

Investment and Financial Management

Lecture Notes

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1 Introduction & Financial Analysis

Corporate Finance: Identifying profitable investment projects + Determining optimal financing + Liquidity planning => Maximizing firm / enterprise value

1.1 Financial Analysis

1.1.1 Firms' disclosure of financial information

Purpose of financial statements:

1. Firm-issued accounting reports with past performance info
2. Reliable source of info for shareholders and stakeholders¹ of the firm
3. Filed with relevant listing authority
4. Preparation under certain rules and standards (GAAP, IFRS)

Main types of financial statements:

1. Balance sheet / statement of financial position
2. Income Statement
3. Statement of cash flows
4. Statement of changes in shareholders' equity

1.1.2 Balance sheet / statement of financial position

Balance sheet / financial position: snapshot of firm's financial position (assets, liabilities, shareholder's equity) at a given point in time

Balance sheet equation: Two sides must be equal: $Assets = Liabilities + Shareholder's Equity$

¹A **shareholder** is someone who owns stock in your company, while a **stakeholder** (*example: supplier, government*) focuses on the company's overall performance, how it treats customers, partners, and employees, and how it impacts the community, among other things.

Balance Sheet					
Assets			Liabilities		
Current Assets <12 months	Cash & Equivalents	Cash, T-Bills <3 Month Maturity	Current Liabilities	Short-Term Debt	Debt that is due <1 Year
	Marketable Securities	Equity, Debt (Liquid Financial Instruments)		Payables	Interest, Wages, Dividends, Taxes, Accrued Liabilities
	Accounts Receivable	Outstanding Payments by customers	Long-Term Liabilities	Long-Term Debt	Interest & Principal on Bonds >1 Year
	Inventory	Produced Goods ready for sale		Deferred Taxes	Taxes due >1 Year
	Prepaid Expenses	Rent, Insurance Advanced Payments		Pension Liabilities	Employee Retirement
Long-Term Assets	Long Term Investments	Illiquid Securities <1 Year	Shareholder Equity	Retained Earnings	Profits kept by the Company
	Fixed Assets	Land, Machinery, Equipment, Buildings		Treasury Stock	Repurchased Stock
	Intangible Assets	Brands, Goodwill, Patents, Trademarks		Additional Paid-In Capital	Shareholder Investments beyond par value price

The Accounting Equation

$$\text{Assets} = \text{Liabilities} + \text{Shareholder's Equity}$$

- **Assets:** what the company owns
- **Liabilities:** what the company owes (debts, taxes etc.)
- **Shareholder's Equity:** difference between assets and liabilities
- **Assets**
 - **Current Assests:** cash or expected to be turned into cash in the next year (not all operational!) (*cash, marketable securities, accounts receivable, inventories*)
 - **Non-current Assets (Fixed assets):** assets for long-term use (operational, more than one year) (*net property, plant, equipment(PPE), goodwill and intangible assets*)
- **Liabilities**
 - **Current Liabilities:** due to be paid within one year (*accounts payable, short-term debt / notes payable, current maturities of non-current (long term) debt, taxes payable, wages payable*)
 - **Net working capital (NWC):**

$$NWC = \text{Current Assets} - \text{Current Liabilities}$$

- **Non-current Liabilities:** to be paid beyond one year (*long-term debt, capital leases, deferred taxes*)
- **Shareholder's Equity: Book value vs. Market value²**

²**Book value** is the net value of a firm's assets found on its balance sheet. **Market value** is the company's worth based on the total value of its outstanding shares in the market, which is its market capitalization.

- **Book value of equity:**

$$\text{Book value of equity} = \text{Book value of assets} - \text{Book value of liabilities}$$

- * Could be negative
- * Many of the valuable assets may not be captured on the balance sheet

- **Market value of equity (= Market capitalization, market cap):**

$$\text{Market value of equity} = \text{Market price per share} * \text{No. of shares outstanding}$$

- * Cannot be negative
- * Often differs substantially from book value

- **Market-to-book (M/B) ratio (= Price-to-book (P/B) ratio):**

$$M/B \text{ ratio} = \frac{\text{Market value of equity}}{\text{Book value of equity}}$$

