Investment and Financial Management Lecture Notes

Efe Kamasoglu

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1 Introduction & Financial Analysis

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

2 Financial Analysis

2.1 Firms's 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. Preperation 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

2.2 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: Assests = 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 Bond
	Inventory	Produced Goods ready for sale		Deferred Taxes	>1 Year 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, Mashinery,		Treasury Stock	Repurchased Stoc
	Intangible Assets	Equipment, Buildings Brandname, Goodwill Patents, Trademarks		Additional Paid-In Capital	Shareholder Investments beyon par value price

The Accounting Equation

Assets = Liabilities + 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):

$$NWC = Current \ Assets - Current \ Liabilities$$

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

 $^{{}^2\}mathbf{Book}$ value is the <u>net value of a firm's assets</u> found on its balance sheet. Market value is the <u>company's worth based on the total value of its outstanding shares in the market, which is its <u>market capitalization</u>.</u>

Book value of equity:

 $Book\ value\ of\ equity = Book\ value\ of\ assets - Book\ value\ of\ liabilities$

- * Could be negative
- * Many of the valuable assets may not be captured on the balance sheet
- Market value of equity (= Market capitalization, market cap):

 $|Market\ value\ of\ equity = Market\ price\ per\ share *No.\ of\ shares\ outstanding$

- * Cannot be negative
- * Often differs substantially from book value
- Market-to-book (M/B) ratio (= Price-to-book (P/B) ratio):

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

- * 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

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

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

2.3 Income statement

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

 $^{^3\}mathrm{A}$ 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 <u>anticipated to grow</u> 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 intp account.

2.4 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 payments⁶)
- 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 <u>issues new shares</u> that result in a decrease in existing stockholders' ownership percentage of that company.

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

2.5 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 Covarage
 - * 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.

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

2.

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

3.

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

4.

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

• 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.

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

2.

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

3.

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

• 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.

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

2.

$$EBITDA/Interest\ coverage = \frac{\overbrace{EBIT + \text{Depreciation/Amortization}^7}}{Interest\ expense}$$

• 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:

 $^{^7}$ Amortization is the method that is used to <u>decrease the cost of the asset over time</u>,df while **depreciation** is the <u>loss in value of the asset over time</u> Both of them are methods of calculating the value for business assets over time.

1.

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

2.

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

3.

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

4.

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

• 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.

$$Price-to-earnings (P/E) \ ratio = \frac{Market \ capitalization}{Net \ income}$$

$$= \frac{Share \ price}{Earnings \ per \ share}$$

2.

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

3.

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

• 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.

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

2.

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

3.

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

4.

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

- DuPont identity
 - DuPont identity further decomposes return on equity (ROE) into theree components:
 - * Profitability (= Net profit margin)
 - * Asset efficiency (= Asset turnover)
 - * Leverage (= Equity multiplier)

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

3 Investment Analysis

- 3.1 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)

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

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

With:

- NPV = Net present value, PV = Present Value, CF $_{\rm t}$ = 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

3.2 Internal rate of return (IRR)

• IRR: discount rate that makes NPV equal to zero (at which PV(Costs) = PV(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 capital⁸

⁸Cost 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).

* 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**⁹ precede **positive cash flows**¹⁰. In other cases, IRR rule may disagree with NPV rule thus be <u>incorrect!</u>

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.

- 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.
- $\ast\,$ 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 exclusive¹¹.
 - * NPV rule: Select the project with highest NPV.
 - * <u>IRR rule:</u> 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:

 $^{^9}$ outgoing > incoming

 $^{^{10}}$ outgoing < incoming

¹¹If two or more events are **mutually exclusive**, they cannot happen simultaneously.

- 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.
- <u>Example</u>: 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.
- <u>Example</u>: 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

3.3 Other methods

- Payback method:
 - Payback period: amount of time it takes to recover or pay back the initial investment (initial cash outflow).
 - Payback rule: <u>Accept project</u>, if payback period is less than a prespecified 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 profitibility.
 - Shortcomings of the payback rule:
 - * Ignores the project's cost of capital and time value of money 12
 - * 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.

