

## **Lecture 1. Introduction to Finance & Present Values**

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## **Part 1: Financial Markets and Securities**

- The basics: discounting and present values
  - lecture 1
- Financial securities
  - bonds (lecture 2)
  - stocks (lecture 3)
  - derivatives (lecture 6)
- Portfolio theory and expected returns
  - mean-variance portfolio choice (lecture 4)
  - CAPM (lecture 5)

## **Part 2: Corporate Finance**

- Introduction to finance
  - What is a financial market?
  - Why are financial markets useful?
- Present values
  - Present value (PV) and discount rates
  - Net present value (NPV)
  - NPV rule vs. rate of return rule
  - A shortcut for perpetuity

- **Introduction to finance**
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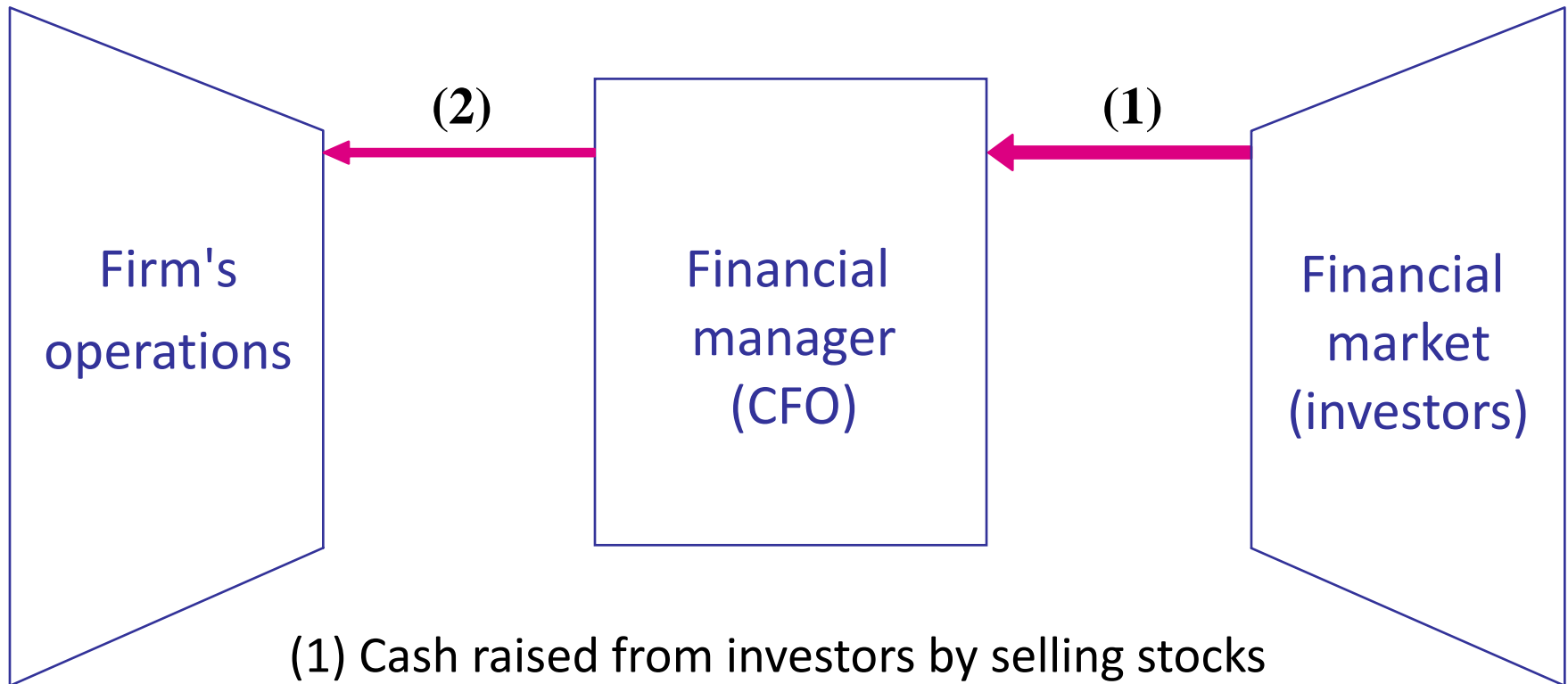
# Topics Covered

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What is a financial market?