- * Successful firms have M/B ratio higher than 1
- * Value Stocks³: Low M/B ratios
- * Growth stocks⁴: High M/B ratios

- **Enterprise value (EV) (= Total enterprise value (TEV))**

- Value of firm's underlying business operations / assets
- Enterprise value \neq Equity value

$$\text{Enterprise value} = \text{Market value of equity} + \underbrace{\text{Debt} - \text{Cash}}_{\text{Net debt}}$$

- * $\text{Net debt} = \text{Total debt} - \text{Cash \& short-term investments}$
subs

1.1.3 Income statement

Income statement: record of a firm's revenue, expense, and profit over a given period of time

³A **value stock** is trading at levels that are perceived to be below its fundamentals.

⁴A **growth stock** is any share in a company that is anticipated to grow at a rate significantly above the average growth for the market (*example: TSLA*).

Income statement of firm XY	
Revenue / total sales	
– Cost of sales / cost of goods sold (COGS)	
= Gross profit	
– Operating expenses:	
• Selling, general and administrative expenses (SGA)	
• Depreciation and amortization expense (D&A)	
= Operating income	
+ / – Other income / expenses	
= Earnings before interest and taxes (EBIT)	
+ / – Interest income / expenses	
= Pre-tax income	
– Tax	
= Net income	

- **Net Income = Total earnings of the firm's equity holders**
 - **Earnings per share (EPS):** how much money a company makes for each share of its stock

$$EPS = \frac{Net\ income}{Shares\ outstanding}$$

- **Diluted earnings per share (Diluted EPS):**⁵ Future EPS could be diluted by in-the-money share (stock) options, convertible bonds or warrants. The diluted EPS takes these potential effects into account.

1.1.4 Statement of cash flows

- Record of sources and uses of the firm's cash over a given period of time
 - Sources of cash: activity that brings cash into firm (*example: sales*)
 - Uses of cash: causes cash to leave firm (*example: dividend payments*⁶)
- Derived from firm's income statement and changes in balance sheet
- Consists of:
 - Cash flows from **operating**, **investing** and **financing** activities

⁵**Dilution** occurs when a company issues new shares that result in a decrease in existing stockholders' ownership percentage of that company.

⁶A **dividend** is the distribution of a company's earnings to its shareholders and is determined by the company's board of directors.

1.1.5 Financial statement analysis

- **Financial ratios**

- Are used to:
 - * Compare firm with itself over time
 - * Compare firm to other similar firms
- Key financial ratios measure a firm's:
 - * Profitability
 - * Liquidity
 - * Working Capital
 - * Interest Coverage
 - * Leverage (Gearing)
 - * Valuation
 - * Operating Returns

- **Profitability ratios**

- Measures of a firm's ability to generate profits as a percentage of the sales generated (margin ratios; margin = portion of sales that is a profit)
- Four levels of profitability ratios (resulting from income statement)

1.

$$\text{Gross margin} = \frac{\text{Gross profit}}{\text{Sales}}$$

2.

$$\text{Operating margin} = \frac{\text{Operating income}}{\text{Sales}}$$

3.

$$\text{EBIT margin} = \frac{\text{EBIT}}{\text{Sales}}$$

4.

$$\text{Net profit margin} = \frac{\text{Net income}}{\text{Sales}}$$

- **Liquidity ratios**

- Measures of a firm's ability to meet short-term debt obligations
- Help to assess firm's liquidity / financial solvency info of balance sheet / statement of financial position

1.

$$\text{Current ratio} = \frac{\text{Current assets}}{\text{Current liabilities}}$$

2.

$$\text{Quick ratio} = \frac{\text{Cash} + \text{Short-term investm.} + \text{Accounts receivables}}{\text{Current liabilities}}$$

3.

$$\text{Cash ratio} = \frac{\text{Cash}}{\text{Current liabilities}}$$

- **Interest coverage ratios**

- Measures of a firm's ability to meet its interest payments by comparing its earnings with its interest expenses
- Higher ratio = firm is earning much more than necessary to meet its obligations

1.

$$\text{EBIT/Interest coverage} = \frac{\text{EBIT}}{\text{Interest expense}}$$

2.

