OPTIMAL TAX DEPRECIATION LIVES AND CHARGES UNDER REGULATORY CONSTRAINTS

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Optimal Tax Depreciation Lives and Charges under Regulatory Constraints

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Abstract

Depreciation is not only a representation of the loss in asset-value over time. It is also a strategic tool for management and can be used to minimize tax payments. In this paper we derive the depreciation scheme that minimizes the expected value of the present value of future tax payments for two types of constraints on the depreciation method.

Keywords: tax minimization, depreciation, discounting, uncertainty, dynamic optimization, path-coupling.

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1 Introduction

It is well-known that regulation and legislation on corporate taxation leave ample room for strategic behavior of firms. Scholes and Wolfson (1992) provide a thorough overview of the different opportunities for firms to minimize tax expenses through business strategy. An important way to shift income is through depreciation of the firm’s assets. Since taxable income consists of cash-flows reduced with depreciation charges, one can shift taxable income from one period to another by depreciating more or less in a certain period, while keeping the total amount to be depreciated over all periods fixed. Consequently, different depreciation schemes can yield a different stream of future taxable income. The decision maker can try to optimize by choosing – among those methods that are accepted by the tax authorities – the depreciation method that minimizes the expected present value of future taxable income.

The development of the research on optimal tax depreciation can be seen as follows. Wakeman (1980) compares accelerated and straight line depreciation and shows that, in the absence of uncertainty, accelerated depreciation dominates straight line depreciation, in the sense that it yields a lower expected value of discounted tax payments for all values of the discount rate. Berg and Moore (1989) consider a 2-period model and show how uncertainty can affect this dominance of accelerated depreciation methods. Berg et al. (2000) provide an analysis of the optimal choice between accelerated and straight line depreciation with uncertain cash-flows and a possibly progressive tax system.

In this paper we do not compare two given methods of tax depreciation, but determine the optimal tax depreciation scheme among those that are accepted by the tax authorities. Within the limitations set by the tax authority, we optimize with respect to both the number of periods the asset should be depreciated in, and the corresponding depreciation charges in each period. We show how this optimal depreciation scheme depends on the discount factor and the probability distributions of future cash-flows. In order to take into account that the tax authority does not
accept every possible depreciation scheme, we consider two sets of constraints. The first set contains all depreciation schemes for which the fraction of the residual value that is depreciated lies within certain bounds. The constraints on the depreciation charge in a certain period then clearly depend on the depreciation charges chosen in earlier periods. Commonly used methods of this type are the so-called Declining Balance methods, where in each period a given fraction of the residual value is depreciated. The second set contains all depreciation methods for which the amount depreciated in a period lies within certain bounds. Here, the constraints in a certain period are clearly independent of decisions made in earlier periods. An example here is the Straight Line method, where the amount depreciated is equal over all periods.

In the sequel the two types of constraints will be referred to as dynamic constraints and static constraints, respectively.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 defines the optimization problems for the two types of constraints described above. In Section 3 we reformulate the optimization problem with dynamic constraints as a dynamic program. We then show that the path-coupling method, which is developed to solve continuous time optimization problems, yields valuable insights when applied to this discrete time optimization problem. We show that a depreciation scheme satisfies the necessary conditions for optimality iff the last non-zero depreciation charge is the unique strictly positive root of a decreasing function, where the depreciation charges in all other periods are specific functions of the last non-zero depreciation charge and its period. Therefore, there are at most $N$ candidate optimal depreciation schemes, where $N$ is the maximum number of periods in which the asset has to be depreciated. The optimal scheme is then found by evaluating all candidate optimal solutions. Section 4 derives the optimal solution in case of static constraints. Also here, one finds at most $N$ candidate optimal solutions by determining the unique root of a decreasing function. As opposed to the case with dynamic constraints however, it can be shown that the optimal depreciation scheme is the candidate optimal scheme in which the number of periods over which the asset is depreciated is maximal or, equivalently, the optimal depreciation scheme is the feasible scheme with the longest depreciation
life. There is therefore no need to evaluate all the candidate optimal solutions. Section 5 provides analytical results on the effect of the discount rate and the cash-flow distributions on the optimal scheme. We present some numerical examples in Section 6. In the absence of constraints and with equally distributed future cash-flows and a discount rate that is strictly less than one, the optimal depreciation scheme is an accelerated scheme. This is no longer necessarily the case when future cash-flows are not equally distributed or when there are constraints. The paper is concluded in Section 7.

2 The optimization problems

An asset of value $D$ has to be depreciated over a maximum of $N$ periods. Let $d_k$ denote the amount depreciated in period $k$. The decision maker has to decide on the number of periods ($\leq N$) that will actually be used to depreciate the value $D$ (i.e. the last $k$ with $d_k > 0$), and the corresponding depreciation charges.

The cash-flow or income in period $k$ (gross revenue before depreciation) is a random variable denoted $C_k$, with cumulative distribution function $F_k(.)$. We will assume that cash-flows are continuously distributed, so that $F_k(.)$ is continuous and strictly increasing.

The decision maker’s objective is to minimize the expected present value of future tax payments. With a fixed tax rate $T$ over all taxable income, and a discount rate $\alpha \in [0, 1]$, this leads to the following optimization problem.

$$\min_{(d_1, \ldots, d_N) \in D} T \sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha^k E \left[ (C_k - d_k)^+ \right],$$

where $x^+ := \max\{x, 0\}$, and $D$ is the set of acceptable depreciation methods. One can classify the two most common types of constraints on depreciation methods in two groups:

i) Methods with dynamic constraints, i.e. constraints on the depreciation charge
as a fraction of the remaining value of the asset, so that
\[ \mathcal{D} = \left\{ (d_1, \ldots, d_N) \in \mathbb{R}_+^N \mid \begin{array}{l}
\sum_{k=1}^{N} d_k = D \\
\quad d_k \in [l_k D_{k-1}, u_k D_{k-1}] 
\end{array} \right\}, \quad (2) \]

with \( 0 \leq l_k < u_k \leq 1 \) for all \( k = 1, \ldots, N \). Here, \( D_{k-1} = D - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} d_i \) is the residual value to be depreciated in periods \( k \) until \( N \), so that \( D_0 = D \).

ii) Methods with *static constraints*, i.e. constraints on the value of the depreciation charges \( d_k \), so that
\[ \mathcal{D} = \left\{ (d_1, \ldots, d_N) \in \mathbb{R}_+^N \mid \begin{array}{l}
\sum_{k=1}^{N} d_k = D \\
\quad d_k \in [\tilde{l}_k, \tilde{u}_k] 
\end{array} \right\}, \quad (3) \]

with \( 0 \leq \tilde{l}_k < \tilde{u}_k \leq D \), for all \( k = 1, \ldots, N \).

In some cases a solution to problem (1) is found easily. Suppose for example that cash-flows are known with certainty, and that the constraint set equals:
\[ \mathcal{D} = \left\{ (d_1, \ldots, d_N) \in \mathbb{R}_+^N \mid \sum_{k=1}^{N} d_k = D \right\}. \quad (4) \]

It is seen immediately that an optimal scheme is given by:
\[ d_k = \max\{C_k, 0\}, \quad \text{if} \quad C_k \leq D_{k-1}, \]
\[ = D_{k-1}, \quad \text{if} \quad C_k \geq D_{k-1}. \]

for \( k = 1, \ldots, N - 1 \), and \( d_N = D - \sum_{j=1}^{N-1} d_j \).