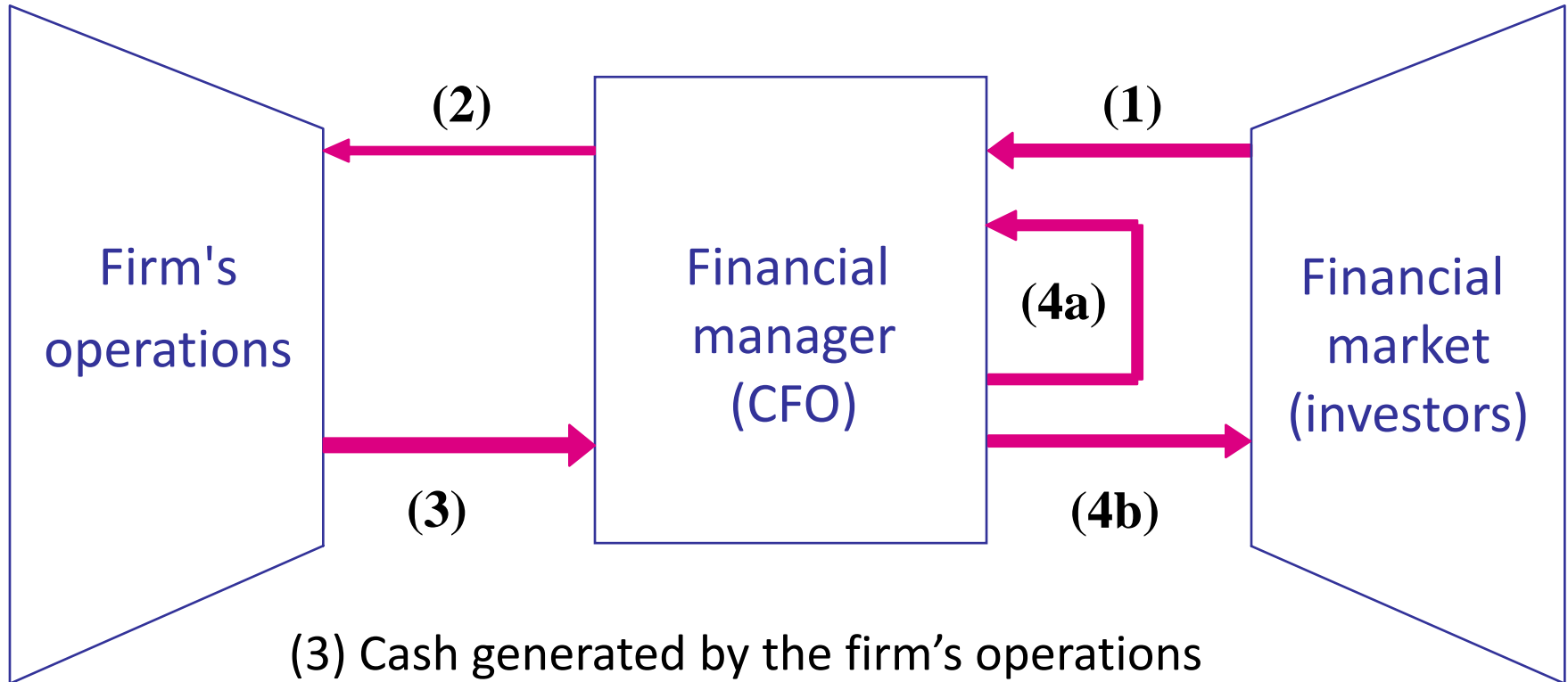
# What is a Financial Market?



(1) Cash raised from investors by selling stocks and bonds to investors in the **primary market** (“initial public offering” or IPO)

(2) Cash invested in the firm’s operations and used to purchase real assets.

