Some of the responses are generated by formal models and some by informal methods. All that is required is that an individual response constitute a logically consistent scenario for a given country or region.

The results are grouped geographically according to a standardized list of eight major regions, plus five individual countries/regions for which there are five or more poll responses. In addition, there is a geographical category labelled NEC, not classified elsewhere. **Table 1** summarizes the regional distribution of the responses included in the January 1985 edition of the poll. Altogether, there were 345 individual responses from 75 participants. On average, each participant provided five responses covering alternative scenarios and/or regions.

Thanks to the United Nations Statistical Office, the quality of the IEW data base has been greatly improved. We are now in a position to compare UN energy statistics (for 1970–1982) with the poll medians for 1980, 1990, 2000 and 2010. Unlike earlier editions of the poll, there is only one area – the international oil trade – in which there are major inconsistencies in the 1980 base year statistics. If the UN energy statistics are taken literally, the world has become a net importer of crude oil and there has been a growing trend in this direction since 1975! Some of these difficulties represent definitional problems (bunkers, products versus crude oil, etc), but others are apparently associated with national secrecy concerning the oil trade.

Table 1
Regional distribution of responses

	No. of responses
1. SU/EE (Soviet Union and Eastern Europe)	10
2. CH/AP (China and other Asian planned economies)	10
3. CPE (Centrally planned economies), sub-total	15
4. OECD	29
5. OPEC	21
6. NODC (Non-OPEC developing countries)	16
7. MKT (Market economies), sub-total	32
8. WORLD, total	22
9. Individual countries/regions	
Canada	5
Japan	11
Latin America	8
OECD Europe	14
US	23
NEC (Not elsewhere classified)	<u>129</u>
Total	345

The IEW is in its fifth year. It has become possible to make comparisons not only between contemporary projections, but also between those made at different times. When making these comparisons, however, it must be recognized that the group of individual respondents has not remained constant from one survey to the next and that this change of the underlying sample could explain part of the observed change.

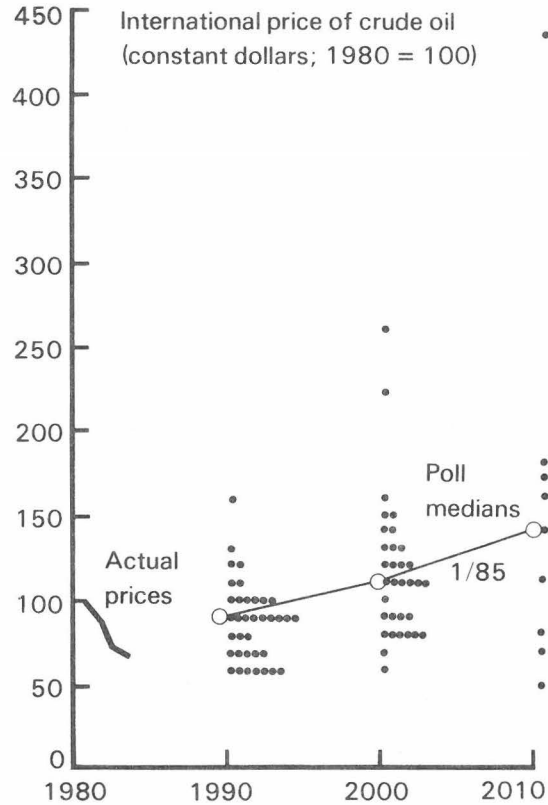
The 1985 edition of the IEW poll contains only those responses bearing publication dates of 1983 or later. It is essential to standardize for the date of publication if we are to obtain a better understanding of the wide range of views among different groups making long-term projections of international crude oil prices.

2. International oil prices

Figure 1 contains a frequency distribution of international crude oil price projections — taking only a portion of the responses appearing in the 1985 poll — those bearing publication dates of 1984–85. Individual respondents/scenarios are identified by a 3–5 character code. These codes, together with the individual poll responses, are recorded in a publication that is available upon request.

Figure 1

International price of crude oil, responses dated 1984–85



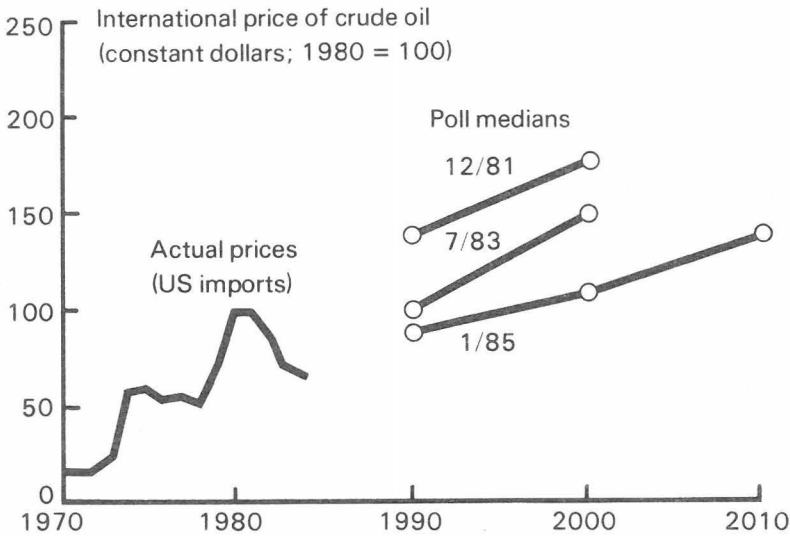
	1980	1990	2000	2010	
Medians:	100.000	89.500	109.000	141.000	
AGABD	100.000	REGLD	163.000	REGLD	432.000
AGABD	100.000	REGLD	163.000	REGLD	432.000
AGAHD	100.000	IFE	125.300	BLNCE	218.000
AGALD	100.000	REGBD	122.000	PILOT	162.000
BLNCE	100.000	BLNCE	121.000	SAUNS	153.000
BP	100.000	ESCEN	106.000	REGBD	149.000
CERG	100.000	WBK	106.000	RESPP	144.000
CHVRN	100.000	CPON	105.000	CPON	140.000
CIESH	100.000	ROL	105.000	AGALD	132.000
CIESL	100.000	AGABD	100.000	ESCEN	130.000
CPON	100.000	AGALD	100.000	IFE	129.200
DOE	100.000	IIAGS	100.000	AGABD	122.000
DRI	100.000	SWEA	98.000	IIAGS	122.000
DRIE	100.000	SAUNS	94.000	CERG	120.000
EIA	100.000	PILOT	92.200	ROL	120.000
ESCEN	100.000	RESPK	91.000	CHVRN	113.800
ETAMC	100.000	EIA	90.000	HNPO	110.000
HNPO	100.000	HNPO	90.000	DRIE	109.000
IIA	100.000	REGHD	90.000	RESPJ	106.000
IIAGS	100.000	AGAHD	89.000	DOE	105.500
IPI	100.000	DRIE	89.000	ETAMC	105.500
NEB	100.000	CIESL	87.500	RESPK	97.000
NRMPE	100.000	RESPM	81.000	RESPM	95.000
PILOT	100.000	CERG	80.000	DRI	92.000
REGBD	100.000	RESPP	78.000	AGAHD	89.000
REGHD	100.000	CHVRN	74.900	NEB	86.000
REGLD	100.000	RESPJ	73.000	RESPL	83.000
RESPJ	100.000	CIESH	72.500	BP	82.200
RESPK	100.000	NEB	72.000	NRMPE	82.000
RESPL	100.000	RESPL	70.000	REGHD	82.000
RESPM	100.000	NRMPE	65.000	IEA	79.000
RESPP	100.000	DOE	64.800	ROWSE	78.000
ROL	100.000	ETAMC	64.800	CIESL	75.000
ROWSE	100.000	DRI	64.000	CIESH	65.000
SAUNS	100.000	ROWSE	64.000		
SWEA	100.000	BP	62.500		
WBK	100.000	IEA	58.500		

Oil prices are shown here as index numbers, expressed in currency units of constant purchasing power with 1980 = 100. To convert to 1984 dollars per barrel, multiply by 0.42. Thus, the 1984 index value = 67 (equivalent to \$28/barrel). A solid line connects the median projection for 1990 with those for 2000 and 2010. According to the conventional wisdom (the poll medians), the oil glut of the mid-1980s will disappear by 1990. OPEC will then increase its market share and prices will begin a sustained climb to 2000 and beyond.

Space limitations do not permit us to provide detailed comments on each of the individual projections. It should be noted, however, that the highest price scenario (REGLD) was not the outcome of an independent model of the world oil market. Rather, it was designed to generate a low demand scenario for a single country, Sweden.

Figure 2 puts the median oil price projections into some perspective. First, they are compared with the historical data on the refiners' acquisition costs of crude oil imported into the US, adjusted by the US GNP deflator (see Energy Information Administration, 1984). If the series were based on currency units other than US dollars — or if it were based upon other grades or locations of crude oil — the precise amounts of change would differ, but

Figure 2
Comparison of poll medians, 1981–1983



there would still be the same general appearance — the two price jumps of 1973–74 and 1979–80 followed by several years of downward drift.

Figure 2 also compares the 1/85 medians with those made at two previous dates: 12/81 and 7/83. The median projection of the oil price in the year 2000 has dropped by almost 40 per cent between 1981 and 1985. This is almost the same as the 33 per cent decline in the real price of crude oil (measured in US dollars) during the same period. Both of these median projections imply a three per cent annual increase in the real oil price between the date of the forecast and the year 2000. These results cannot be explained away simply by differences in the group of respondents from one date to the next.