Indeed, since due to the discounting effect (\( \alpha \leq 1 \)), paying taxes later is preferable to paying them now, one should depreciate "as much as possible as early as possible", but never more than the actual cash-flow if there is still at least one period to come.

In the more interesting case where future cash-flows are unknown, or where the set of acceptable depreciation schemes is a strict subset of (4), an analytical solution is not found easily. In the next section we present the solution for the case of dynamic constraints.
3 The dynamic constraints

The constraints in (2) imply that the fraction of the residual value to be depreciated is subject to limitations. Commonly used methods of this type are the so-called declining balance methods.

Instead of determining the optimal \((d_1, \ldots, d_N)\), one can then determine the optimal fraction \(\gamma_k \in [l_k, u_k]\) of the residual value \(D_{k-1}\) to depreciate in period \(k\), so that \(d_k = \gamma_k D_{k-1}\), where:

\[
D_k = D - \sum_{j=1}^{k} d_j, \quad \text{for } k \leq N.
\]

Since our aim is also to determine the optimal number of periods in which \(D\) is depreciated, we consider the case where \(u_k = 1\), so that \(\gamma_k \in [l_k, 1]\). It is clear that without loss of generality, we can set \(T = 1\). With the expected values written as their corresponding integral, the problem to solve then is:

\[
\min_{(\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_N)} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha^k \int_{\gamma_k D_{k-1}}^{\infty} (1 - F_k(y)) \, dy \\
\text{s.t. } D_k = (1 - \gamma_k) D_{k-1}, \\
D_0 = D, \\
\gamma_k \in [l_k, 1].
\]

(5)

Now, if \((\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_N)\) solves (5), the optimal depreciation charges are given by \(d_k = \gamma_k D_{k-1}\), and the optimal number of periods used to depreciate the asset equals \(J = \min\{k : \gamma_k = 1\}\).

In the sequel we use the current-value Hamiltonian and the path-coupling method (see e.g. Feichtinger and Hartl, 1986, pp. 504-509, and Van Hilten et al. 1993) to determine the solution of problem (5). We proceed as follows. In section 3.1 we describe the current-value Hamiltonian and the current-value Lagrangian, and state the necessary conditions for optimality. In section 3.2, we define the paths and describe their dynamics. In section 3.3, we characterize the set of solutions that satisfy the necessary conditions for optimality, and we show how the optimal solution can be found.
3.1 The necessary conditions

The current-value Hamiltonian for problem (5) is given by:

\[ H(\delta, \gamma, \lambda, k) = -\int_0^\infty (1 - F_k(y))dy + \lambda(1 - \gamma)\delta, \]

(6)

where \( \delta \) (resp. \( \gamma \)) is the state (resp. control) variable, and \( \lambda \) is the co-state variable. To incorporate the condition \( \gamma_k \in [l_k, 1] \), we define the current-value Lagrangian of this problem as follows:

\[ L(\delta, \gamma, \lambda, \eta^1, \eta^2, k) = H(\delta, \gamma, \lambda, k) + \eta^1(\gamma - l_k) + \eta^2(1 - \gamma). \]

(7)

Then the necessary conditions for optimality are given by the following system of equations:

\[ \lambda_N = 0, D_0 = D, \]

(8)

and, for \( k = 1, \ldots, N \):

\[ (1 - F_k(\gamma_k D_{k-1}))D_{k-1} - \lambda_k D_{k-1} + \eta^1_k - \eta^2_k = 0, \]

(9)

\[ \lambda_{k-1} = \alpha(1 - F_k(\gamma_k D_{k-1}))\gamma_k + \alpha \lambda_k (1 - \gamma_k), \]

(10)

\[ D_k = (1 - \gamma_k)D_{k-1}, \]

(11)

\[ \eta^1_k(\gamma_k - l_k) = 0, \]

(12)

\[ \eta^2_k(1 - \gamma_k) = 0, \]

(13)

\[ \eta^1_k, \eta^2_k \geq 0, \gamma_k \in [l_k, 1]. \]

(14)

Since the conditions in (8) and (9)-(14) are necessary conditions for an optimum, it is natural to introduce the following definition.

Definition 3.1 A depreciation scheme \((d_1, \ldots, d_N)\) is a candidate optimal solution if there exist variables \(\gamma_k, \lambda_k, \eta^1_k, \eta^2_k\), and \(D_k\) that satisfy (8) and (9)-(14), such that for all \(k \leq N\), one has \(d_k = D_{k-1} - D_k = \gamma_k D_{k-1}\).

We now analyze the set of candidate optimal solutions, using the path-coupling method. Therefore, we first define the paths and describe their dynamics.

\[ \text{The first two equations express the conditions } \frac{\partial L}{\partial \gamma}(D_{k-1}, \gamma_k, \lambda_k, \eta^1_k, \eta^2_k, k) = 0, \text{ and } \alpha \frac{\partial L}{\partial \delta}(D_{k-1}, \gamma_k, \lambda_k, \eta^1_k, \eta^2_k, k) = \lambda_{k-1}, \text{ respectively.} \]
3.2 The paths

Consider a certain time period $k$, with a residual depreciable value $D_{k-1}$. Then there are four different paths that can be followed to the next period, as can be seen in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\eta_k^1$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>$&gt;0$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>$&gt;0$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\eta_k^2$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>$&gt;0$</td>
<td>$&gt;0$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We will say that path $i \in \{1, \ldots, 4\}$ is feasible in period $k$ if there exists a solution to (8)-(14) in which the values for $\eta_k^1$ and $\eta_k^2$ satisfy the conditions for path $i$ as given in the above table. Path 4 is clearly never feasible, since (12) and (13) would then imply that $\gamma_k = l_k = 1$, which is clearly a contradiction. In order to study the other three paths, we use the following lemma.

Lemma 3.1 Consider the case where $D_{k-1} > 0$ and $\lambda_k > 0$, and define:

$$\tilde{\gamma}_k = \frac{1}{D_{k-1}} F_k^{-1} (1 - \lambda_k).$$

(15)

Then,

- path 1 is feasible in period $k$ iff $\tilde{\gamma}_k \in [l_k, 1],$
- path 2 is feasible in period $k$ iff $\tilde{\gamma}_k < l_k$, and
- path 3 is feasible in period $k$ iff $\tilde{\gamma}_k > 1.$

Proof: By definition, $\tilde{\gamma}_k$ is the unique solution of the equation:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \gamma} H(D_{k-1}, \ldots, \lambda_k, k) = 0.$$  

(16)

It is seen immediately that $\frac{\partial}{\partial \gamma} H(D_{k-1}, \gamma, \lambda_k, k)$ is strictly decreasing in $\gamma$. Then, path 1 is not feasible (i.e. the unique solution $\tilde{\gamma}_k$ of (16) is such that $\tilde{\gamma}_k \notin [l_k, 1]$) iff

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \gamma} H(D_{k-1}, l_k, \lambda_k, k) < 0 \Leftrightarrow \tilde{\gamma}_k < l_k,$$

or

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \gamma} H(D_{k-1}, 1, \lambda_k, k) > 0 \Leftrightarrow \tilde{\gamma}_k > 1.$$
This concludes the proof.

We now evaluate the dynamics of the three feasible paths.

- **Path 1**: This path is characterized by $\eta_1^k = \eta_2^k = 0$. This is feasible when $D_{k-1} = 0$, or when $\gamma_k \in [l_k, 1]$. When $D_{k-1} \neq 0$, solving (8)-(14) yields that $\gamma_k = \tilde{\gamma}_k$, and

$$\alpha \lambda_k = \lambda_{k-1}. \quad (17)$$

When $D_{k-1} = 0$, there are infinitely many solutions to (8)-(14).