# What is a Financial Market?

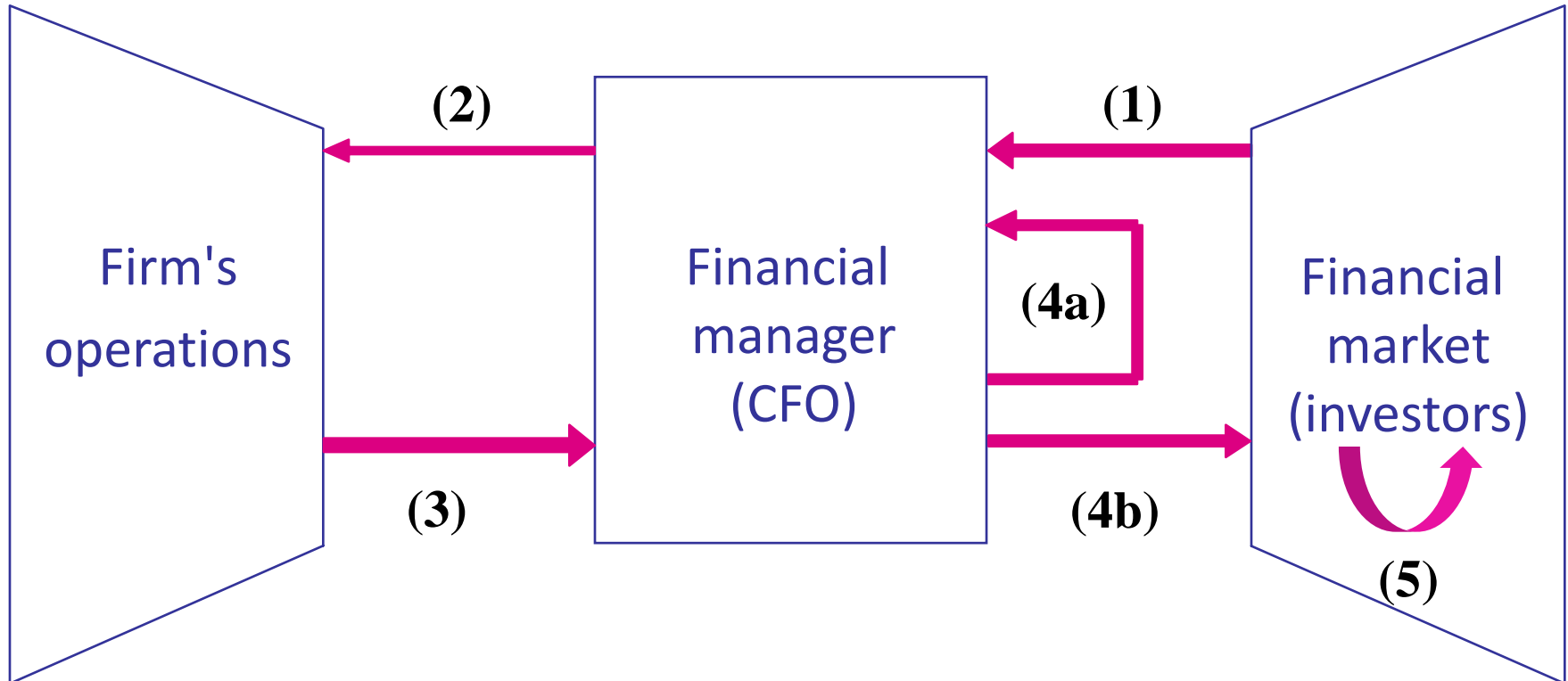


(3) Cash generated by the firm's operations

(4a) Cash **reinvested**

(4b) Cash **distributed** to investors in the form of dividends, coupons, principal, and repurchases

# What is a Financial Market?



(5) Meanwhile, stocks and bonds sold to investors in the **primary market** are being constantly traded amongst the investors in the **secondary market**



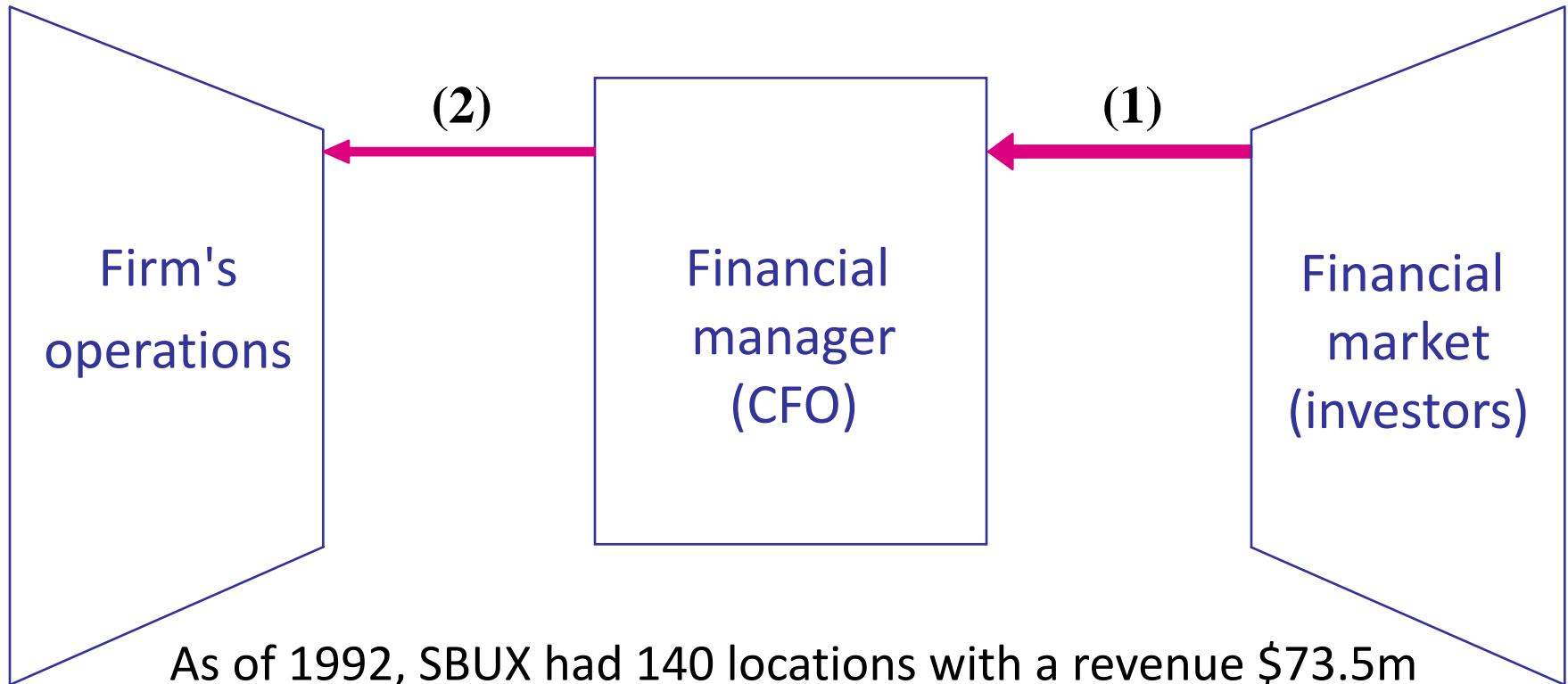
# Example: SBUX

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Let's go through steps (1)-(5) again in the context of Starbucks (SBUX) in 1992.