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

 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.

 $^{^{12}}$ 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.

• Shortcomings of PI:

- It does not take into account the size of the project, so it is not accurate in some cases.
- <u>Example</u>: 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.

4 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)

4.1 Determining free cash flow (FCF) and NPV

- **FCF:** It is the cash a company generates after taking into consideration cash outflows that support its operations and maintain its capital assets. Thus, it is firm's extra cash after its operating expenses and other areas.
- Methods of calculation of free cash flow:
 - Direct calculation
 - Calculation from earnings
- Two forms of free cash flow:
 - Free cash flow to the firm (FCFF): FCF available to all providers of a firm's capital, including bondholders, shareholders and common stockholders.
 - Free cash flow to the equity (FCFE): FCF available to a firm's common (equity) stockholders
- Direct calculation of FCF:

$$FCF = \overbrace{(Revenue - Cost - Depreciation) * (1 - t_C)}^{\text{Unlevered net income}} + Depreciation - CapEx - \Delta NWC$$

$$FCF = (Revenue - Cost) * (1 - t_C) - CapEx - \Delta NWC + t_C * Depreciation$$

With:

- FCF = Free cash flow, $t_{\rm C}$ = Corporate tax rate, $t_{\rm C}$ * Depreciation tax shield, CapEx = Capital expenditures, NWC = Net working capital
- Calculation of FCF from earnings:

Free cash flow of firm XY

Earnings before interest and taxes (EBIT)

- Adjusted tax expense
- + Depreciation
- + / Change in net operating working capital
- = Cash flow from operations
- + Cash flow from investments (capital expenditures)
- = Free (project) cash flow

• Forecasting earnings:

- Capital budget: Lists the investments that a company plans to undertake
- Capital budgeting: Process used to analyze alternate investments
 and decide which ones to accept => using NPV to evaluate capital budgeting decisions
- Incremental earnings: Amount by which the firm's earnings are expected to change as a result of the investment decision

• Interest expense:

 In capital budgeting decisions, interest expense¹³ is typically not included. Project should be judged on its own, not on how it will be financed.

- Note:

- * Interest expense is taken into account in cost of capital, i.e. discount rate used for calculating NPV.
- * Hence, if we considered interest payments as an expense, there would be a **double counting**.

• Tax considerations:

 Marginal corporate tax rate: The tax rate on the marginal or incremental dollar of pre-tax income. Note: A negative tax is equal to a tax credit¹⁴.

$$Income\ tax = EBIT*t_C$$

¹³An **interest expense** is the cost incurred by an entity for borrowed funds.

 $^{^{14}}$ Tax credit refers to an amount of money that taxpayers can subtract directly from the taxes they owe.

- Note:

- * Taxes paid by the company are lower as interest payment can be deducted from the tax base.
- * However, this **tax shield effect**¹⁵ is taken into account in adjusting the cost of capital.
- * Tax shield effect while calculating project's cash flows => there would be double counting

• Tax credit:

 Rationale: Typically, in a new project, EBIT may be negative over the first years.

- Profitable company:

- * If the project takes place within an overall profitable company, we can calculate with negative tax payments, i.e. company is granted a tax credit.
- * Reason: The loss in project can be balanced against profits made in other business segments.

- Non-profitable company:

- * If the overall company is not profitable, we have to set-up a tax carryforward ¹⁶ or (if allowed) a carrybackward.
- **Opportunity cost:** It is the forgone benefit that would have been derived from an option not chosen.
- **Project externalities:** Indirect effects of the project that may affect the profits of other business activities of the firm. **Cannibalization** is when sales of a new product displaces sales of an existing product.

 $^{^{15} \}textbf{Interest Tax Shield}$ refers to the tax savings $\underline{\text{resulting from the tax-deductibility of the}}$ interest expense on debt borrowings.

¹⁶A tax loss carryforward allows taxpayers to use a taxable loss (total deductions > net gross income) in the current period and apply it to a future tax period.