- **Path 2**: This path is characterized by $\eta_1^k > 0$ and $\eta_2^k = 0$. This implies that the minimum amount is depreciated in period $k$, i.e. $\gamma_k = l_k$. It is only feasible when $D_{k-1} > 0$, $\lambda_k > 0$, and $\tilde{\gamma}_k < l_k$. The dynamics of the co-state are

$$\lambda_{k-1} = \alpha l_k (1 - F_k(l_k D_{k-1})) + \alpha \lambda_k (1 - l_k). \quad (18)$$

- **Path 3**: This path is characterized by $\eta_1^k = 0$ and $\eta_2^k > 0$. This implies that everything left in period $k$ is depreciated, i.e. $\gamma_k = 1$. It is feasible when $D_{k-1} > 0$, $\lambda_k > 0$, and $\tilde{\gamma}_k > 1$, or when $D_{k-1} > 0$ and $\lambda_k \leq 0$. The dynamics are:

$$\lambda_{k-1} = \alpha (1 - F_k(D_{k-1})). \quad (19)$$

Notice that paths 2 and 3 can only be feasible when $D_{k-1} > 0$. Notice furthermore that, when path 1 is feasible for $\gamma_k = 1$, then the dynamics are as in (19).

### 3.3 The optimal solution

In this section we derive the optimal solution using the path-coupling method. First we characterize the set of candidate optimal depreciation schemes. For any depreciation scheme, we will denote $J$ for the last period in which the depreciation charge is non-zero, i.e. $\hat{d} = (d_1, \ldots, d_J, 0, \ldots, 0)$ with $d_J > 0$. 
Due to the fact that the objective function in (5) is not strictly concave in \((\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_N, D_0, \ldots, D_{N-1})\), there is in general not a unique candidate optimal depreciation scheme. However, in the sequel we will show that for any given value of \(J\), there will be at most one candidate optimal solution. This candidate optimal solution equals the optimal depreciation scheme, given that exactly \(J\) periods are used to depreciate the asset. In general, several values of \(J\) will yield a depreciation scheme that satisfies the necessary conditions, but there will be a unique value of \(J\) that yields the optimal scheme.

In order to characterize the set of candidate optimal depreciation schemes, we introduce the following definition. Intuitively this definition should be interpreted as the solution of the difference equations for \(D_k\) and \(\lambda_k\), given that the total amount is depreciated in \(J\) periods.

**Definition 3.2** Consider the following recursive definition:

\[
D_{k-1} := \max\left\{ \frac{D_k}{1-l_k}, D_k + F_k^{-1}(1-\lambda_k) \right\}, \quad (20)
\]

and

\[
\lambda_{k-1} := \alpha \min\{\lambda_k, (1-F_k(l_kD_{k-1}))l_k + (1-l_k)\lambda_k\}. \quad (21)
\]

Then, if \(D_{J-1} > 0\) and \(\lambda_{J-1} > 0\) are given, \(D_k\) and \(\lambda_k\) can be determined recursively for all \(k = J-2, \ldots, 0\). Moreover, we define

\[
\Psi_J(d) := D - D_0(d, J), \quad (22)
\]

where \(D_0(d, J) = D_0\) determined by (20) and (21) with \(D_{J-1} = d\) and \(\lambda_{J-1} = \alpha(1-F_j(d))\).

The above definition shows how the candidate optimal solution can be calculated, once the values of \(D_{J-1}\) and \(\lambda_{J-1}\) are known.

The following theorem provides necessary and sufficient conditions for \(\hat{d} = (d_1, \ldots, d_N)\) to be a candidate optimal depreciation scheme.
**Theorem 3.1** A depreciation scheme \( \hat{d} = (d_1, \ldots, d_J, 0, \ldots, 0) \) with \( d_J > 0 \) satisfies (8)-(14) iff

- \( \hat{d} \) satisfies:
  \[
  \begin{cases}
  d_J \in \Psi_J^{-1}(0), \\
  d_k = \max \{ l_k D_{k-1} , F_k^{-1}(1 - \lambda_k) \}, & \text{for all } k \leq J - 1.
  \end{cases}
  \tag{23}
  \]

where \( D_k \) and \( \lambda_k \), for \( k = 1, \ldots, J - 2 \), are determined by (20) and (21) with \( D_{J-1} = d_J \) and \( \lambda_{J-1} = \alpha \left( 1 - F_J(d_J) \right) \), and

- \( d_J \leq F_J^{-1}(1 - \lambda_J^*) \), where
  \[
  \begin{cases}
  \lambda_k^* := \alpha \min_{\gamma \in [l_{k+1}, 1]} \left\{ \gamma (1 - F_{k+1}(0)) + (1 - \gamma) \lambda_{k+1}^* \right\}, & k = 1, \ldots, N - 1, \\
  \lambda_N^* := 0
  \end{cases}
  \tag{24}
  \]

**Proof:** See Appendix.

The above theorem implies that all candidate optimal depreciation schemes can be found by solving \( \Psi_J(\cdot) = 0 \), for \( J = 1, \ldots, N \). Then, for any \( J \) for which \( \Psi_J(\cdot) \) has a root \( d_J \in (0, D] \) that satisfies \( d_J \leq F_J^{-1}(1 - \lambda_J^*) \), there exists a candidate optimal depreciation scheme for which the depreciation charges are given by (23).

The following proposition states that \( \Psi_J(\cdot) \) is a decreasing function, so that its root can be found easily. Moreover, the depreciation charge \( d_J \) is the *unique* solution of \( \Psi_J(\cdot) = 0 \). Combined with (23), this yields at most \( N \) candidate optimal schemes.

**Proposition 3.1** The function \( \Psi_J(\cdot) \) is decreasing. Moreover, \( \Psi_J(\cdot) \) has a non-negative root iff \( \Psi_J(\tilde{u}_J) \leq 0 \leq \Psi_J(0) \), where \( \tilde{u}_J = (1 - l_1)(1 - l_2) \cdots (1 - l_{J-1})D \).

**Proof:** It is clear that \( \Psi_J(\cdot) \) is decreasing iff \( D_0(\cdot, J) \) is increasing, where \( D_0(d, J) = D_0 \) determined by (20) and (21) with \( D_{J-1} = d \) and \( \lambda_{J-1} = \alpha \left( 1 - F_J(d) \right) \).

We will now show by induction that \( D_k \) is increasing in \( d \) and that \( \lambda_k \) is decreasing in \( d \) for all \( k = 0, \ldots, J - 1 \).
The above statements are trivially satisfied for \( k = J - 1 \). Moreover, it follows immediately from (20) and (21) that, if the statements are satisfied for \( k \), they are also satisfied for \( k - 1 \).

Finally, the fact that the root is less than or equal to \( \tilde{u}_J \) follows immediately from

\[
d = D_{J-1}
\]
\[
\Rightarrow d \leq (1 - l_{J-1})D_{J-2}
\]
\[
\Rightarrow d \leq (1 - l_1)(1 - l_2) \cdots (1 - l_{J-1})D_0(d, J) = \tilde{u}_J.
\]

This concludes the proof. \( \Box \)

Theorem 3.1 and Proposition 3.1 imply that there are at most \( N \) candidate optimal schemes. The following result shows how the set of potential candidates can be further decreased.