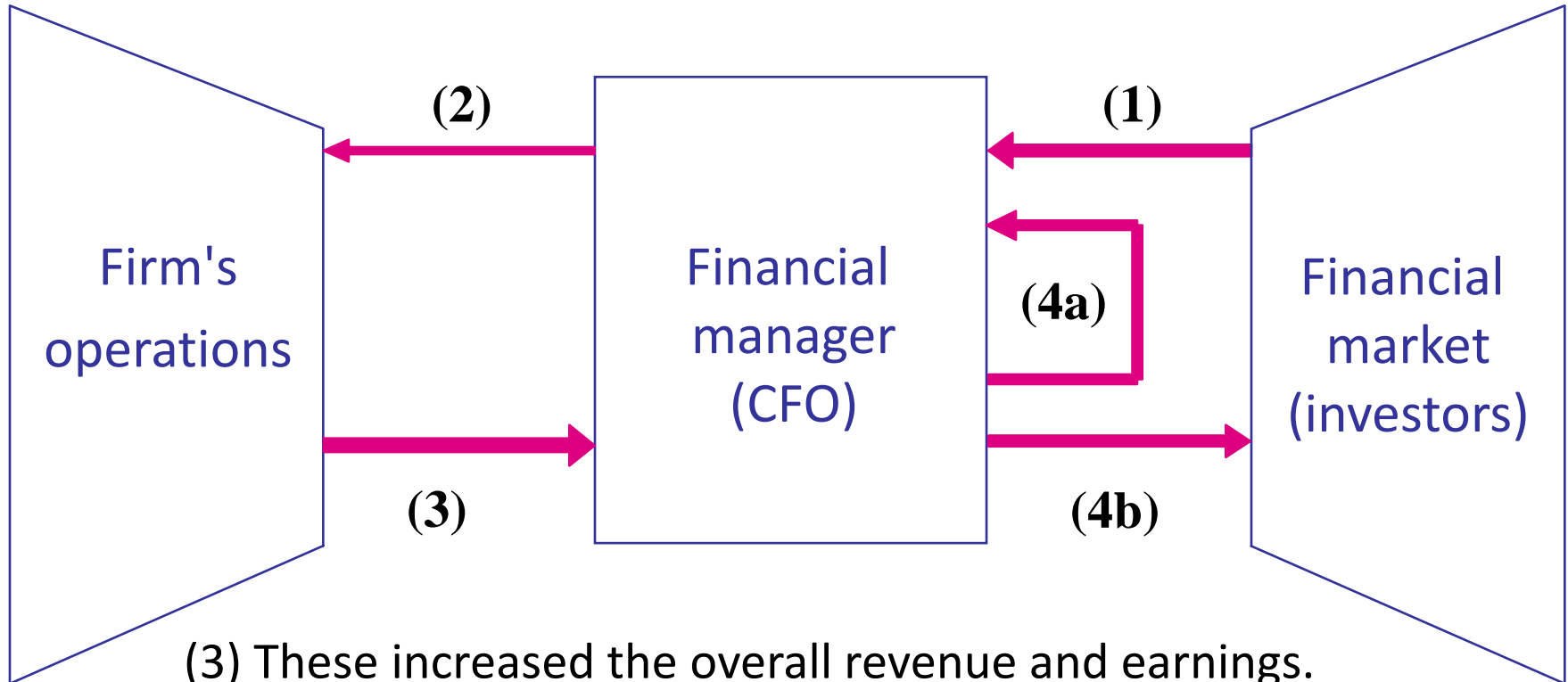
# Example: SBUX



(1) In 1992, SBUX goes “public” to raise \$25 million.

(2) Over the following 2 years, SBUX used this money to double the number of stores and buy the right to sell Frappuccino