Like so many other comparisons of energy forecasts, this one has the appearance of a downward-folding fan. For a given date, each successive price path is lower than its predecessor. Yergin et al (1984) describe this phenomenon by saying that “Today’s Vintage V (price forecast) is, like those preceding it, overwhelmingly shaped by the projection of current circumstances into the future”.

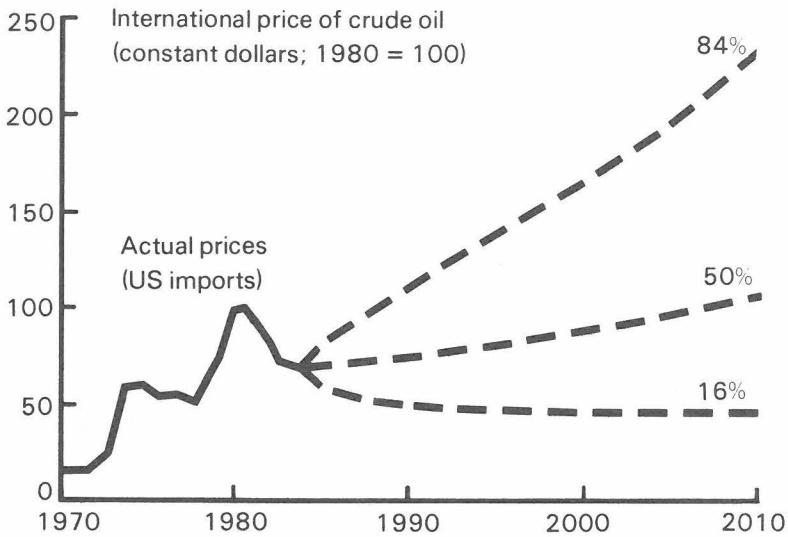
In more technical terms, this may be described as “adaptive expectations”. That is, each new projection begins with the then-current oil price. Past trends are extrapolated linearly (or exponentially) from that point — with or without independent cross-checks.

These ideas may be formalized through a stochastic process known as a random walk model. It is supposed that each year’s percentage price changes are independent of those that occurred the previous year. When accumulated over time, the total change approaches a log-normal probability distribution. This has an important practical result. The range of uncertainty widens with the distance into the future.

In figure 3 (reproduced from Manne, 1985), the “drift” and variance parameters have been based upon the history of international oil prices through 1984. On this basis, there is an 84 per cent probability that future oil prices will lie below the upper dotted line, and a 16 per cent probability that they will lie below the lower one.

The random walk model suggests an even greater uncertainty of outcomes than is indicated by the IEW poll itself. Although this conclusion is based upon a simple model, it appears robust enough to suggest that there is little hope for high precision with respect to long-term price forecasts. Price movements are essential for equilibrating supplies and demands, and it would be desirable to have more precise long-term forecasts. From the viewpoint of a prudent decision-maker, however, all that can be done is to be aware of the range of uncertainty and to hedge against both upside and downside risks.

Figure 3
Results of the random walk model



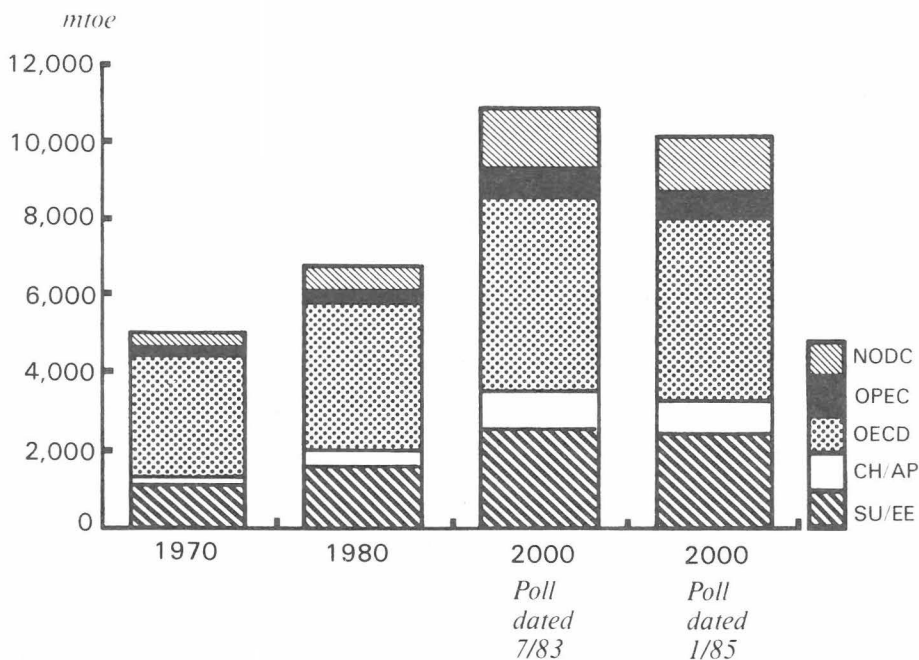
3. Primary energy consumption and conservation

Figure 4 provides an overview of total primary energy consumption. In 1980, the industrialized countries (the USSR/Eastern Europe together with the OECD) had only 27 per cent of the world's population, but consumed 80 per cent of the commercial primary energy. This is much the same pattern as prevailed in 1970 and — according to the poll medians — this is likely to persist through 2000. The developing countries have rapidly growing populations, but will be unable to afford the cost of large increases in energy consumption during the next two decades.

Energy quantities are less volatile than prices. In percentage terms, there are only minor differences between the 7/83 and the 1/85 median projections of GNP growth and total energy consumption for the year 2000. The decrease in consumption (between the 1983 and 1985 polls) is almost entirely due to a decline in the projection for nuclear energy. The overall change reflects the worsening outlook for this specific sector, and cannot be explained by changes in the composition of the IEW poll.

Although the developing countries (OPEC and NODC) will not become major energy consumers in absolute terms, their demands are likely to grow rapidly in relation to past levels. **Figure 5** provides a regional distribution

Figure 4
Total primary energy consumption

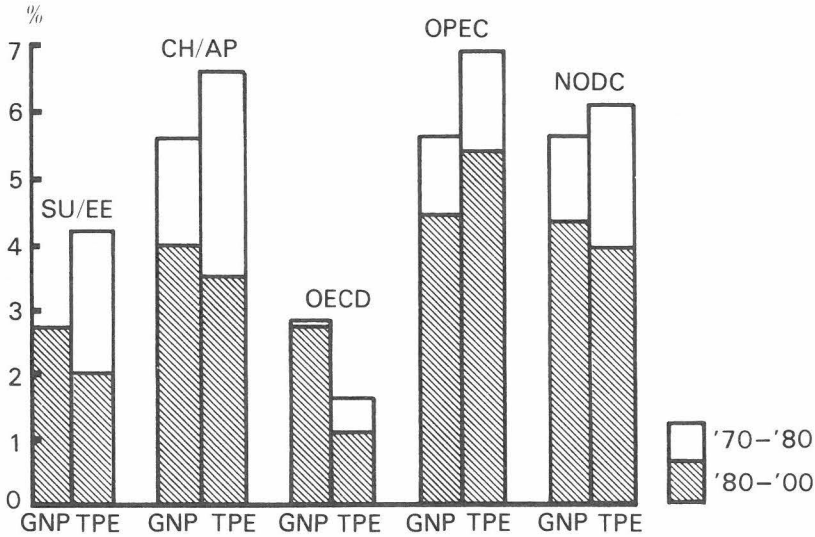


of annual growth rates realized during the period 1970–80 and compares these with the median growth rates for 1980–2000.

According to figure 5, the energy consumption of OECD nations will continue to grow at a slower rate than GNP. In part, this may result from a shift away from exports of energy-intensive products. Outside the OECD region, the median view is that energy consumption will grow at almost the same rate as GNP. In the OPEC nations, this may represent a shift towards export-oriented industries such as petrochemicals based upon domestic natural gas.

For the non-OPEC developing nations, there is a near-constancy of the energy-GNP ratio. This needs further examination. Because of the changing mix between agriculture, manufacturing and services, there may be few opportunities for energy conservation in this region. But there is an alternative view — that the prospects for conservation have not been studied as intensively in the developing nations as in the OECD region. On the demand side, this is virtually the same issue that Odell (1983) has raised with respect to the supply of oil. That is, the developing countries have not yet made a

Figure 5
Annual growth rates of GNP and total primary energy (TPE)
consumption relative to past levels



Note: This figure provides a regional distribution of annual growth rates realized during the period 1970–80, and compares these with the median growth rates for 1980–2000.

thorough exploration of their options either for oil production or for energy conservation.

For a detailed breakdown of primary energy consumption by fuel, see **table 2**. This table includes the contributions from each of the primary sources of energy: oil, gas, coal, nuclear and renewables. The category of “renewables” combines conventional hydro-electric and geothermal along with solar and other renewables. We continue to obtain erratic responses to poll item 16 (solar and other renewables). There are no uniform accounting conventions in this area. At the global level, the 11 individual responses for the year 2000 covered a range from 2 to 2,110 million tons of oil equivalent (mtoe)!