**Proposition 3.2** If a depreciation scheme \((d_1, \ldots, d_J, 0, \ldots, 0)\) with \( d_J > 0 \) is optimal, then \( d_J \) satisfies

\[
d_J \leq F_J^{-1}(1 - \alpha(1 - F_{J+1}(0))), \quad \text{if} \quad J \leq N - 1.
\]

**Proof:** See Appendix. \( \Box \)

Since the objective function is strictly convex in \((d_1, \ldots, d_N)\), and the constraint set \( D \) is compact, there is a unique optimal scheme. In order to find the unique optimal depreciation scheme, one can proceed as follows. For every \( J \in \{1, \ldots, N\} \):

i) Check whether \( \Psi_J(u_J^*) \leq 0 \leq \Psi_J(0) \), where \( u_N^* = \tilde{u}_N \) and \( u_J^* = \min\{\tilde{u}_J, F_J^{-1}(1 - \alpha(1 - F_{J+1}(0)))\} \) for \( J < N \).

ii) If so, calculate \( d_J = \Psi_J^{-1}(0) \).

iii) Evaluate the objective function in the resulting depreciation scheme given in (23).

Notice that it is not necessary to calculate \( \lambda_J^* \), since the condition \( d_J \leq F_J^{-1}(1 - \lambda_J^*) \) can be replaced by the stronger condition (25).
4 The static constraints

In this section we determine the optimal depreciation charges in case of static constraints. For ease of notation, we consider the case where \( d_k \in [\tilde{l}_k, +\infty) \), and without loss of generality assume that \( T = 1 \). The problem to be solved is then:

\[
\begin{align*}
\min_{(d_1, \ldots, d_N)} & \sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha^k \int_{d_k}^{\infty} (1 - F_k(y)) dy \\
\text{s.t.} & \sum_{k=1}^{N} d_k = D, \\
& d_k \geq \tilde{l}_k, \quad \text{for } k = 1, \ldots, N.
\end{align*}
\]

(26)

For any depreciation scheme \( \hat{d} \), we denote \( J \) for the last period in which the depreciation charge strictly exceeds the lower bound, i.e. \( \hat{d} = (d_1, \ldots, d_J, \tilde{l}_{J+1}, \ldots, \tilde{l}_N) \) with \( d_J > \tilde{l}_J \).

Similarly to the case with dynamic constraints, we define the functions \( \tilde{d}_k(d, J) \), which can be interpreted as the optimal depreciation charges given that the depreciation charge in period \( J \) equals \( d \), and that \( J \) is the last period where the lower bound is not binding.\footnote{The reason why the solution of the difference equation for \( \lambda_k \) is not stated in this definition (contrary to the dynamic case), is that we can find a closed form expression for \( \lambda_k \) as a function of \( J \) and \( d \) so that they do not have to be determined recursively. Therefore, we can immediately state the optimal depreciation charges given period \( J \) and its depreciation charge \( d \). This is elaborated upon in the proof of Theorem 4.1.}

**Definition 4.1** For all \( J \leq N \), and \( k \leq J - 1 \), we define:

\[
\begin{align*}
\tilde{d}_k(d, J) & := \max\{\tilde{l}_k, F_k^{-1}(1 - \alpha^{J-k}(1 - F_J(d)))\}, \quad k \leq J - 1, \\
\tilde{\Psi}_J(d) & := D - d - \sum_{k=1}^{J-1} \tilde{d}_k(d, J) - \sum_{k=J+1}^{N} \tilde{l}_k, \\
\mathcal{P} & := \left\{ k \in \{1, \ldots, N\} \mid \tilde{\Psi}_k(\tilde{l}_k) \geq 0 \right\}.
\end{align*}
\]

(27)  
(28)  
(29)

In the following theorem we show that in the optimal solution, the last depreciation charge that exceeds the lower bound is the unique root of \( \tilde{\Psi}_J(\cdot) \), which is a
strictly decreasing function, and all other depreciation charges are given functions of this depreciation charge and its period $J$. More precisely, we have the following result:

**Theorem 4.1** The optimal depreciation scheme satisfies:

\[
\begin{align*}
&d_J \in \tilde{\Psi}_J^{-1}(0), \\
&d_k = \tilde{d}_k(d_J, J), \quad \text{for } k \leq J - 1, \\
&d_k = \tilde{l}_k, \quad \text{for } k \geq J + 1.
\end{align*}
\] (30)

for some $J \in \mathcal{P}$. Moreover, the function $\tilde{\Psi}_J(\cdot)$ is strictly decreasing.

**Proof:** It is clear that also this problem can be stated as a dynamic problem as in (5), but with the constraints replaced by

\[
\gamma_k D_{k-1} \geq \tilde{l}_k, \quad k = 1, \ldots, N.
\] (31)

The necessary conditions for optimality therefore are:

\[
\lambda_N = 0, D_0 = D,
\]

and, for $k = 1, \ldots, N$:

\[
(1 - F_k(\gamma_k D_{k-1}))D_{k-1} - \lambda_k D_{k-1} + \eta_1^k D_{k-1} = 0,
\]

\[
\lambda_{k-1} = \alpha(1 - F_k(\gamma_k D_{k-1}))\gamma_k + \alpha \lambda_k (1 - \gamma_k) + \alpha \eta_1^k \gamma_k,
\]

\[
D_k = (1 - \gamma_k)D_{k-1},
\]

\[
\eta_1^k (\gamma_k D_{k-1} - l_k) = 0,
\]

\[
\gamma_k D_{k-1} \geq \tilde{l}_k,
\]

\[
\eta_1^k \geq 0, \gamma_k \in [0, 1].
\]

Therefore, the proof is similar to the proofs of Theorem 3.1 and Proposition 3.1. However, notice that the fact that $d_J = \gamma_J D_{J-1} > \tilde{l}_J$ implies that $\eta_1^J = 0$, so that

\[
\lambda_J = 1 - F_J(d_J).
\] (32)
Moreover, the dynamics of Path 2 are now equal to those of Path 1. This implies that (21) can now be replaced by

$$\lambda_k = \alpha^{J-k} \lambda_j = \alpha^{J-k} (1 - F_J(d_j)), \quad k = 1, \ldots, J - 1. \quad (33)$$

This yields the desired result.

As opposed to the case with dynamic constraints, it can be shown that out of the set of candidate optimal solutions, the optimal solution is the one in which $J$ is maximal.

We need the following lemma.

**Lemma 4.1** Let $(d_1, \ldots, d_J, \tilde{l}_{J+1}, \ldots, \tilde{l}_N)$ be a solution that satisfies (30) for some $J \in \{1, \ldots, N\}$. Then for every $k \leq J$, one has:

i) $$\min \left\{ \alpha^k \left(1 - F_k(\tilde{l}_k)\right), \alpha^J \left(1 - F_J(d_J)\right) \right\} (d_k - \tilde{l}_k) = \alpha^J \left(1 - F_J(d_J)\right) (d_k - \tilde{l}_k),$$

ii) $$\min \left\{ \alpha^k (1 - F_k(\tilde{l}_k)), \alpha^J (1 - F_J(d_J)) \right\} = \alpha^k \left(1 - F_k(d_k)\right).$$