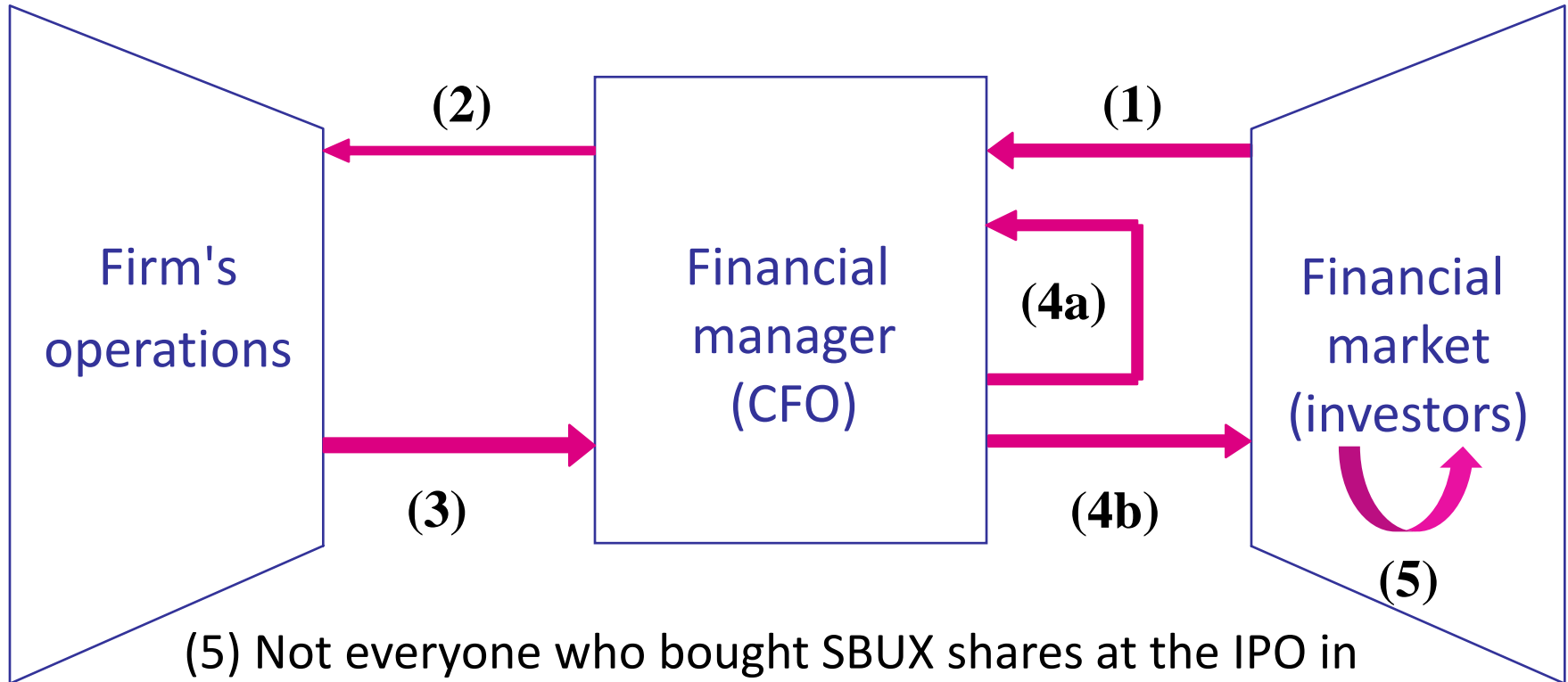
# Example: SBUX



(4a) For the following 18 yrs, SBUX reinvested these earnings.

(4b) SBUX paid its first dividend on Mar 24, 2010.

# Example: SBUX

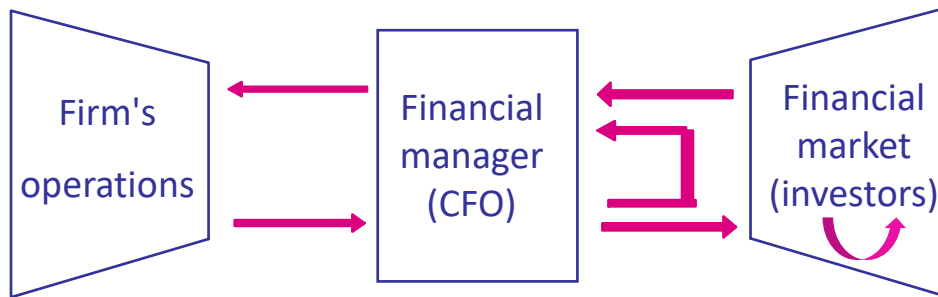


(5) Not everyone who bought SBUX shares at the IPO in 1992 held on to them; stocks have exchanged hands in the secondary market.

If you did hold on to it, you would've transformed a \$1,000 investment into a small flat in London (\$400,000).

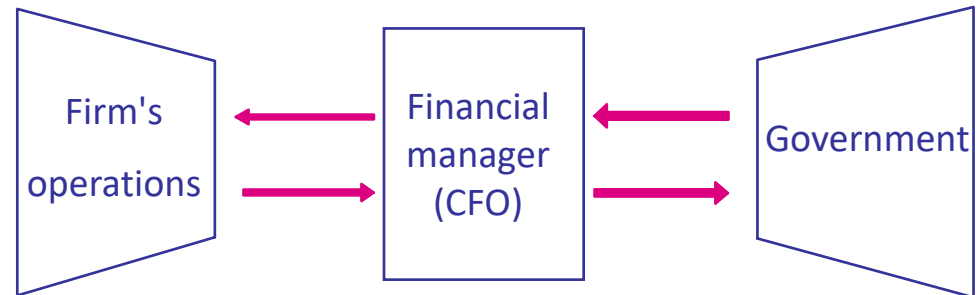
# Why Are Financial Markets Useful?

## Financial market



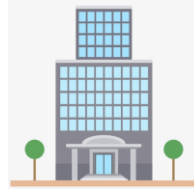
VS.