For the year 2000, table 2 includes a category termed “conservation”. This is defined as the difference between the amounts of primary energy from the physical sources of supply – and the amount that would have been

Table 2
Median IEW poll responses on primary energy consumption
mtoe

	(2) GNP	(3) TPE	(5) Oil	(8) Gas	(11) Coal	(15) Nuclear	(14-16) Renewables	"Conservation"
SU/EE								
1980	100	1,567	538	382	588	20	58	-
1990	137	2,015	559	603	684	87	94	132
2000	171	2,348	554	716	752	134	143	332
CH/AP								
1980	100	452	93	13	325	0	21	-
1990	157	618	107	16	456	1	150	92
2000	219	895	158	30	632	7	272	95
OECD								
1980	100	3,790	1,855	743	770	138	278	-
1990	128	4,060	1,690	792	940	358	339	790
2000	172	4,730	1,703	866	1,360	525	424	1,790
OPEC								
1980	100	200	130	59	1	0	8	-
1990	155	331	215	96	9	0	13	-21
2000	236	574	319	166	18	3	24	-102
NODC								
1980	100	739	408	58	157	4	90	-
1990	148	1,078	515	103	263	29	165	16
2000	232	1,588	691	183	373	50	290	126
World								
1980	100	6,745	3,000	1,255	1,805	165	473	-
1990	132	7,978	3,040	1,620	2,341	417	675	925
2000	178	9,855	3,314	1,915	3,025	685	1,005	2,151

Notes: (1) GNP (or GDP) is measured as an index number with 1980 = 100. All other items are measured in million tons of oil equivalent.
(2) The poll medians for individual fuels do not necessarily add up to TPE (total primary energy). Moreover, the medians for individual regions do not necessarily add up to the world totals. These estimates are constructed independently of each other, but are in reasonably close agreement.
(3) In the case of poll item 16 (solar and other renewables), there are wide variations in definitions from one organization to another. Some groups include non-commercial energy in this category and others do not. Because a number of respondents have combined solar and other renewables with poll item 14 (hydro-electric and geothermal), we have also done so here. Poll item 16 (when reported) has been subtracted from total primary energy consumption and production. This adjustment provides for closer comparability with the statistical concept of commercial energy.

consumed if the energy-GNP ratio had remained constant since 1980. This is not an independent analytical concept, but it provides a convenient shorthand way to describe a variety of forces: government directives, price-induced substitution, demand saturation and structural changes in the pattern of GNP growth.

For the OECD nations, table 2 indicates that conservation is likely to contribute more in the way of new energy than the combined total of all the conventional sources of supply. It is unclear whether this outcome is based upon a careful sector-by-sector analysis, or whether it represents a trend extrapolation from the 1970–80 decade with its two oil price adjustments.

4. Oil and gas production and trade

At the regional level defined by the IEW, there is a negligible amount of international trade in coal and electricity. Since oil and gas are the principal commodities that move in international trade, we shall focus only on these two items.

Figure 6 presents the poll medians of the global outlook for oil consumption, production and trade. According to most respondents, there will be only minor increases from the 1980 level of production for the world as a whole. This view is hotly disputed by a number of Workshop participants. They hold that leasing and taxation issues have led the oil industry to systematically understate the geological prospects. On this basis, they estimate that the world's ultimately recoverable conventional resources may be 3–6 trillion barrels rather than 2 trillion barrels (today's conventional wisdom). If the minority view is correct, the world's oil industry can continue to expand through 2000 and beyond. Given the range of views on oil production and consumption, it is no wonder that there are even wider ranges of opinion on how much will be exported by OPEC, the "swing" producer, throughout this period.

For a summary of the poll medians on natural gas, see **figure 7**. At a global level, gas production prospects appear brighter than those for oil. There is general agreement that the resource base in the USSR and in OPEC will permit production to continue to expand, but that expansion will not be possible for the OECD countries. Increases in OECD consumption will have to be matched by increases in imports from the gas-surplus regions.

5. Methods of projecting international oil prices

Among the IEW participants, some groups rely on formal models. Others employ expert judgement and scenario analysis. Each of these approaches has its pros and cons. Formal models may easily become divorced from practical realities. Expert judgements are inherently subjective, and

Figure 6
Oil consumption, production and trade

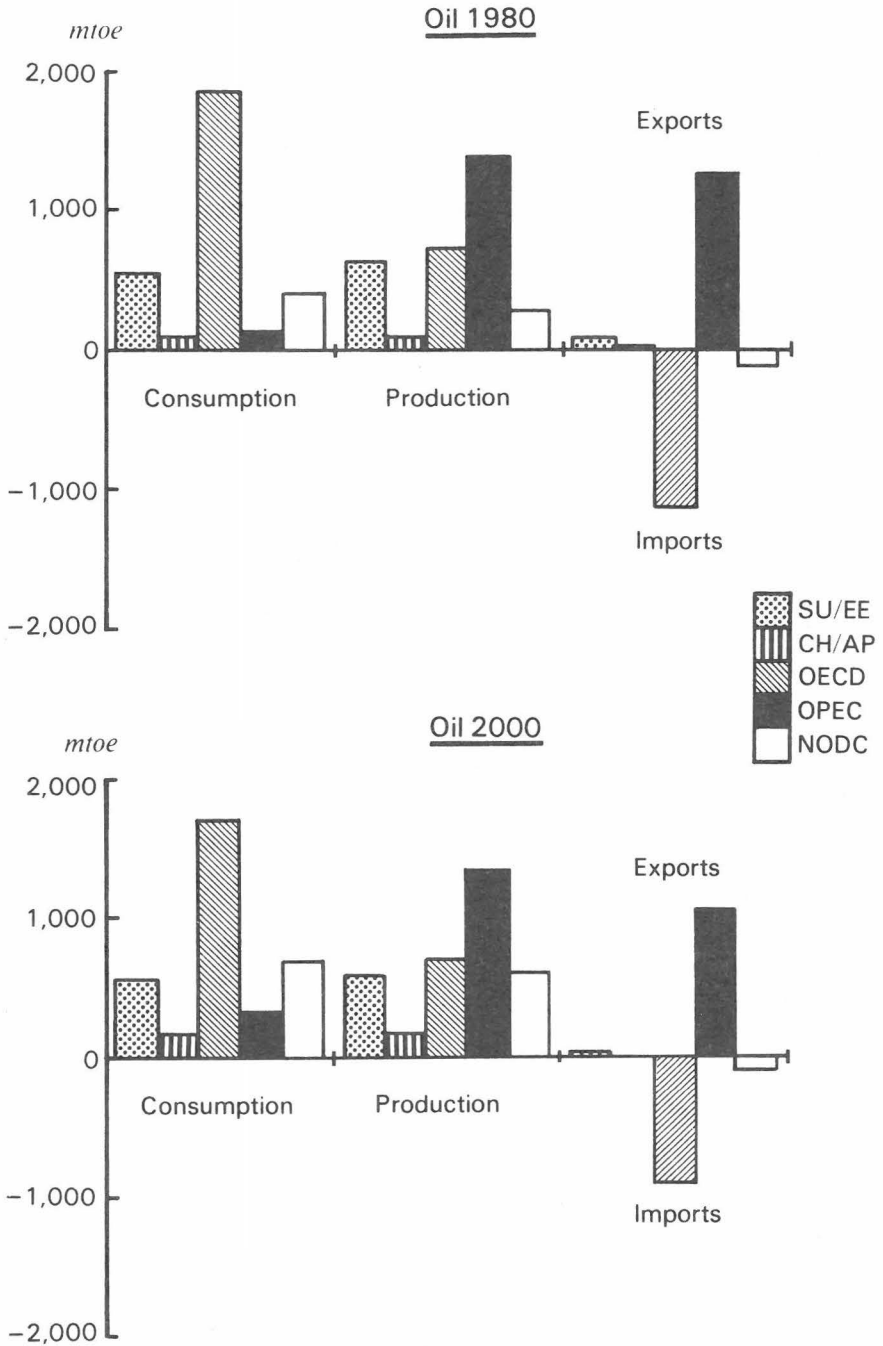
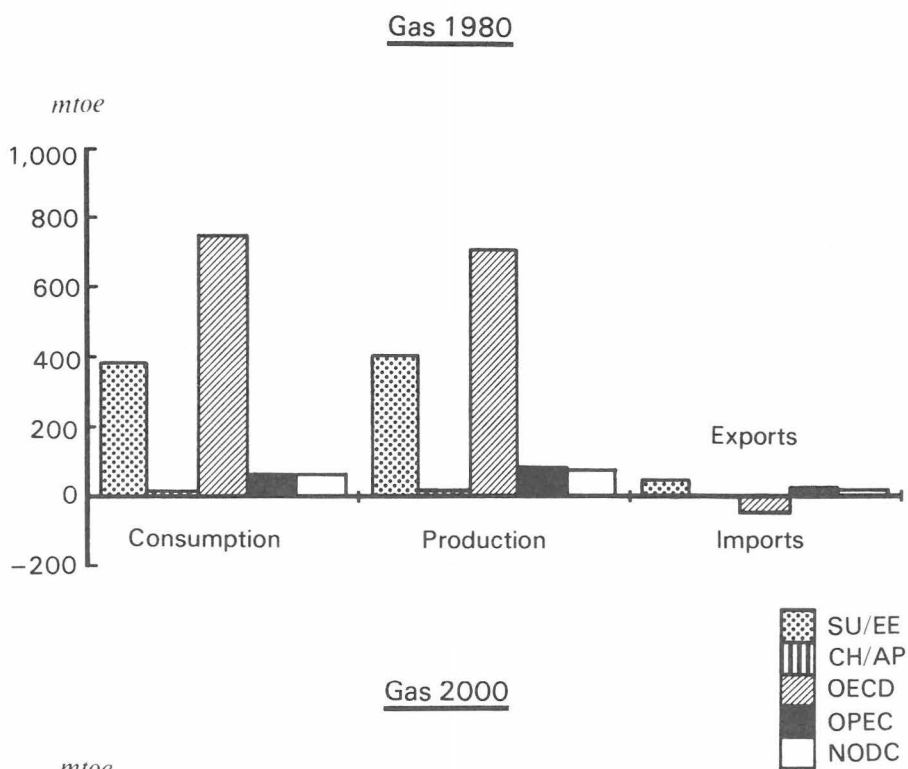


Figure 7
World regional gas consumption, production and trade



may be overly influenced by current events. From the individual IEW poll responses, there is no direct way to determine, for example, whether oil prices represent an input assumption based upon expert judgement, or whether they represent the independent output of a formal model in which prices serve to equilibrate supplies and demands. All that is known is that the prices and quantities together form a logically consistent picture.