**Proof:** First notice that for any $k, J \leq N$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}$, one has:

$$F_k^{-1} \left(1 - \alpha^{J-k} (1 - F_J(x))\right) \geq \tilde{l}_k \iff \alpha^k \left(1 - F_k(\tilde{l}_k)\right) \geq \alpha^J \left(1 - F_J(x)\right). \quad (34)$$

i) Follows from the fact that (27), (30), and (34) imply that if $d_k > \tilde{l}_k$ then

$$\min \left\{ \alpha^k \left(1 - F_k(\tilde{l}_k)\right), \alpha^J \left(1 - F_J(d_J)\right) \right\} = \alpha^J \left(1 - F_J(d_J)\right).$$

ii) Is trivially satisfied for $k = J$. For all $k < J$, one has:

$$\alpha^k \left(1 - F_k(d_k)\right) = \alpha^k \left(1 - F_k \left(\max \left\{ \tilde{l}_k, F_k^{-1} \left(1 - \alpha^{J-k} (1 - F_J(d_J))\right)\right\}\right)\right)$$

$$= \alpha^k \left(1 - \max \left\{ F_k(\tilde{l}_k), 1 - \alpha^{J-k} (1 - F_J(d_J))\right\}\right)$$

$$= \alpha^k \min \left\{1 - F_k(\tilde{l}_k), \alpha^{J-k} (1 - F_J(d_J))\right\}$$

$$= \min \left\{ \alpha^k (1 - F_k(\tilde{l}_k)), \alpha^J (1 - F_J(d_J)) \right\}.$$

This concludes the proof. \qed
The following proposition states that the optimal depreciation scheme is the one in which $J$ is maximal. Therefore, as opposed to the case with dynamic constraints, there is no need to evaluate all the candidate optimal solutions.

**Proposition 4.1** The optimal depreciation scheme satisfies (30) for

$$J = \max\{k : k \in \mathcal{P}\}. \quad (35)$$

**Proof:** Notice that $J \in \mathcal{P}$ iff the allocation defined in (30) exists and satisfies $d_J \geq \tilde{l}_J$. It therefore suffices to show that if $J, K \in \mathcal{P}$, and $K < J$, then the allocation as defined in (30) for $J$ yields a lower value of the objective function than the one for $K$. Let us denote $d^J$ and $d^K$ for the corresponding candidate solutions, i.e.

$$\begin{cases} d^J_k = \max\{\tilde{l}_k, F_k^{-1}\left(1 - \alpha^J - k (1 - F_j(d^J_j))\right)\}, & k = 1, \ldots, J, \\ d^J_J = \tilde{l}_J, & k = J+1, \ldots, N, \end{cases} \quad (36)$$

since $d^J_j \equiv F^{-1}_J\left(1 - \alpha^J - J (1 - F_j(d^J_j))\right)$, and, equivalently,

$$\begin{cases} d^K_k = \max\{\tilde{l}_k, F_k^{-1}\left(1 - \alpha^K - k (1 - F_k(d^K_k))\right)\}, & k = 1, \ldots, K, \\ d^K_K = \tilde{l}_K, & k = K+1, \ldots, N. \end{cases} \quad (37)$$

Then, the difference in objective function (expected discounted taxable income) for $d^J$ and $d^K$ is given by:

$$\begin{align*}
&\sum_{k=1}^N \alpha^k E\left[(C_k - d^J_k)^+\right] - \sum_{k=1}^N \alpha^k E\left[(C_k - d^K_k)^+\right] \\
= &\sum_{k=1}^K \alpha^k E\left[(C_k - d^J_k)^+\right] + \sum_{k=K+1}^J \alpha^k E\left[(C_k - d^J_k)^+\right] \\
&- \sum_{k=1}^K \alpha^k E\left[(C_k - d^K_k)^+\right] - \sum_{k=K+1}^J \alpha^k E\left[(C_k - \tilde{l}_k)^+\right] \\
= &\sum_{k=1}^K \alpha^k \int_{d^J_k}^{d^K_k} \left(1 - F_k(u)\right) du - \sum_{k=K+1}^J \alpha^k \int_{\tilde{l}_k}^{d^J_k} \left(1 - F_k(u)\right) du \\
\leq &\sum_{k=1}^K \alpha^k \left(1 - F_k(d^J_k)\right) (d^K_k - d^J_k) - \sum_{k=K+1}^J \alpha^k \left(1 - F_k(d^J_k)\right) (d^J_k - \tilde{l}_k). 
\end{align*}$$

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Applying lemma 4.1 ii) to the last expression then yields that:

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha_k E \left[ \left( C_k - d^J_k \right)^+ \right] - \sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha_k E \left[ \left( C_k - d^K_k \right)^+ \right] < \sum_{k=1}^{K} \alpha_J \left( 1 - F_J(d^J_k) \right) \left( d^J_k - \bar{l}_k \right) - \sum_{k=K+1}^{J} \alpha_J \left( 1 - F_J(d^J_k) \right) \left( d^J_k - \bar{l}_k \right) \\
\leq \sum_{k=1}^{K} \alpha_J \left( 1 - F_J(d^J_k) \right) \left( d^J_k - \bar{l}_k \right) - \sum_{k=1}^{J} \alpha_J \left( 1 - F_J(d^J_k) \right) \left( d^J_k - \bar{l}_k \right) \\
= \alpha_J \left( 1 - F_J(d^J_J) \right) \left( \sum_{k=1}^{K} d^J_k + \sum_{k=K+1}^{J} \bar{l}_k - \sum_{k=1}^{J} d^J_k \right) \\
= 0,
\]

where the second inequality follows from lemma 4.1 i) and from replacing the minimum by one of its components, and the last equality follows from the fact that \( d^J \) and \( d^K \) are feasible, and therefore both have components that until period \( J \) add up to \( D - \sum_{k=J+1}^{N} \bar{l}_k \). This concludes the proof. \( \square \)

The above proposition implies that the optimal solution can be found by determining maximal \( J \) for which the root of \( \bar{\Psi}_J(\cdot) \) is strictly larger than \( \bar{l}_J \). The optimal depreciation charges are then given by (30).

Notice finally that, whereas in the case of dynamic constraints, \( J \) equals the number of periods in which the asset is depreciated, this is no longer necessarily the case here, since \( d_k \) is bounded below by \( \bar{l}_k \), so that \( d_{J+1} > 0 \) if \( \bar{l}_{J+1} > 0 \).

5 Effect of distributions and discount rate

Let us denote \( d_{SL} \) for the straight line depreciation method, i.e. \( d_{SL} = (\frac{D}{N}, \ldots, \frac{D}{N}) \), so that the amount to depreciate is divided equally over all periods. In the next theorem we show that \( d_{SL} \) is optimal when all cash-flows are equally distributed, there is no discounting, and \( d_{SL} \in \mathcal{D} \).

**Theorem 5.1** If \( F_k(\cdot) = F(\cdot) \) for all periods \( k \), \( \alpha = 1 \), and \( d_{SL} \in \mathcal{D} \), then \( d_{SL} \) is optimal.

**Proof:** Since \( d_{SL} \in \mathcal{D} \), it suffices to show that \( d_{SL} \) is optimal for problem (26) with \( \bar{l}_1 = \ldots = \bar{l}_N = 0 \).
The fact that $F^{-1}(F(d_N)) = d_N$, implies:

$$\max\{0, F^{-1}_k(F_N(d_N))\} = d_N = \frac{D}{N}, \quad \text{for all } k.$$ 

Therefore, the depreciation charges in $d_{SL}$ satisfy (30) with $J = N$. Given Theorem 4.1 and Proposition 4.1, this yields the desired result. □

We now show that, when cash-flows are equally distributed, $\alpha < 1$, and the constraints are such that $l_1 \geq l_2 \geq \cdots \geq l_N$ (resp. $\bar{l}_1 \geq \bar{l}_2 \geq \cdots \geq \bar{l}_N$), then the optimal depreciation method with dynamic (resp. static) constraints is an accelerated depreciation method.