$$\text{EBITDA/Interest coverage} = \frac{\text{EBIT} + \text{Depreciation/Amortization}}{\text{Interest expense}}$$

- **Leverage / gearing ratios**

- Measures of a firm's reliance on debt as a source of financing
- Leverage ratios can be measured using book or market values!
- Important and common ratios:

1.

$$\text{Debt-equity ratio} = \frac{\text{Total debt}}{\text{Total equity}}$$

2.

$$\text{Debt-to-capital ratio} = \frac{\text{Total debt}}{\text{Total equity} + \text{Total debt}}$$

3.

$$\text{Debt-to-EV ratio} = \frac{\text{Net debt}}{\text{Market value} + \text{Net debt}}$$

4.

$$\text{Equity multiplier} = \frac{\text{Total assets}}{\text{Book value of equity}}$$

- **Valuation ratios**

- Measures to help investors assess market value of a firm
- These ratios are intended to make intra-industry comparisons of firm valuations.

1.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Price-to-earnings (P/E) ratio} &= \frac{\text{Market capitalization}}{\text{Net income}} \\ &= \frac{\text{Share price}}{\text{Earnings per share}}\end{aligned}$$

2.

$$\text{EV to EBIT} = \frac{\text{Market value of equity} + \text{Debt} - \text{Cash}}{\text{EBIT}}$$

3.

$$\text{EV to Sales} = \frac{\text{Market value of equity} + \text{Debt} - \text{Cash}}{\text{Sales}}$$

- **Operating returns / investment returns**

- Measures of a firm's returns on investment
- Compare its income to its investment using financial information from balance sheet / statement of financial position

1.

$$\text{Return on equity (ROE)} = \frac{\text{Net income}}{\text{Book value of equity}}$$

2.

$$\text{Return on assets (ROA)} = \frac{\text{Net income} + \text{Interest expense}}{\text{Total assets}}$$

3.

$$\text{Return on invested capital (ROIC)} = \frac{EBIT * (1 - \text{Tax rate})}{\text{Book value of equity} + \text{Net debt}}$$

4.

$$\text{Asset turnover} = \frac{\text{Sales}}{\text{Total assets}}$$

- **DuPont identity**

- DuPont identity further decomposes return on equity (ROE) into three components:

- * Profitability (= Net profit margin)
- * Asset efficiency (= Asset turnover)
- * Leverage (= Equity multiplier)

$$ROE = \underbrace{\left(\frac{\text{Net income}}{\text{Sales}}\right)}_{\text{Net profit margin}} * \underbrace{\left(\frac{\text{Sales}}{\text{Total assets}}\right)}_{\text{Asset turnover}} * \underbrace{\left(\frac{\text{Total assets}}{\text{Book value of equity}}\right)}_{\text{Equity multiplier}}$$

1.2 Investment Analysis

1.2.1 Net present value (NPV)

- **NPV (of a project or investment):** difference between present value of its benefits (cash inflow) and present value of its costs (cash outflow)

$$NPV = PV(\text{Benefits}) - PV(\text{Costs}) = PV(\text{All project cash flows})$$

$$NPV = \sum_{t=0}^T \frac{CF_t}{(1+r)^t}$$

With:

- NPV = Net present value, PV = Present Value, CF_t = cash flow in period t, r = Appropriate discount rate

- **NPV rule:**

- **NPV decision rule:** When making an investment decision, take the alternative with the highest NPV.

- **Accepting or rejecting a project:**
 - * Accept, if positive NPV, expected profit => equivalent to receiving its NPV cash today
 - * Reject, if negative NPV, expected net loss => would reduce the wealth of investors
- **Alternative rules versus NPV rule:**
 - * Sometimes alternative investment rules give the same answer as the NPV rule, but at other times they disagree. If rules conflict, follow NPV decision rule.
 - * Equivalent rules: Economic value added (EVA), Annuity-rule

1.2.2 Internal rate of return (IRR)

- **IRR:** discount rate that makes NPV equal to zero (at which $PV(\text{Costs}) = PV(\text{Benefits})$)

$$NPV = \sum_{t=0}^N \frac{CF_t}{(1 + IRR)^t} = 0$$

With:

- NPV = Net present value, CF_t = cash flow in period t, IRR = Internal rate of return

- **IRR rule:**
 - **IRR investment rule:**
 - * Take any investment, if its IRR exceeds cost of capital⁷
 - * Turn any down investment, if its IRR is less than cost of capital
 - **Application of IRR rule: IRR vs. NPV**
 - * IRR rule works for a stand-alone project if all of the project's **negative cash flows**⁸ precede **positive cash flows**⁹. In other cases, IRR rule may disagree with NPV rule thus be incorrect!