In order to obtain a better understanding of the methods used by the poll respondents, we asked them to indicate how they arrived at the international oil prices associated with their projections. To date, specific information is available for only half of the poll participants. In **table 3**, these responses have been grouped into three categories: those that reported the use of a formal model of international oil prices at some point in the analytical process; those where the origin of the projected oil prices is somewhat ambiguous; and those that reported only the use of expert judgements. We are aware that this table is incomplete, and that it may contain inaccuracies. Corrections and additions will be welcomed.

Table 3
Analysis of the international oil market – use of a formal model

Yes	Ambiguous	No, expert judgement only
CIES	AGA	CPC
CON	BP	DRI
CPON	CRIE	DRIE
DOE	ERIEA	HNPO
EIA	ESCN	PIRNC
ETAMC	GNV	REG
GATLY	GRI	RESPM
GULF	IND	RESPP
IEA	RESPI	SHLL
IIASA	SWEA	
ISP	TATA	
RESPX	WBK	
SAUN	WEC	
SINGR		
TRT		
<hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/> 15	<hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/> 13	<hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/> 9

Table 3 suggests that only a minority of poll respondents base their projections upon formal models for the determination of international oil prices. Most rely upon informal methods. Even among those that do employ international oil models, it is clear that the results are cross-checked in other ways. In any case, the independence of the oil price projections is an important problem that deserves further investigation.

Because there are advantages in both formal and informal approaches, a combination of methods may be more reliable than any one by itself. The advantages of a combined approach have been documented empirically in short-term macro-economic and sales forecasting. See, for example, Makridakis and Winkler (1983). In these cases, there is evidence that a consensus forecast may have a lower average error than the individual analyses from which it is built up. The same principles may also apply to long-term projections of international oil prices and the quantities traded.

6. Demand elasticities survey

In the market economies, price changes provide an incentive for energy conservation. Accordingly, it seemed useful to conduct a separate poll on the values of the price and income elasticities of demand that are either explicit or implicit in the IEW poll responses. For this purpose, we concentrated on those in which the international price of oil is an output result rather than an input assumption.

The original poll responses do not enable us to determine whether oil prices are an input or an output. They do, however, provide one clue along these lines. Since oil prices are unlikely to be an output when the analysis is confined to a single country or to a small region of the world, it was supposed that oil prices might be an output of each of the two dozen responses that included both oil prices and the quantities consumed either for the OECD region or for the market economies as a whole. In February 1984, these groups were asked the following questions:

- (a) In principle, would it be possible to make a controlled comparison, employing an oil price or a GNP growth different from your baseline projections?
- (b) In practice, by July 1984, will it be possible for you to send in one or more IEW poll forms, making a controlled comparison (for the OECD region and/or for the market economies as a whole) covering the following scenarios?
 - (i) Gradual productivity gains (or losses) leading to a GNP growth index (1980 = 100) that is 25 points lower (or higher) than your baseline response for the year 2000.

(ii) Gradual oil supply gains (or losses) leading to an oil price index (1980 = 100) that is 25 points lower (or higher) than your baseline response for the year 2000.

In effect, question (a) asks whether the projections are based upon a formal model that is currently operational. Question (b) is divided into two parts. From the response to part (i), one can infer GNP elasticities (holding oil prices constant). From part (ii), one can estimate the price elasticities (holding GNP constant). These questions appear straightforward, but in practice turned out to be somewhat ambiguous. It was not until late 1984 that we succeeded in obtaining nine usable responses. In retrospect, it was an error to have requested price and GNP variations in terms of index points rather than percentage changes. Accordingly, the quantity responses are not reported directly, but are converted into the elasticity estimates shown in **table 4**.

A number of poll participants declined to take part in this survey. Some were unable to do so because their analyses were based upon expert judgement/scenario methods rather than upon formal models. Controlled comparisons then become difficult or impossible. Others were unable to participate in the survey because of lack of time — or because their models were no longer operational. Among the groups that responded, one requested anonymity and is therefore labelled RESPX (respondent X). Another (EIA) was unable to report numerical results beyond 1995.

According to table 4, the consensus view is that the GNP elasticity of oil consumption is approximately 1.0, and that the intermediate-run price elasticity is 0.3. That is, a one per cent change in GNP will lead to a one per cent change in oil consumption — holding prices and other demand determinants constant; and a one per cent increase in crude oil prices will lead to a three per cent decline in consumption — holding GNP, etc, constant.

Among the GNP elasticities, the only significantly different value from unity is that of Singer (1983) — here abbreviated SINGR. His poll response is based on a case in which the total OECD demand for oil would grow at 1.5 per cent per year if prices remained constant. This may be interpreted in terms of a GNP elasticity of 0.6 and a GNP growth rate of 2.5 per cent per year. The low GNP elasticity goes a long way towards explaining why Singer's oil price projections are so much lower than others.

Because of one unanticipated difficulty, the price elasticities are labelled as intermediate, rather than long run. That is, the questionnaire asked the participants to run their models with gradual rather than sudden changes. A gradual change is more realistic in appearance, but is not as efficient for computing a long-run price elasticity. In several of these models, no

Table 4
Elasticities of oil demand

Respondent	Region	Oil price elasticity, intermediate run (absolute value)	GNP elasticity
CIES	OECD	0.54	1.00
CIES	MKT	0.31	1.00
CON	MKT	0.57	-
CON	MKT	0.44	-
CON	MKT	-	0.98
CON	MKT	-	1.02
EIA	MKT	0.28	-
GATLY	MKT	0.32	-
GATLY	MKT	0.30	-
GATLY	MKT	-	0.99
GATLY	MKT	-	0.98
GULF	MKT	0.17	1.00
IIASA	OECD	0.10	-
IIASA	OECD	-	0.86
RESPX	OECD	0.33	-
RESPX	MKT	0.26	-
SINGR	OECD	0.34	0.60
TRT6	OECD	0.29	1.00
TRT6	MKT	0.25	1.00

more than half of the full long-term response will have occurred by the year 2000. With the benefit of hindsight, this difficulty could have been avoided by asking respondents to complete the oil supply or the income changes by 1990 rather than 2000. Having failed to do this, the price elasticity estimates are described as intermediate run. Independent evidence suggests that the long-run price elasticities may have twice the values shown here.

For five of the nine respondents, the value of the intermediate-run price elasticity is approximately 0.3. These five estimates may not be altogether

independent. Three participated in the world oil study undertaken by the Energy Modelling Forum (1982). There, all the models were run under the general guideline that 0.6 was the long-run price elasticity of demand for crude oil. This was exactly the numerical value adopted for the OECD region in the scenario described here as TRT6 (Manne and Preckel). This was also the elasticity input assumption adopted by IEW respondent GATLY (Gately).

Among the price elasticities shown in table 4, the lowest value is 0.1 (reported by IIASA). This result can be traced directly to the methodology employed in the IIASA global energy studies. GNP growth and the MEDEE accounting framework together determine the demands for "useful" energy services. Accordingly, energy prices affect interfuel substitution, but not the level of useful energy demands. This appears to be the principal reason for the low price elasticities of oil consumption that are implicit in the IIASA results.

A value of 0.54 (for CIES) is the highest among the intermediate-run price elasticities shown in table 4. It is unclear whether this response represents a controlled comparison between the price and the income effects of additional oil supplies. If this does represent a controlled comparison, the CIES scenarios imply that oil prices have an extraordinarily high impact upon long-term GNP growth rates. For the OECD region in the year 2000, the GNP index is 197 in CIESH versus 173 in CIESL (the high versus low demand scenario).

7. Concluding comment

This paper has shown that there continues to be a wide range of viewpoints on the long-range outlook for international energy supplies, demands and prices. Rather than attempt to promote an artificial consensus in this area, we believe that the role of the IEW is to reach second-order agreement. That is, how wide is the range of uncertainty likely to be? At a number of points, we have reported median values, but these are not intended as the best or the most likely forecasts. We use these because they represent perhaps the most descriptive single summary description of the responses. Any translation from poll results into probability distributions is at the risk of the translator.