**Theorem 5.2** When $F_k(.) = F(.)$ for all $k$, $\alpha < 1$, and $l_1 \geq l_2 \geq \cdots \geq l_N$ (resp. $\bar{l}_1 \geq \bar{l}_2 \geq \cdots \geq \bar{l}_N$), then the optimal depreciation method with dynamic (resp. static) constraints satisfies $d_1 > d_2 > \ldots > d_J$.

**Proof:** Consider the case of dynamic constraints. We know from Theorem 3.1 that the optimal depreciation scheme is such that:

$$d_k = \max\{l_k D_{k-1}, F^{-1}(1 - \lambda_k)\},$$

$$\lambda_{k-1} = \min\{\alpha \lambda_k, \alpha (1 - F(l_k D_{k-1})) l_k + \alpha (1 - l_k) \lambda_k\},$$

for all $k \leq J - 1$, and

$$\lambda_{J-1} = \alpha \left(1 - F(D_{J-1})\right).$$

Notice now that $l_k D_{k-1}$ is decreasing in $k$, and $\lambda_k$ is strictly increasing in $k$, due to $\alpha < 1$. This implies that

$$d_{k+1} < d_k, \quad \text{for all } k = 1, \ldots, J - 2.$$ 

Furthermore, it is seen immediately that $l_J \leq 1$ and $D_{J-1} = d_J$ imply that

$$d_J = \max\{l_J D_{J-1}, F^{-1}(1 - (1 - F(d_J)))\}.$$ 

Therefore, since $1 - F(d_J) = 1 - F(D_{J-1}) > \lambda_{J-1}$ it follows that $d_J < d_{J-1}$, so we can conclude that depreciation is accelerated.

In case of static constraints, the proof is similar. □
6 Numerical examples

In this section we illustrate our results in numerical examples. In Sections 6.1 and 6.2, we illustrate the effect of the discount rate and of the distribution functions, both in case $I_k = l_k = 0$, for all $k \in \{1, \ldots, N\}$. Finally, in Section 6.3 we illustrate the effect of the constraints. In all examples, the initial amount to depreciate ($D$) equals 5.

6.1 The effect of the discount rate

Given that $l_k = I_k = 0$ for all $k$, the set of dynamic constraints is equal to the set of static constraints, and Theorem 4.1 and Proposition 4.1 imply that in order to find the optimal depreciation scheme, one should find the maximal $J \in \mathcal{P}$, which yields the optimal number of periods in which to depreciate $D$. The corresponding depreciation charges are given by (30). We now illustrate this procedure in a numerical example.

We consider a project with $N = D = 5$. The future cash-flows have exponential distributions with $E[C_k] = 3$, for all $k = 1, \ldots, 5$. The distribution function and inverse distribution function are:

$$F(x) = 1 - e^{-x/3}, \quad \text{for all } x \geq 0,$$
$$F^{-1}(y) = -3 \ln(1 - y), \quad \text{for all } y \in [0, 1].$$

We consider the case where $l_k = 0$ for $k = 1, \ldots, 5$. In order to determine the optimal $J$, as defined in Theorem 3.1, we solve $\Psi_5(d) = 0$, i.e.

$$5 - d - \sum_{k=1}^{4} F^{-1} \left(1 - \alpha^{5-k}(1 - F(d))\right) = 0,$$
$$\Leftrightarrow 5 - d + 3 \sum_{k=1}^{4} \ln \left(\alpha^{5-k}e^{-d/3}\right) = 0,$$
$$\Leftrightarrow 5 - d + 3 \sum_{k=1}^{4} ((5 - k) \ln(\alpha) - d/3) = 0,$$
$$\Leftrightarrow d = 1 + 6 \ln(\alpha).$$

Consequently, for all $\alpha$ such that $1 + 6 \ln(\alpha) > 0$, i.e. for all $\alpha \in (0.846, 1]$, one has $J = 5 \in \mathcal{P}$, and therefore the optimal depreciation scheme has $J = 5$. Theorem 3.1 then yields the corresponding depreciation charges:

$$d_5 = D_4 = 1 + 6 \ln(\alpha),$$
and, for $k = 1, \ldots, 4$:

$$d_k = F^{-1} \left( 1 - \alpha^{J-k} (1 - F(D_4)) \right),$$

$$= -3(5-k) \ln(\alpha) + D_4.$$ 

Straightforward calculations then yield:

$$\begin{cases} 
    d_1 = 1 - 6 \ln(\alpha), \\
    d_2 = 1 - 3 \ln(\alpha), \\
    d_3 = 1, \\
    d_4 = 1 + 3 \ln(\alpha), \\
    d_5 = 1 + 6 \ln(\alpha). 
\end{cases}$$

For some values of $\alpha$ the results have been calculated and these are summarized in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\alpha = 1$</th>
<th>$\alpha = 0.95$</th>
<th>$\alpha = 0.9$</th>
<th>$\alpha = 0.85$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$d_1$</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.308</td>
<td>1.632</td>
<td>1.975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$d_2$</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.154</td>
<td>1.316</td>
<td>1.488</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$d_3$</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$d_4$</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.846</td>
<td>0.684</td>
<td>0.512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$d_5$</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.692</td>
<td>0.368</td>
<td>0.025</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We see that when $\alpha$ gets smaller, i.e. when the discounting effect gets stronger, the optimal method becomes more accelerated. Notice that, when $\alpha = 1$, the optimal method is the straight line depreciation, as stated in theorem 5.1.

Now consider $\alpha \leq 0.846$. Then it follows from the above that the optimal number of periods in which to depreciate the total depreciation charge $D$ is less than 5. Therefore, we solve $\Psi_4(d) = 0$.

$$5 - d - \sum_{k=1}^{3} F^{-1} \left( 1 - \alpha^{4-k} (1 - F(d)) \right) = 0,$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 5 - d + 3 \sum_{k=1}^{3} ((4-k) \ln(\alpha) - d/3) = 0,$$

$$\Leftrightarrow d = (5 + 18 \ln(\alpha))/4.$$
Consequently, \( 4 \in \mathcal{P} \) iff
\[
d_4 = \frac{(5 + 18 \ln(\alpha))}{4} > 0.
\]
So, the optimal depreciation scheme has \( J = 4 \) for all \( \alpha \in (0.757, 0.846] \).

Straightforward calculations then yield:
\[
\begin{aligned}
    d_1 &= \frac{(5 - 18 \ln(\alpha))}{4}, \\
    d_2 &= \frac{(5 - 6 \ln(\alpha))}{4}, \\
    d_3 &= \frac{(5 + 6 \ln(\alpha))}{4}, \\
    d_4 &= \frac{(5 + 18 \ln(\alpha))}{4}, \\
    d_5 &= 0.
\end{aligned}
\]
As seen before, a lower value of \( \alpha \) implies more accelerated depreciation, which in the above case implies that the optimal number of periods, in which to depreciate the asset, decreases.

### 6.2 The effect of the distribution functions

We now illustrate the effect of the cash-flow distributions on the optimal depreciation scheme. We again consider the situation where \( l_k = \bar{l}_k = 0 \), but now under three different scenarios for the cash flow distributions.