Example: If market conditions change over the years, project A can have multiple IRRs. Thus, IRR cannot be used. Instead, use NPV for comparison of projects.

⁷**Cost of capital** is the minimum rate of return or profit a company must earn before generating value (e.g. undertaking a project, such as building new factory).

⁸outgoing > incoming

⁹outgoing < incoming

- **Pitfalls of IRR rule:** Situations where IRR and NPV rules may conflict:
 1. Delayed investments
 2. Multiple IRRs
 3. Nonexistent IRR
- **IRR vs. IRR rule:**
 - While IRR rule has shortcomings for making investment decisions, IRR itself remains useful.
 - **But:**
 - * IRR measures average return of investment => exact measure for average ROIC of a project over its lifetime.
 - * IRR can be used to check the sensitivity of NPV to any estimation error in the cost capital.
- **Mutually exclusive projects:**
 - When you must choose only one project among several possible projects, the choice is mutually exclusive¹⁰.
 - * **NPV rule:** Select the project with highest NPV.
 - * **IRR rule:** Selecting the project with the highest IRR may lead to mistakes.
- **IRR rule and mutually exclusive investment with project ranking with different scales:**
 - If a project's size is doubled, its NPV will double. This is not the case with IRR. Thus, IRR rule cannot be used to compare projects of different scales.
- **Project ranking with timing of cash flows:**
 - Problem with IRR: it can be affected by changing the timing of cash flows, even when the scale is the same.
 - IRR is a return, but the dollar value of earning a given return depends on how long the return is earned.
 - *Example: A project with lower IRR can have a much higher NPV due to its higher growth rate.*
- **Project ranking with differences in risk:**
 - An IRR, that is attractive for a safe project, need not to be attractive for a riskier project.
 - *Example: IRR of a project is higher than those of the other investment opportunities, yet has the lowest NPV.*
 - Higher cost of capital (e.g. due to size of the project) = Higher IRR

¹⁰If two or more events are **mutually exclusive**, they cannot happen simultaneously.

1.2.3 Other methods

- **Payback method:**

- **Payback period:** amount of time it takes to recover or pay back the initial investment (initial cash outflow).
- **Payback rule:** Accept project, if payback period is less than a pre-specified length of time. Otherwise reject.
- **Applicability of payback rule:** Payback rule is used by many companies due to its simplicity. Maybe, firms often care more about the liquidity drain of a project rather than its profitability.
- **Shortcomings of the payback rule:**
 - * Ignores the project's cost of capital and time value of money ¹¹
 - * Ignores cash flows after the payback period
 - * Relies on an ad hoc decision criterion

- **Probability index (PI):** PI can be used to identify the optimal combination of projects to undertake. Companies use it for evaluation of projects with different resource constraints.

$$\text{Profitability index} = \frac{\text{Value created}}{\text{Resource consumed}} = \frac{NPV}{\text{Resource consumed}}$$

- **PI rule:** When choosing among projects competing for the same resource, pick the set of projects with the highest PIs that can still be undertaken given the limited resource.

- **Shortcomings of PI:**

- It does not take into account the size of the project, so it is not accurate in some cases.
- *Example: A large project with lower profit margins may have a lower profitability index than a smaller project with higher profit margins.*
- Different combinations must be enumerated in order to find out NPV maximizing combination.
- With multiple resource constraints, PI can break down completely.

1.3 Capital Budgeting

Capital Budgeting: A planning process used by a firm to determine if major projects or investments are worth the funding of cash capitalization structures (debt, equity or retained earnings)

¹¹**Time value of money** means that a sum of money is worth more now than the same sum of money in the future. It can grow only through investing so a delayed investment is a lost opportunity.