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APPENDIX A-1

International Energy Workshop poll

Country/Region _____

Organization/Project _____

Reference (including date) of most recent report _____

	1980	1990	2000	2010
Index numbers, constant purchasing power, 1980 = 100				
1. International price of crude oil (e.g. Arabian Light)	100			
2. Real GNP (or GDP)	100			
Primary energy, commercial, million tons of oil equivalent (mtoe) ¹				
3. Total consumption				
4. Total production				
5. Oil, consumption ²				
6. Oil, production ²				
7. Oil, exports – imports ²				
8. Natural gas, consumption				
9. Natural gas, production				
10. Natural gas, exports – imports				
11. Coal, consumption ³				
12. Coal, production ³				
13. Coal, exports – imports ³				
14. Hydro-electric and geothermal				
15. Nuclear energy				
16. Solar and other renewables				
Secondary energy, terrawatt-hours (TWh)				
17. Total electricity generation				

1. Useful approximations: 1 mtoe $\approx 10^{13}$ kilocalories
 0.65 mtoe ≈ 1 million tons coal
 0.83 mtoe ≈ 1 billion cubic metres natural gas
 23 mtoe ≈ 1 quad BTU
 50 mtoe/year ≈ 1 million barrels daily

2. Oil includes natural gas liquids, unconventional oils and synthetics based on tar sands and shale oil.

3. Coal includes solid fuels such as lignite and peat. Includes coal consumed for manufacture of synthetic fuels.

APPENDIX A-2

IEW poll respondents, January 1985

This includes only those responses dated 1983 or later.

	Organization/projects	Last year reported	Country/region coverage
AGABD, AGAHD, AGALD	American Gas Association – base, low, high demand. May 1984	2000	US
ASSU	Academy of Sciences of the USSR, June 1983	2010	USSR
BLNCE	BALANCE Canadian Energy Model, T.E. Daniel and H.M. Goldberg, University of Alberta, January 1984	2000	Canada
BNL	Brookhaven National Laboratory, 1983	2010	US
BP	British Petroleum, October 1984	2000	4, 7, 5+6. OECD Europe, US
CEC, CECCP, CECEU, CECFC	Commission of the European Communities – cooperation, Europe and free competition scenarios, and results identical for all three scenarios, June 1983	2000	Belgium, Denmark, Federal Rep. of Germany, France, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, UK
CERG	Cambridge Energy Research Group, 1985	2010	4,7
CHASE	Chase Manhattan Bank, March 1983	2000	7
CHVRN	Chevron Corporation, July 1984	2010	4
CIESH, CIESL	Center for International Energy Studies, Erasmus University – high and low energy growth, October 1984	2010	3-8
CON	Conoco, April 1984	2000	4-7, 5+6, Africa, Asia, Japan, Latin America, Middle East, OECD Europe, other OECD, US

CPOM	Central Planning Office, Netherlands, October 1984	2000	Netherlands
CRAN	A. Cranston, US Senate, August 1983	2000	US
CRIEH, CRIEL, CRIER	Central Research Institute of Electric Power Industry – high, low and reference GNP growth, November 1983	2010	Japan
CZMOE	Czechoslovakian Federal Ministry of Fuel and Energy	2000	Czechoslovakia
DNMOE	Danish Ministry of Energy, 1983	2000	Denmark
DOE	US Department of Energy, Office of Economic Analysis, January 1985	2010	4–7, US
DRI	Data Resources Inc., November 1984	2000	4, 5, 6, US
DRIE	DRI Europe, September 1984	2000	OECD Europe
EEF	UN Economic Commission for Europe, General Energy Unit, “An Efficient Energy Future”, March 1983	2000	1, US
EIA	US Energy Information Administration – 1990 mid-price scenario, 1984	1990	4, 7, 5+6, OECD Europe/North America/Pacific
ENI	Ente Nazionale Idrocarburi, 1983	1990	4
EPRIM, EPRIR	O. Yu. Electric Power Research Institute – minimum and reasonable expectations, December 1983	2000	US
ERIEA	J. Edmonds and J. Reilly, Institute for Energy Analysis, July 1983	2000	1–4, 7, 8, Middle East, other market economies
ESCN	Energy Study Centre, Netherlands, December 1984	2000	Netherlands
ETAMC	ETA-MACRO, J.-L. Aburto, A.S. Manne and S. Rogers, Trinational Project, January 1985	2010	Canada, Mexico, US

ETSHD ETSLD	Energy Technology Systems Analysis Project of the International Energy Agency – high and low demand cases, 1983	2010	Australia, Austria, Belgium, Federal Rep. of Germany, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, UK, US: Sum of 14 IEA countries
GATLY	D. Gately, New York University, 1983	2000	5, 7
GNVBD, GNVHD, GNVLD	University of Geneva – base, high and low demand, August 1983	2000	Switzerland
GRI	Gas Research Institute, October 1984	2000	US
GULFC, GULFH, GULFP	Gulf Oil Corporation, Economics Division, slow climb, hard lines and plateau scenarios, December 1983	2000	7, US
HNPO	Hungarian National Planning Office, Energy Modelling Group, January 1984	2010	Hungary
IAEAH, IAEAL	International Atomic Energy Agency – high and low demand, September 1984	2000	4, Eastern Europe, Latin America, OECD Europe/ North America/ Pacific
IEA	International Energy Agency, 1984	2000	4
IFPF, IFPM, IFPS	Institut Francais du Petrole – solid and moderate revival, stagnation, September 1983	2000	3–8
IIAGS	International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis – gas study, July 1984	2010	OECD Europe
IIASA	International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis, November 1983	2010	1–4, 7–8
INBST	J. Brady, National Board for Science and Technology, Ireland, April/May 1983	2010	Ireland

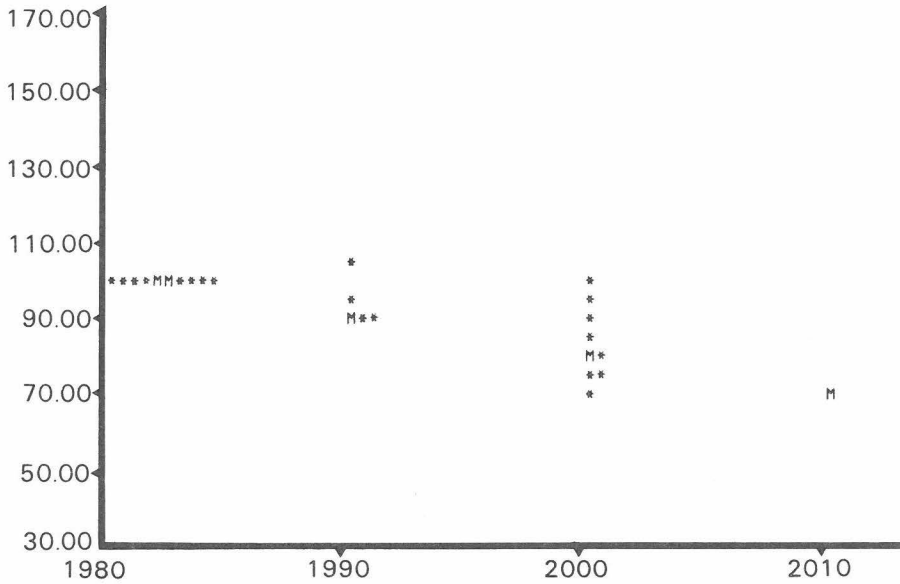
IND	Standard Oil Company of Indiana, May 1984	2000	1-8, other markets, other CPE
IPE	IPE Model, M. Choucri, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, April 1984	2000	4-7
ISP	K.-P. Moeller, ISP Energy Projections, 1983	2000	Federal Rep. of Germany
JAERI	Japan Atomic Energy Research Institute, March 1983	2010	Japan
LEDB	W.J. Schmidt, University of Mining and Metallurgy, Leoben, 1983	2010	8
MERZ	N. Merzagora, Economic Analysis Division, ENEA, June 1983	2000	Italy
NEB	National Energy Board, September 1984	2000	Canada
NGODP	International Natural Gas Study, Harvard University, and the OPEC Downstream Project, East-West Centre, B. Mossavar-Rahmani and F. Fesharaki, 1983	1990	5; Algeria, Ecuador, Gabon, Indonesia, I.R. Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, S.P. Libyan A.J., Nigeria, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, UAE, Venezuela
NRMPE	Norwegian Royal Ministry of Petroleum and Energy, 1984	2000	Norway
OBENA, OBENB	Observatoire de l'Energie – scenarios A and B, January 1983	2000	France
OLADE	Organization Latinoamericana de Energia, May 1983	2000	Latin America
OPEC, OPECD	Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries – long-term energy models, domestic energy requirements, 1983	2010	4-7
PILOT	PILOT Model, P.H. McAllister and Model, Stanford University, March 1984	2000	US
PIRMC	Petroleum Industry Research Foundation, Inc., September 1983	2000	3, 7, 8

REGBD, REGHD, REGLD	L. Lundqvist, Research Group for Urban and Regional Planning – base, high and low demand, 1984	2010	Sweden
RESPH	Respondent, H, 1983	2000	Japan
RESPI	Respondent, I, 1983	2000	7; 5+6, Japan, OECD Europe, US
RESPJ	Respondent, J, March 1984	2000	Canada, Mexico, US
RESPK, RESPL	Respondents, K, L, December 1984	2000	4, 5, US
RESPM, RESPP	Respondents M, P, December 1984	2000	8
ROL	K. Roland, Central Bureau of Statistics, Norway, February 1984	2000	OECD Europe
ROWSE	J. Rowse, University of Calgary, November 1984	2000	Canada
SAUNS, SAUNV	H. Saunders, TOSCO, smooth and volatile scenarios, January 1984	2000	3–7
SHLLM, SHLLR	Shell International – muddling-through and restructuring, December 1984	2000	7, 8
SINGR	S.F. Singer, 1983	2010	4
SMIE1, SMIE2	Spanish Ministry of Industry and Energy – scenarios 1 and 2, 1983	2000	1, 2, 8, Africa, Japan, Latin America, Middle East, OECD Europe/North America/America, South Asia, South-East Asia, and Australasia
SMIL	V. Smil, University of Manitoba, 1983	2010	3, 8
SWEA	Swedish National Energy Administration, December 1984	1990	Sweden