## Central planning

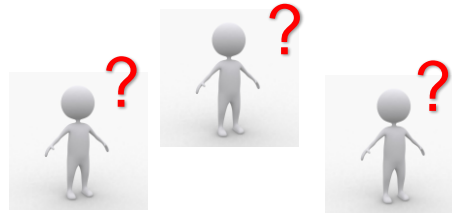


# Why Are Financial Markets Useful?

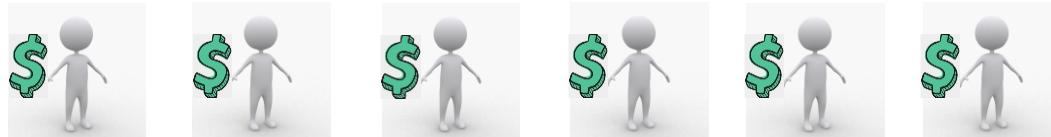
Suppose we need to figure out the value of a firm's business model.  
(Investors give that money to the firm at the IPO or SEO.)



- **Central panning** → the government has to figure this out.



- **Financial market** → leaves this to the investing public, who trades stocks to **determine the firm's market value**.



These market values get **constantly updated** as new information about the economy and the firm flows in.

# Why Are Financial Markets Useful?

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Let's see how the financial market can determine the value of an asset through trading.

We'll simulate a market that trades a stock of a hypothetical company, which pays single dividend equal to **Dr. Cho's age** today (in £).

- There is an **initial public offering** (IPO) for one share.
- Then there is a **secondary market** and more information about the dividend (my age) gets revealed as well.
- The cash will be paid at 11am today to whoever is holding the stock then.

- Introduction to finance
  - What is a financial market?
  - Why are financial markets useful?
- **Present values**
  - Present value (PV) and discount rates
  - Net present value (NPV)
  - Shortcuts for perpetuity and annuity



Should you choose to receive \$100 today or \$105 today?

- Hint: it's not a trick question.
- This decision is easy to make because the cash flows arise **today** with **certainty**.
- In contrast, a **financial decision** compares cash flows that differ across **time** and **state**

Should you choose \$100 today or \$105 a year from now?

- Cash flows arising in **different time periods**.

\$100



\$105

$t = 0$

$t = 1$

Should you choose a certain payoff of \$105 or an expected payoff of \$105 with the actual realizations as below depending on if the state of the economy? (all payoffs a year from now)

- Cash flows in **different states of the world** leading to **uncertainty**.



Between \$100 today and \$100 a year from now, you would probably prefer \$100 today.

Why?

1. Money today allows you to buy something over the next one year if needed; money next year doesn't
2. Even if you didn't plan to buy before next year, Inflation means \$100 buys you less next year

- Let  $C_t$  be the cash flow at date  $t$ . For us,  $t = 0$  means today.
- Let  $PV(C_1)$  denote today's value of  $C_1 = \$100$  in one year.
- We call  $PV(C_1)$  the **present value** of  $C_1$ .
- What is  $PV(C_1)$ ?

- At the least we do know that  $PV(C_1) < \$100$ .

- Hence, we can write

$$PV(C_1) = \frac{C_1}{1 + r}$$

where  $r > 0$ .

- We call  $r$  the **discount rate**.
- We can find  $r$  as the **expected return on an investment with a similar risk profile** as the cash flow  $C_1$ .
  - Why?
  - We want to find an investment of  $\$PV(C_1)$  in an asset that replicates the exact same cash flows across time and state.
  - The **riskier** the payoffs, the **higher the discount rate**. The precise definition of risk in lecture 5.

# Present Value and Discount Rate

Should you choose \$100 today or \$105 a year from now? The 1-year US Treasury bill currently offers a 2% annual interest.