All cash-flows have normal distributions \( C_i \sim N(3, \sigma_i) \), with standard deviations as given in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \sigma_1 )</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \sigma_2 )</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \sigma_3 )</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \sigma_4 )</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \sigma_5 )</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Whereas scenario A describes a situation where the uncertainty on realized payoffs increases over time, the opposite holds for scenario B. Scenario C is almost equal
to scenario B, except for the higher variance in the fourth period. The results are stated in the following table:

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>α = 0.8</td>
<td>α = 0.90</td>
<td>α = 0.8</td>
<td>α = 0.90</td>
<td>α = 0.8</td>
<td>α = 0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d_1</td>
<td>2.902</td>
<td>2.629</td>
<td>2.882</td>
<td>1.343</td>
<td>2.882</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d_2</td>
<td>2.098</td>
<td>1.855</td>
<td>1.601</td>
<td>0.904</td>
<td>1.601</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d_3</td>
<td>0.516</td>
<td>0.517</td>
<td>0.706</td>
<td>0.517</td>
<td>0.892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d_4</td>
<td>0.801</td>
<td>0.801</td>
<td>0.801</td>
<td>0.801</td>
<td>0.801</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d_5</td>
<td>1.246</td>
<td>1.246</td>
<td>1.246</td>
<td>1.246</td>
<td>1.246</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For scenario A, both the discounting effect and the increasing variances over time work in favor of a strongly accelerated method. Scenario’s B and C with α = 0.9 illustrate that, in contrast to the case where cash-flows are equally distributed (see Theorem 5.2), the optimal depreciation method is no longer accelerated. The explanation is as follows: The higher variances in the early periods imply that the risk of having a cash-flow that is lower than a given depreciation charge is higher in early periods than in later periods. Therefore there is a trade-off between the discounting effect, which always works in favor of accelerated depreciation, and the decreasing variances, which work in favor of the opposite. We see that, whereas the discounting effect still had the upper-hand for α = 0.8, this is no longer the case for α = 0.9. Scenario C makes clear that increased variance in period 4 can imply that it is optimal not to plan any depreciation charge in that period.

### 6.3 The effect of the constraints

We finally demonstrate the effect of constraints on the following scenario.

\[
C_1 \sim N(1, 3), \quad C_2 \sim N(3, 3), \quad C_3 \sim N(4, 3) \\
C_4 \sim N(5, 2), \quad C_5 \sim N(5, 1).
\]

These cash-flow projections for instance describe a project that is quite risky in the beginning, but has good expectations in the longer run.
We consider the two types of constraints, with lower bounds as follows:

\[ l_1 = 0.1, \quad l_2 = 0.3, \quad l_3 = 0.4, \quad l_4 = 0.7, \quad l_5 = 1, \quad (38) \]
\[ \tilde{l}_1 = 1.0, \quad \tilde{l}_2 = 1.0, \quad \tilde{l}_3 = 0.5, \quad \tilde{l}_4 = 0.5, \quad \tilde{l}_5 = 0, \quad (39) \]

in case of dynamic constraints \((\gamma_k \geq l_k)\) and static constraints \((d_k \geq \tilde{l}_k)\), respectively.

The results for (38) respectively (39) are presented in the following two tables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(\gamma)</th>
<th>(\alpha = 0.80)</th>
<th>(\alpha = 0.84)</th>
<th>(\alpha = 0.87)</th>
<th>(\alpha = 0.96)</th>
<th>(\alpha = 0.95)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(\gamma_1)</td>
<td>0.191</td>
<td>0.100</td>
<td>0.100</td>
<td>0.100</td>
<td>0.100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\gamma_2)</td>
<td>0.491</td>
<td>0.359</td>
<td>0.300</td>
<td>0.300</td>
<td>0.300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\gamma_3)</td>
<td>0.766</td>
<td>0.486</td>
<td>0.404</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>0.400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\gamma_4)</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.792</td>
<td>0.700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\gamma_5)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(d)</th>
<th>(\alpha = 0.80)</th>
<th>(\alpha = 0.90)</th>
<th>(\alpha = 0.95)</th>
<th>(\alpha = 1.00)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(d_1)</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d_2)</td>
<td>1.963</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d_3)</td>
<td>1.537</td>
<td>1.011</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>0.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d_4)</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>1.989</td>
<td>1.710</td>
<td>0.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d_5)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.790</td>
<td>2.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In both cases we see that, as \(\alpha\) increases, i.e. the discounting effect gets less strong, more and more constraints become binding. This can be explained as follows: the expected values of the cash-flows are increasing over time, whereas the opposite holds for the variances. Therefore, the risk of ”wasting” tax reduction due to a too low cash-flow is higher in the early periods than in the later periods. This effect favors a scheme with increasing depreciation charges over time. This, however, is prohibited to some extent by the constraints. When the discounting effect becomes strong enough (i.e. \(\alpha\) low enough) the optimal scheme becomes more accelerated over time, so that less constraints are binding, since the risk of ”wasting” tax reduction is dominated by the time value of money in these cases.
7 Conclusion and future research

This paper determines the optimal depreciation scheme given that the objective is to minimize expected discounted future tax payments. Whereas previous research focused on comparing different methods, we determine the optimal depreciation scheme given constraints imposed by the tax authority. We consider both constraints on the fraction of the initial depreciable value, and on the fraction of the remaining depreciable value. This optimization also yields the optimal depreciation life (the optimal number of periods in which to depreciate the asset). The effects of the discount rate, the cash-flow distributions and the constraints are analyzed. Our results make clear that the degree of uncertainty (e.g. the variance) in future cash-flows largely affects the optimal choice. Decisions based solely on the expected value of future cash-flows can therefore be critically off-mark. For future research it might be interesting to move to a game-theoretic approach where the tax authority has to set the constraints. Interesting points there are that, due to welfare considerations, the objective of the government is more complex than maximization of tax revenues, and that the information on the cash-flow distributions will be asymmetric. This can possibly be a starting point for the discussion to increase or decrease the freedom of firms in choosing the tax depreciation method.

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A Proof of Theorem 3.1

Define

\[ \lambda_k^* := \alpha \min_{\gamma \in [l_{k+1}, 1]} \left\{ \gamma (1 - F_{k+1}(0)) + (1 - \gamma) \lambda_{k+1}^* \right\}, \quad k = 1, \ldots, N - 1, \]

\[ \lambda_N^* := 0, \]

\[ \gamma_k^* := \arg\min_{\gamma \in [l_k, 1]} \left\{ \gamma (1 - F_k(0)) + (1 - \gamma) \lambda_k^* \right\}, \quad k = 1, \ldots, N. \]
⇒) First suppose that \( \hat{d} \) satisfies (8)-(14). We will now show that it satisfies (23) and \( d_J \leq F_J^{-1}(1 - \lambda_J^*) \).

First observe that (8) and (9)-(14) imply that \( \gamma_k < 1 \) for all \( k = 1, \ldots, J-1 \) and \( \gamma_J = 1 \), or, equivalently, \( D_J = 0 \) and \( D_{J-1} > 0 \).

Indeed, if \( D_{N-1} > 0 \), then since \( \lambda_N = 0 \), (9), (12) and (13), imply that
\[
\eta_2^N = (1 - F_N(D_{N-1}))D_{N-1} > 0,
\]
\[
\gamma_N = 1,
\]
\[
\eta_1^N = 0.
\]
It therefore follows that \( D_N = 0 \), so that \( J = N \) in this case. If \( D_{N-1} = 0 \), obviously the fact that \( D_0 = D > 0 \), and \( D_k \leq D_{k-1} \) for all \( k \), implies that there exists a unique \( k < N \) such that \( D_k = 0 \) and \( D_{k-1} > 0 \). Since \( d_J > 0 \), and \( d_k = 0 \) for all \( k \geq J + 1 \), it follows that \( k = J \).