TATA	R.K. Pachawri, Tata Energy Research Institute, 1983	2010	India
TAVNR	TAVANIR Corporation, Energy Ministry of Iran, April 1984	2010	I.R. Iran
TRT4, TRT6	TRT Model, A.S. Manne and P.V. Preckel, Stanford University – elasticities of OECD oil demand substitution = .40, .60, December 1983	2000	4–7
UN	United Nations Statistical Office, June 1984	1980	1–8
UNIDO	United Nations Industrial Development Organization, February 1983	1990	2, Eastern Europe, Japan, Latin America, OECD Europe/North America
WBK	World Bank, 1984	1990	1–8
WECHG, WECLG	World Energy Conference – high and low growth, December 1983	2000	1–3, 7, 8, 5+6, Africa south of Sahara, Latin America, North Africa and Middle East, OECD Europe/North America/Pacific, South Asia/South-East Asia
WILPP, WILRF	J. Willars, policy projection and reference case, November 1983	1990	Mexico

APPENDIX A-3

Energy-GDP ratios, by region Soviet Union, Eastern Europe and sub-regions

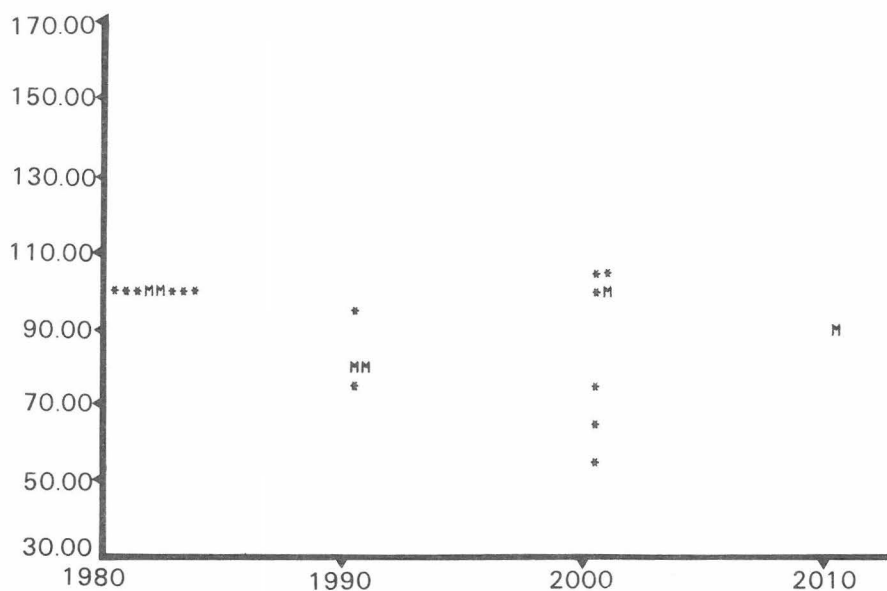


Notes: 1980 = 100.

If there is an even number of poll responses, the two projections closest to the median are denoted by M.

Medians:		100.000	90.929		79.388		67.560				
HNPO	HNGRY	100.000	ASSU	USSR	104.168	ASSU	USSR	100.679	IIASA	A1	67.560
ASSU	USSR	100.000	IND	A1	93.488	SMIE1	A1	92.584			
WECLG	A1	100.000	WBK	A1	90.929	SMIE2	A1	92.495			
WECHG	A1	100.000	HNPO	HNGRY	90.164	IND	A1	85.813			
WBK	A1	100.000	IIASA	A1	87.861	WECLG	A1	79.388			
SMIE2	A1	100.000				HNPO	HNGRY	78.947			
SMIE1	A1	100.000				IIASA	A1	77.188			
IND	A1	100.000				WECHG	A1	72.816			
IIASA	A1	100.000				ERIEA	A1	69.731			
ERIEA	A1	100.000									

Energy-GDP ratios, by region
China and other Asian planned economies

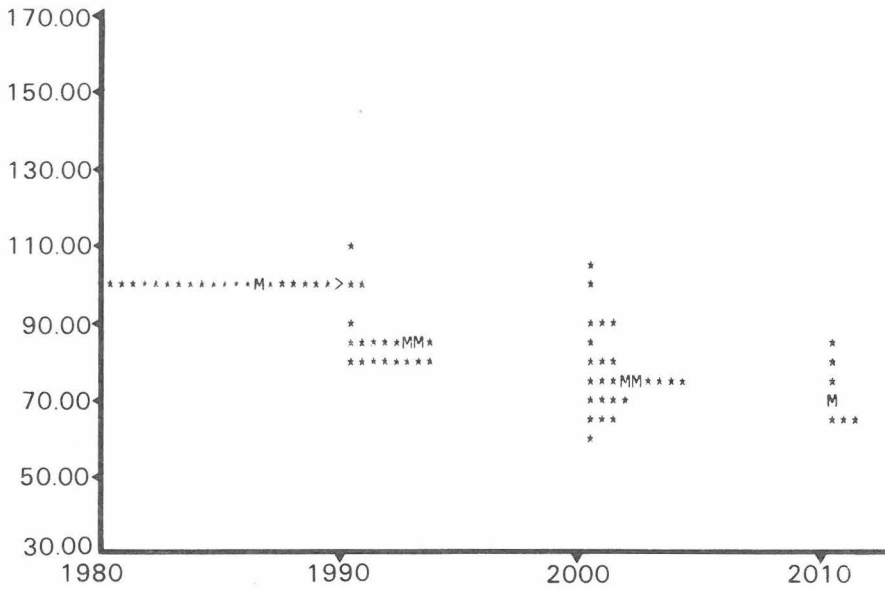


Notes: 1980 = 100.

If there is an even number of poll responses, the two projections closest to the median are denoted by M.

Medians:	100.000	79.049	97.906	90.411			
WECLG	A2 100.000	IIASA	A2 92.919	ERIEA	A2 103.772	IIASA	A2 90.411
WECHG	A2 100.000	IND	A2 79.322	SMIE1	A2 102.826		
WBK	A2 100.000	WBK	A2 78.776	IIASA	A2 100.650		
SMIL	A2 100.000	SMIL	A2 74.479	WECLG	A2 97.906		
SMIE1	A2 100.000			WECHG	A2 73.570		
IND	A2 100.000			IND	A2 65.120		
IIASA	A2 100.000			SMIL	A2 57.065		
ERIEA	A2 100.000						

Energy-GDP ratios, by region OECD North America and sub-regions

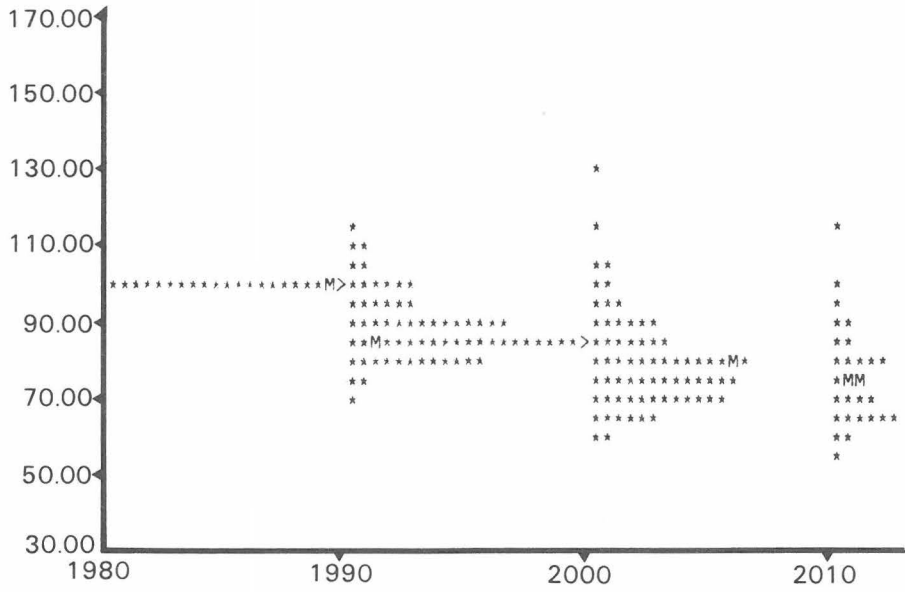


Notes: 1980 = 100.

If there is an even number of poll responses,
the two projections closest to the median are
denoted by M.