\$100



\$102.9

\$105

$$PV = \frac{\$105}{1.02}$$

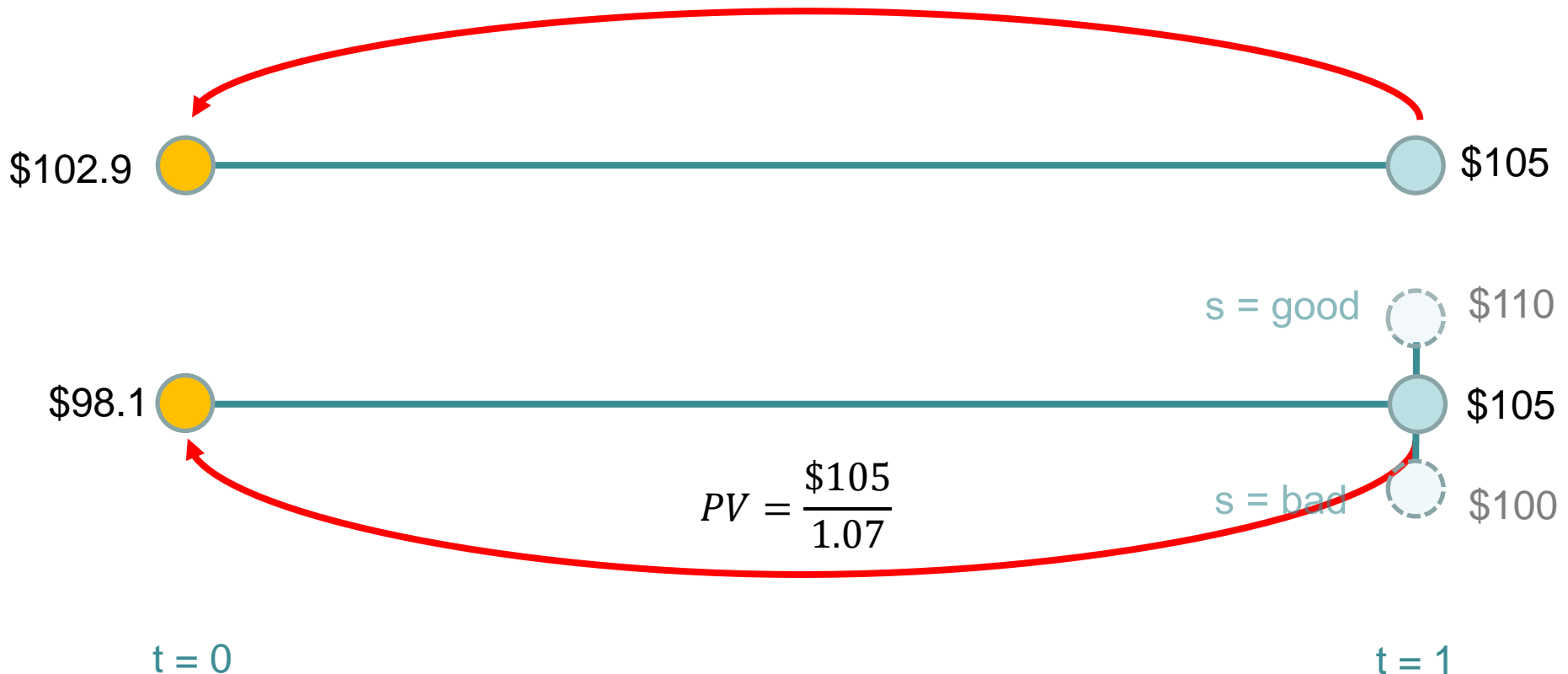
$t = 0$

$t = 1$

You would prefer the \$105 a year from now, since it has a PV of \$102.9 > \$100.

# Present Value and Discount Rate

Should you choose a certain payoff of \$105 or an expected payoff of \$105 with the actual realizations as below depending on the economy? (all payoffs a year from now) A stock with the same risk as the uncertain payoff has an expected return 7%.





What is the present value of  $C_2$  in two years?

- First, discount  $C_2$  from year 2 to year 1 to get  $\frac{C_2}{1+r}$  as the “present value” as of year 1.
- Next, discount  $\frac{C_2}{1+r}$  from year 1 to year 0 to get  $\frac{C_2}{(1+r)^2}$  as the present value as of year 0 (today).



# Present Value of Cash Flow in Year $t$

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The present value, as of today (year 0), of a cash flow that occurs in year  $t$  is

$$\frac{C_t}{(1 + r)^t}$$

Suppose a project, denoted S, generates the following **stream of cash flows**:

Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
£20	£25	£45

What is the present value of project S if the discount rate is 3%?

Notice that owning this project is equivalent to owning a set of three simple projects:

Project A	Earn £20 in year 1
Project B	Earn £25 in year 2
Project C	Earn £45 in year 3

Then,

$$PV(S) = PV(A) + PV(B) + PV(C)$$

$$= \frac{20}{1.03} + \frac{25}{(1.03)^2} + \frac{45}{(1.03)^3} = £84.16$$

The present value of a stream of cash flows  $\{C_1, C_2, C_3, \dots, C_T\}$  is given by

$$PV = \sum_{t=1}^T \frac{C_t}{(1+r)^t}$$

where  $T$  is the date at which the cash flows become zero forever (if there is no such a date, then we set  $T=\infty$ ).

When a stream of cash flows includes a **contemporaneous cash flow** ( $C_0$ ), the present value of such a stream is often called the **net present value** (NPV).

In most applications, the first cash flow is negative ( $C_0 < 0$ ), reflecting the initial cost of an investment.

Example: Suppose you buy a London flat today for £1M, and you expect to sell it in one year for £1.2M. If the discount rate is 10%,  
$$NPV = -1M + \frac{1.2}{1.1} = £90,909.09$$

Note that the PV formula also works for a contemporaneous cash flow  $C_0$ :

$$PV_0(C_0) = \frac{C_0}{(1+k)^0} = C_0$$

So, we have the more general formula:

$$NPV = C_0 + \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \frac{C_t}{(1+k)^t} = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \frac{C_t}{(1+k)^t}$$

The NPV gives us a criterion for making financial investments:  
**Invest if and only if  $NPV > 0$ .**

Suppose the London flat costs instead 1.1M today. You may think it's still a good idea to buy it and sell it later for 1.2M. What does the NPV say?

$$NPV = -1.1M + \frac{1.2}{1.1} = -£9,090.91$$

So you're actually losing money with such an investment!