It therefore follows that Path 1 or Path 2 is applied in periods \( k = 1, \ldots, J - 1 \). Consequently, (9) and (10) imply that:
\[
\lambda_k := \min\{\alpha \lambda_{k+1}, \alpha (1 - F_{k+1}(l_{k+1} D_k))l_{k+1} + \alpha (1 - l_{k+1}) \lambda_{k+1}\}, \tag{40}
\]
for \( k = 0, \ldots, J - 2 \).

Moreover, \( \gamma_J = 1 \), implies that in period \( J \) either path 3 is followed, or path 1 with \( \gamma_J = \bar{\gamma}_J = 1 \). The dynamics in both cases imply that:
\[
\lambda_{J-1} = \alpha (1 - F_J(D_{J-1})). \tag{41}
\]

Now take an arbitrary \( k \leq J - 1 \). Then \( D_{k-1} > 0 \) and \( \lambda_k > 0 \) imply that \( \bar{\gamma}_k \), as defined in lemma 3.1, exists.

We can now apply lemma 3.1, which yields that:

- Path 2 is feasible iff \( \bar{\gamma}_k < l_k \), and then \( \gamma_k = l_k \).
- Otherwise, path 1 is feasible, and then \( \gamma_k = \bar{\gamma}_k \).

It therefore follows from (9) that:
\[
d_k = \gamma_k D_{k-1} = D_{k-1} - D_k,
\]
\[
= \max\{l_k D_{k-1} , \ F_k^{-1}(1 - \lambda_k)\}, \tag{42}
\]

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for all \( k \leq J - 1 \). This implies that
\[
D_{k-1} = \max \left\{ \frac{D_k}{1 - l_k}, D_k + F^{-1}_k (1 - \lambda_k) \right\},
\]
\[
D_{J-1} = d_J,
\]
so that \( d_k \) satisfies (23) for all \( k \leq J - 1 \).

Moreover, notice that it follows from (21) that the minimal value of \( \lambda_J \) that can be reached with \( \gamma_k \in [l_k, 1] \) for \( k \geq J + 1 \) equals \( \lambda^*_J \). Therefore, \( \eta^2 J \geq 0 \) implies that \( 1 - F_J(d_J) \geq \lambda^*_J \).

It therefore remains to show that \( \Psi_J(d_J) = 0 \). This follows immediately from (8), i.e. \( D_0(d_J, J) = D_0 = D \).

\( \iff \) Suppose that \( (d_1, \ldots, d_J, 0 \ldots, 0) \) satisfies (23) and \( d_J \leq F^{-1}_J(1 - \lambda^*_J) \). We will show that there exist variables \( \gamma_k, \lambda_k, \eta^1_k, \eta^2_k, \) and \( D_k \), for \( k = 1, \ldots, N \), that satisfy (8) and (9)- (14), and lead to depreciation charges as in (23).

Therefore, we define the following variables:
\[
D_{k-1} = \max \left\{ \frac{D_k}{1 - l_k}, D_k + F^{-1}_k (1 - \lambda_k) \right\}, \quad k \leq J - 2,
\]
\[
D_{J-1} = d_J,
\]
\[
D_k = 0, \quad k \geq J,
\]
and
\[
\lambda_k = \min \{ \alpha \lambda_{k+1}, \alpha (1 - F_k(1 + D_k)) + \alpha (1 - l_{k+1}) \lambda_{k+1} \} \quad 0 \leq k \leq J - 2,
\]
\[
\lambda_{J-1} = \alpha (1 - F_J(D_{J-1})),
\]
\[
\lambda_k = \lambda^*_k, \quad J \leq k < N,
\]
\[
\lambda_N = 0.
\]

\[
\gamma_k = (D_{k-1} - D_k)/D_{k-1}, \quad k \leq J - 1,
\]
\[
\gamma_J = 1,
\]
\[
\gamma_k = \gamma^*_k, \quad k \geq J + 1,
\]
(45)
\[ \eta_k^1 = \left( \lambda_k - (1 - F_k(\gamma_k D_{k-1})) \right) D_{k-1}, \quad k \leq J - 1, \]

\[ \eta_k = 0, \quad k \leq J - 1, \]  \hfill (46)

\[ \eta_j^1 = 0, \quad \eta_j^2 = (1 - F_j(D_{j-1}) - \lambda_j^* D_{j-1}, \quad j = J - 1, \]

\[ \eta_k^1 = \eta_k^2 = 0, \quad k \geq J + 1. \]

By definition, one has \( D_{J-1} > 0 \), and consequently, by construction, \( D_k > 0 \), and \( D_{k+1} \leq D_k/(1 - l_k) \) for \( k = 0, \ldots, J - 1 \). This implies that \( \gamma_k \in [l_k, 1] \), and:

\[ \gamma_k = \max \left\{ l_k, \frac{1}{D_{k-1}} F_k^{-1} (1 - \lambda_k) \right\}, \quad k = 1, \ldots, J - 1. \]

Now notice that \( \gamma_k = l_k \) implies that:

\[ \frac{1}{D_{k-1}} F_k^{-1} (1 - \lambda_k) \leq l_k, \]

\[ \Rightarrow \quad 1 - F_k(l_k D_{k-1}) \leq \lambda_k, \]

\[ \Rightarrow \quad \lambda_k - (1 - F_k(l_k D_{k-1})) \geq 0, \]

and \( \gamma_k > l_k \) implies that:

\[ \gamma_k = \frac{1}{D_{k-1}} F_k^{-1} (1 - \lambda_k), \]

\[ \Rightarrow \quad (1 - F_k(\gamma_k(D_{k-1}) = \lambda_k, \]

\[ \Rightarrow \quad \lambda_k - (1 - F_k(\gamma_k D_{k-1})) = 0. \]

This implies that \( \eta_k^1 \geq 0 \) for all \( k \leq J - 1 \), and, by definition, \( \eta_k^1 = 0 \) for \( J \leq k \leq N \). Obviously, also \( \eta_k^2 \geq 0 \) for all \( k \leq N \).

Furthermore, one can check that for all \( k \leq N \),

\[
\begin{cases}
(1 - F_k(\gamma_k D_{k-1})) D_{k-1} - \lambda_k D_{k-1} + \eta_k^1 - \eta_k^2 = 0, \\
\lambda_{k-1} = \alpha T (1 - F_k(\gamma_k D_{k-1})) \gamma_k + \alpha \lambda_k (1 - \gamma_k), \\
\eta_k^1(\gamma_k - l_k) = 0, \\
\eta_k^2(1 - \gamma_k) = 0, 
\end{cases}
\]

It therefore only remains to show that \( D_0 = D \). This follows immediately from \( \Psi_J(D_{J-1}) = 0 \). This completes the proof. \( \square \)
B Proof of Proposition 3.2

Let us denote $\hat{\gamma}_1, \ldots, \hat{\gamma}_J$ for the fractions that yield the optimal depreciation charges in periods $1, \ldots, J$. Then, since $D_J = 0$, the vector $(\hat{\gamma}_1, \ldots, \hat{\gamma}_J, 1, \ldots, 1)$ must satisfy the necessary conditions for optimality. Now $\gamma_{J+1} = 1$ implies that $\lambda_J = \alpha(1 - F_{J+1}(0))$ so that $\eta^2_J$ is non-negative iff (25) is satisfied. □

References