Medians:		100.000		83.166		74.314		68.898			
RESPI	US	100.000	ETAMC	CAN	107.683	BLNCE	CAN	102.874	BNL	US	83.497
PILOT	US	100.000	BNL	US	98.955	ETAMC	CAN	97.740	ETSLD	US	80.153
GULFP	US	100.000	BLNCE	CAN	98.940	SMIE2	OECDN	88.574	ETSLD	US	74.443
GULFH	US	100.000	NEB	CAN	90.530	SMIE1	OECDN	88.490	ETAMC	US	68.898
GULFC	US	100.000	ETSLD	US	87.289	BNL	US	88.235	DOE	US	65.961
GRI	US	100.000	ETSHD	US	86.094	ETSHD	US	82.910	DRI	US	65.554
ETSLD	US	100.000	EPRIR	US	84.569	NEB	CAN	79.968	GRI	US	64.515
ETSHD	US	100.000	GULFH	US	84.301	GULFH	US	78.068			
ETAMC	US	100.000	EPRIM	US	84.091	ETSLD	US	77.855			
EPRIR	US	100.000	GRI	US	83.191	WECLG	OECDN	77.028			
EPRIM	US	100.000	EIA	OECDN	83.140	WECHG	OECDN	75.351			
DRI	US	100.000	RESPI	US	83.136	EPRIR	US	74.777			
DOE	US	100.000	DRI	US	81.972	RESPI	US	74.681			
CON	US	100.000	ETAMC	US	81.847	DRI	US	73.947			
BP	US	100.000	DOE	US	80.153	GRI	US	73.374			
BNL	US	100.000	GULFP	US	79.560	EPRIM	US	73.338			
AGALD	US	100.000	CON	US	79.502	ETAMC	US	72.679			
AGAHD	US	100.000	GULFC	US	78.645	DOE	US	72.573			
AGABD	US	100.000	PILOT	US	78.316	GULFP	US	71.703			
WECLG	OECDN	100.000	BP	US	78.224	GULFC	US	71.614			
WECHG	OECDN	100.000				PILOT	US	68.324			
SMIE2	OECDN	100.000				CON	US	68.035			
SMIE1	OECDN	100.000				BP	US	67.339			
EIA	OECDN	100.000				AGALD	US	63.412			
NEB	CAN	100.000				AGABD	US	62.833			
ETAMC	CAN	100.000				AGAHD	US	60.419			
BLNCE	CAN	100.000									

Energy-GDP ratios, by region
 OECD Europe and sub-regions



*Notes: 1980 = 100.
 If there is an even number of poll responses,
 the two projections closest to the median are
 denoted by M.*

Medians:		100.000	86.290	78.862	73.558
ETSLD	UK	100.000	ETSHD SPAIN 115.009	CECFE EIRE 128.205	ETSHD SPAIN 113.269
ETSHD	UK	100.000	CECFE EIRE 111.789	ETSHD SPAIN 112.505	ETSLD SPAIN 98.112
CECFE	UK	100.000	CECEU NLAND 109.127	CECCP EIRE 105.337	REGHD SWEDE 96.979
CECEU	UK	100.000	CECFE ITALY 106.870	CECEU EIRE 102.941	ETSHD NLAND 88.971
CECCP	UK	100.000	CEC GREC 106.667	ETSLD SPAIN 99.679	ETSLD NLAND 88.431
GNVLD	SWISS	100.000	ETSHD NLAND 101.695	CECFE ITALY 98.728	ETSHD EIRE 85.085
GNVHD	SWISS	100.000	ETSHD AUSTR 100.910	REGHD SWEDE 97.426	INBST EIRE 84.255
GNVBD	SWISS	100.000	ETSLD NLAND 100.275	CEC GREC 95.238	ETSLD EIRE 81.699
ETSLD	SWISS	100.000	ETSLD SPAIN 99.421	ETSHD NLAND 93.599	ETSHD AUSTR 81.350
ETSHD	SWISS	100.000	ETSLD AUSTR 98.932	ETSLD NLAND 92.308	ETSHD SWISS 80.228
SWEA	SWEDE	100.000	CECCP EIRE 98.425	NRMPE NORWY 92.069	ETSLD NORWY 80.175
REGLD	SWEDE	100.000	NRMPE NORWY 97.344	SMIE1 OECDE 91.681	ETSLD AUSTR 78.074
REGHD	SWEDE	100.000	REGHD SWEDE 97.318	SMIE2 OECDE 91.544	ETSLD SWISS 75.503
REGBD	SWEDE	100.000	ETSLD NORWY 96.038	ETSHD AUSTR 88.944	ETSLD SWEDE 74.074
ETSLD	SWEDE	100.000	CECCP ITALY 95.570	WECLG OECDE 87.693	ETSLD UK 73.042
ETSHD	SWEDE	100.000	CECEU ITALY 95.420	MNDMS FR 87.043	ETSLD OSTER 71.942
ETSLD	SPAIN	100.000	EIA OECDE 93.118	ETSLD NORWY 86.580	ETSLD FRG 71.659
ETSHD	SPAIN	100.000	ETSLD SWEDE 91.857	ETSLD AUSTR 86.004	ETSHD BELGM 69.847
ETSLD	OSTER	100.000	CON OECDE 91.682	ETSHD EIRE 95.942	REGBD SWEDE 67.592
ETSHD	OSTER	100.000	CECFE FR 91.272	INBST EIRE 83.494	ETSHD UK 65.212
WECLG	OECDE	100.000	CECFE DNMRK 91.173	CPON NLAND 83.030	ETSHD FRG 65.048
WECHG	OECDE	100.000	EIRE 91.075	ETSHD SWISS 82.763	ETSHD OSTER 64.147
SMIE2	OECDE	100.000	BP OECDE 90.847	CECEU ITALY 82.387	ETSLD BELGM 63.477
SMIE1	OECDE	100.000	ETSLD BELGM 90.687	ETSLD SWEDE 81.967	ETSHD NORWY 63.025
RESPI	OECDE	100.000	ETSHD NORWY 90.618	CECFE FR 81.822	ETSHD SWEDE 62.832
EIA	OECDE	100.000	DRIE OECDE 90.404	CECFE DNMRK 81.222	ETSLD ITALY 60.752
DRIE	OECDE	100.000	RESPI OECDE 90.181	ETSLD EIRE 80.808	ETSHD ITALY 59.486
CON	OECDE	100.000	ETSHD EIRE 89.869	CECCP ITALY 80.673	REGLD SWEDE 54.720
BP	OECDE	100.000	CPON NLAND 88.423	RESPI OECDE 80.578	
NRMPE	NORWY	100.000	CECFE UK 88.333	CON OECDE 80.351	
ETSLD	NORWY	100.000	ETSLD FRG 88.274	ETSLD SWISS 80.247	
ETSHD	NORWY	100.000	CECCP DNMRK 87.060	ETSLD BELGM 79.966	
ETSLD	NLAND	100.000	ETSLD UK 86.793	ETSHD BELGM 79.451	
ETSHD	NLAND	100.000	CECCP UK 86.290	ETSLD FRG 79.294	
ESCN	NLAND	100.000	ETSLD SWISS 86.207	BP OECDE 78.862	
CPON	NLAND	100.000	CECFE NLAND 86.207	WECHG OECDE 78.560	
CECFE	NLAND	100.000	INBST EIRE 86.133	CECFE UK 77.027	
CECEU	NLAND	100.000	ETSHD BELGM 86.120	ETSLD UK 76.776	
CECCP	NLAND	100.000	MNDMS FR 85.959	ETSHD NORWY 76.244	
CEC	LUXBG	100.000	CECCP FR 85.550	CECFE NLAND 75.353	
MERZ	ITALY	100.000	ETSHD SWEDE 85.182	ESCN NLAND 74.869	
ETSLD	ITALY	100.000	CECFE FRG 85.156	ETSHD FRG 73.731	
ETSHD	ITALY	100.000	MERZ ITALY 85.034	ETSHD SWEDE 73.694	
CECFE	ITALY	100.000	ETSHD FRG 84.541	CECEU NLAND 73.216	
CECEU	ITALY	100.000	ETSHD UK 84.283	ISP FRG 73.209	
CECCP	ITALY	100.000	CECEU NLAND 83.802	CEC LUXBG 73.099	
CEC	GREC	100.000	CECEU UK 83.740	ETSLD OSTER 73.052	
ISP	FRG	100.000	CECEU FR 83.655	ETSHD UK 72.991	
ETSLD	FRG	100.000	ISP FRG 83.615	REGBD SWEDE 72.522	
ETSHD	FRG	100.000	ETSHD ITALY 83.144	CECFE FRG 72.474	
CECFE	FRG	100.000	OBENA FR 83.064	MERZ ITALY 72.333	
CECEU	FRG	100.000	CECCP NLAND 82.552	DRIE OECDE 72.322	
CECCP	FRG	100.000	ETSHD ITALY 82.457	ETSHD OSTER 71.851	
OBENB	FR	100.000	REGBD SWEDE 82.079	OBENA FR 71.661	
OBENA	FR	100.000	OBENB FR 81.731	CECCP FR 71.461	
MNDMS	FR	100.000	ESCN NLAND 81.579	CECCP UK 70.455	
CECFE	FR	100.000	DNMOE DNMRK 81.197	CECEU UK 69.207	
CECEU	FR	100.000	CEC LUXBG 80.000	ETSHD ITALY 69.200	
CECCP	FR	100.000	CEC BELGM 80.000	ETSLD ITALY 68.888	
INBST	EIRE	100.000	CECCP FRG 79.772	CECEU FR 68.510	
ETSLD	EIRE	100.000	CECEU DNMRK 79.745	CECCP NLAND 67.979	
ETSHD	EIRE	100.000	CECEU FRG 79.242	CECCP DNMRK 67.189	
CECFE	EIRE	100.000	ETSHD SWISS 78.914	DNMOE DNMRK 66.288	
CECEU	EIRE	100.000	ETSHD OSTER 78.463	CECEU DNMRK 65.434	
CECCP	EIRE	100.000	SWEA SWEDE 76.086	CECCP FRG 64.609	
DNMOE	DNMRK	100.000	ETSLD OSTER 74.405	CEC BELGM 63.353	
CECFE	DNMRK	100.000	REGLD SWEDE 70.994	REGLD SWEDE 62.681	
CECEU	DNMRK	100.000		CECEU FRG 61.587	
CECCP	DNMRK	100.000		OBENB FR 60.850	
ETSLD	BELGM	100.000			
ETSHD	BELGM	100.000			
CEC	BELGM	100.000			
ETSLD	AUSTR	100.000			
ETSHD	AUSTR	100.000			