## Example

- *You want to buy a house and sell it next year at the forecasted price of \$40,000.*
- *You think that the housing market is risky, so you apply a relatively high discount rate of 12%.*
- *If the sale price is \$35,000, what is the net present value of your investment in the house?*

$$NPV = -\$35,000 + \frac{\$40,000}{1.12} = \$700$$

- Hence buying the house is a good deal.

# (Internal) Rate of Return: Definition

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Rate of return (RR) of a project is implicitly defined by

$$P_0 = \frac{C_1}{1 + RR} + \frac{C_2}{(1 + RR)^2} + \frac{C_3}{(1 + RR)^3} + \dots$$

where  $P_0$  is the price or the initial cost of investment.

The rule is to

1. Accept a project with the rate of return (RR) greater than discount rate ( $r$ ). This is called the **rate of return rule**.
2. Prefer a project with a higher RR between two projects with the same discount rate.

# Rate of Return: Example

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## Example

- *You want to buy a house and sell it next year at the forecasted price of \$40,000.*
- *You think that the housing market is risky, so you apply a relatively high discount rate of 12%.*
- *If the sale price is \$35,000, what is the rate of return on the investment? Compare it to the discount rate.*

$$P_0 = \frac{C_1}{1 + RR} \Rightarrow RR = \frac{C_1}{P_0} - 1 = 14.3\%$$

- Hence,  $RR = 14.3\% > r = 12\%$

# Pitfalls of the Rate of Return Rule

- But the rate of return rule can be tricky to use (chapter 5.3).

$$P_0 = \frac{C_1}{1 + RR} + \frac{C_2}{(1 + RR)^2} + \frac{C_3}{(1 + RR)^3} + \dots$$

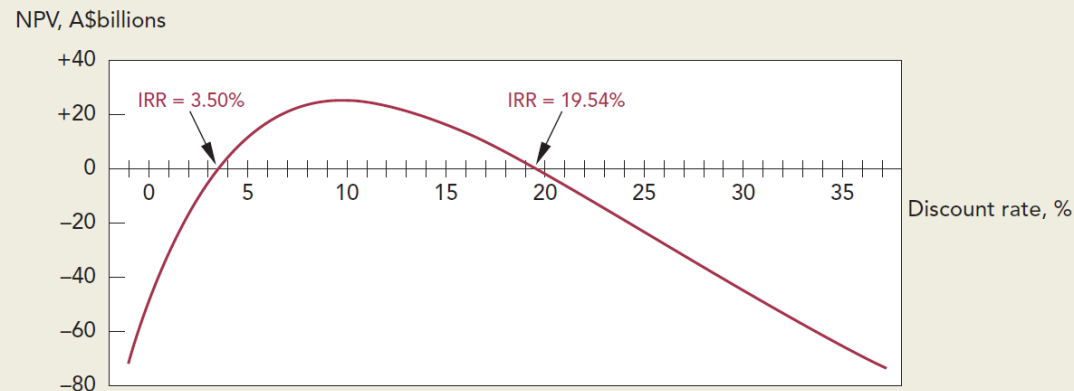
- Lending or borrowing? RR may be the same for two projects with negative and positive NPVs

Cash Flows (\$)				
Project	$C_0$	$C_1$	IRR	NPV at 10%
A	-1,000	+1,500	+50%	+364
B	+1,000	-1,500	+50%	-364

2. Multiple rates of return when there is more than one negative cash flow. For example:

Cash Flows (billions of Australian dollars)				
$C_0$	$C_1$	...	$C_9$	$C_{10}$
-3	1		1	-6.5

There are two IRRs in this case.



**FIGURE 5.4**

Helmsley Iron's mine has two internal rates of return. NPV = 0 when the discount rate is +3.50% and when it is +19.54%.

- What's the verdict? **Just use the NPV rule**, especially when the IRR calculation is not straightforward.

What is the present value of a project that pays annual cash flow  $C$  forever, starting in one year from now?

Let's call this project a **perpetuity**, and its present value by  $PV_0(P)$ .

Denote the present value of the perpetuity at time 1 by  $PV_1(P)$ .

# Deriving the Perpetuity Formula

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By construction, we have

$$PV_0(P) = \frac{C + PV_1(P)}{1 + k}$$

But notice that  $PV_0(P) = PV_1(P)$ . Why? In both cases, you receive the same amount  $C$  until infinity.

$$PV_0(P) = \frac{C + PV_0(P)}{1 + k}$$



# Deriving the Perpetuity Formula

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$$PV_0(P) = \frac{C + PV_0(P)}{1 + k}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow PV_0(P) + kPV_0(P) = C + PV_0(P)$$

$$PV_0(P) = \frac{C}{k}$$

Notice that the value of a perpetuity is not infinite!

There's also a shortcut for the present value of an “annuity,” but that's somewhat less useful for security valuation.

- Perpetuities do exist in the real world.
- Over the years, the UK Government has issued some bonds—usually called **consols**—that pay a fixed interest forever.
  - Ex: Winston Churchill issued “4% consols” in 1927, to refinance national war bonds originating from the first World War.
- What is the value of a 4% consol with a **face value** of £1,000, if the discount rate is 0.75%? Answer:  $(1000 \times 0.04)/0.0075 = £5,333.33$