Energy-GDP ratios, by region Other OECD and sub-regions

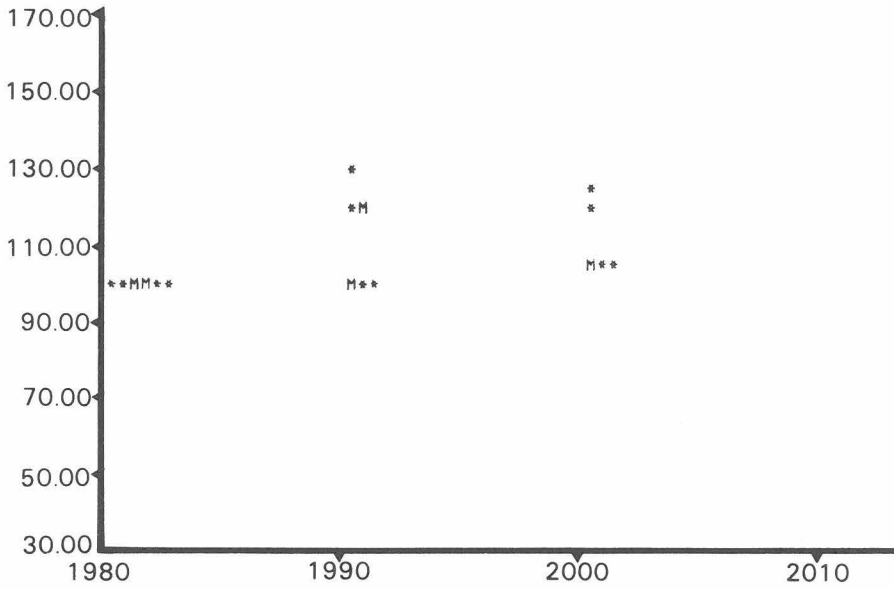


Notes: 1980 = 100.

If there is an even number of poll responses,
the two projections closest to the median are denoted by M.

Medians:		100.000	84.338	73.513	65.753				
WECLG	OECDP	100.000	IEA A4	91.640	SMIE1 JAPAN	95.388	ETSHD	JAPAN	72.496
WECHG	OECDP	100.000	IFPS A4	91.185	IFPS A4	86.906	CHVRN	A4	70.188
EIA	OECDP	100.000	IFPM A4	89.803	IEA A4	83.063	JAERI	JAPAN	69.247
CON	OECDP	100.000	RESPI JAPAN	88.540	IFPM A4	81.937	IIASA	A4	67.800
SMIE1	JAPAN	100.000	EIA OECDP	88.092	WECLG OECDP	81.005	ETSLD	JAPAN	65.753
RESPI	JAPAN	100.000	EIA A4	87.922	ERIEA A4	80.510	CRIEL	JAPAN	62.242
RESPH	JAPAN	100.000	CON OECDP	87.273	RESPI JAPAN	78.815	CRIER	JAPAN	60.471
JAERI	JAPAN	100.000	IFPF A4	86.942	CON OECDP	78.370	CERG	A4	57.815
ETSLD	JAPAN	100.000	ENI A4	86.296	CHVRN A4	77.891	CRIEH	JAPAN	57.720
ETSHD	JAPAN	100.000	CHVRN A4	85.295	IIASA A4	75.809			
CRIER	JAPAN	100.000	CON A4	84.851	IFPF A4	75.695			
CRIEL	JAPAN	100.000	IIASA A4	84.559	WECHG OECDP	74.291			
CRIEH	JAPAN	100.000	ETSHD JAPAN	84.442	ETSHD JAPAN	74.013			
CON	JAPAN	100.000	WBK A4	84.338	CON A4	73.513			
WBK	A4	100.000	JAERI JAPAN	83.589	JAERI JAPAN	72.757			
SAUNV	A4	100.000	LIEF A4	81.788	IND A4	69.457			
SAUNS	A4	100.000	CERG A4	81.193	ETSLD JAPAN	69.375			
LIEF	A4	100.000	ETSLD JAPAN	81.189	CERG A4	68.387			
IND	A4	100.000	BP A4	80.857	RESPH JAPAN	68.306			
IIASA	A4	100.000	IND A4	80.562	SAUNS A4	67.692			
IFPS	A4	100.000	RESPH JAPAN	80.133	CRIEL JAPAN	67.549			
IFPM	A4	100.000	CRIER JAPAN	79.101	CRIER JAPAN	67.068			
IFPF	A4	100.000	CRIEH JAPAN	78.627	LIEF A4	66.855			
IEA	A4	100.000	CRIEL JAPAN	78.419	CON JAPAN	66.536			
ERIEA	A4	100.000	SAUNS A4	78.142	CRIEH JAPAN	65.426			
ENI	A4	100.000	CON JAPAN	77.032	BP A4	64.134			
EIA	A4	100.000	SAUNV A4	76.694	SAUNV A4	62.951			
CON	A4	100.000							
CHVRN	A4	100.000							
CERG	A4	100.000							
BP	A4	100.000							

Energy-GDP ratios, by region
OPEC



Notes: 1980 = 100.

*If there is an even number of poll responses,
the two projections closest to the median are
denoted by M.*

Medians: 100.000

WBK	A5	100.000
IND	A5	100.000
IFPS	A5	100.000
IFPM	A5	100.000
IFPF	A5	100.000
CON	A5	100.000

110.024

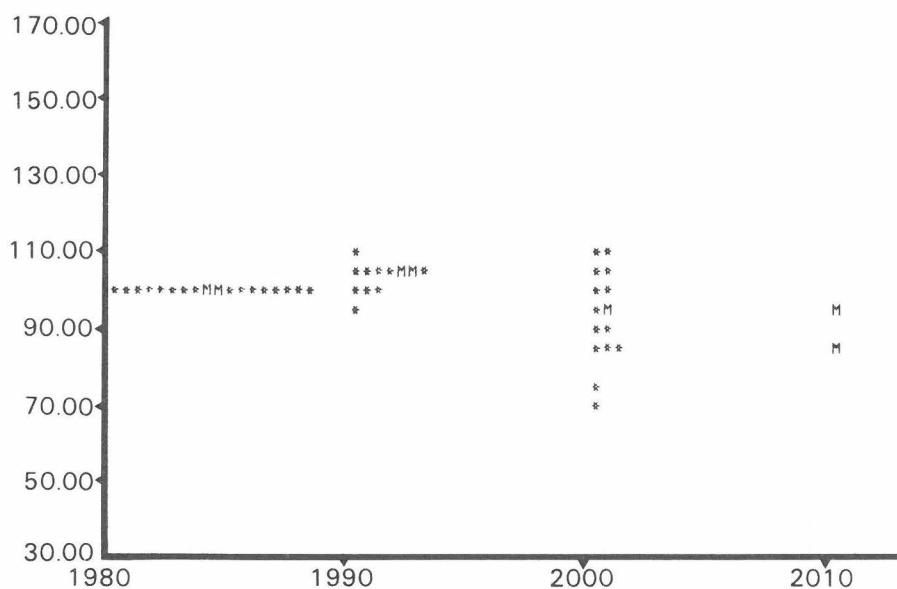
IND	A5	130.818
WBK	A5	121.139
CON	A5	120.047
IFPM	A5	100.000
IFPF	A5	98.160
IFPS	A5	97.973

104.452

IND	A5	124.919
CON	A5	122.354
IFPF	A5	104.452
IFPM	A5	102.767
IFPS	A5	102.740

Energy-GDP ratios, by region

Non-OPEC developing countries and sub-regions



Notes: 1980 = 100.

If there is an even number of poll responses, the two projections closest to the median are denoted by M.

Medians:	100.000	103.816	92.930	90.901
WILRF	MEX 100.000	TATA INDIA 109.074	IFPF A6 109.740	TATA INDIA 95.832
WILPP	MEX 100.000	SAUNV A6 106.578	IFPM A6 108.285	ETAMC MEX 85.970
WECLG	SEASI 100.000	SAUNS A6 105.441	IFPS A6 106.862	
WECLG	SASIA 100.000	IFPF A6 104.908	SAUNS A6 104.999	
WECLG	AFSS 100.000	IFPM A6 104.517	SAUNV A6 102.162	
WECHG	SEASI 100.000	IFPS A6 104.085	CON A6 102.151	
WECHG	SASIA 100.000	CON A6 103.547	TATA INDIA 95.272	
WECHG	AFSS 100.000	WILRF MEX 103.122	WECLG SASIA 92.930	
TATA	INDIA 100.000	IND A6 99.718	IND A6 90.127	
ETAMC	MEX 100.000	WILPP MEX 99.394	WECHG SASIA 88.551	
WBK	A6 100.000	WBK A6 99.006	WECHG AFSS 86.939	
SAUNV	A6 100.000	ETAMC MEX 95.998	WECLG AFSS 86.213	
SAUNS	A6 100.000		ETAMC MEX 86.196	
IND	A6 100.000		WECLG SEASI 75.428	
IFPS	A6 100.000		WECHG SEASI 71.146	
IFPM	A6 100.000			
IFPF	A6 100.000			
CON	A6 100.000			

