

36106 Managerial Decision Modeling

Monte Carlo Simulation in Excel: Part II

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Reading and Excel Files

Reading:

- ▶ Powell and Baker: Chapter 14.4
- ▶ See the handout for Week Eight: **TIAA-CREF Simulation Model**
- ▶ See the Documentation and Examples folders in the Palisade RISK7 directory that was installed with your software.

Learning Objectives

1. Learn to Analyze the Tail of a Distribution
 - ▶ Use **RiskTarget**
2. Use Simulation to value an IPO (Netscape)
3. Learn to use compound statistical distributions
4. Learn to run multiple simulations to *optimize*.

Reading and Excel Files

Files used in this lecture:

- ▶ riskStatic.xlsx
- ▶ retirement_TIAA.xlsx
- ▶ retirement_TIAA_key.xlsx
- ▶ Ch14-4CorporateValuationBaseModelEmpty.xlsx (Canvas)
- ▶ Ch14-4CorporateValuationBaseModel.xlsx (Canvas)
- ▶ Ch14-4CorporateValuationSensitivityModel.xlsx (Canvas)
- ▶ Ch14-4CorporateValuationRiskModel.xlsx (Canvas)
- ▶ compoundDistributions.xlsx
- ▶ compoundDistributions_key.xlsx
- ▶ retirementRiskTable.xlsx
- ▶ retirementRiskTable_key.xlsx
- ▶ airlineOverbooking.xlsx
- ▶ airlineOverbooking_key.xlsx

Lecture Outline

Brief Review

Analyze Distribution Tails – TIAA/CREF

Corporate Valuation (Netscape)

Compound Distributions

Multiple Simulations (RiskSimtable)

Airline Overbooking

Review

Key Concepts:

- ▶ Using an expected value $E(X)$, instead of a distribution X , is bad.
- ▶ Nonlinearity can make this even worse (Excel functions like IF, MAX, MIN, are serious offenders)
- ▶ Big standard deviations can make this even worse.
- ▶ With @RISK we can insert an X into the spreadsheet instead of $E(X)$ and run trials for different values of X . @RISK gives us $E(f(X))$ instead of $f(E(X))$.

Review

We are taking tools from earlier in the quarter and extending them to allow for stochastic parameters.

- ▶ Goal Seek \iff @Risk Goal Seek (Last Week)
- ▶ Data Table \iff @Risk RiskSimtable (This Week)
- ▶ Solver \iff @Risk Optimizer (Week Ten)

Review

We used **Define Distributions** to put in a distribution. Other options include:

- ▶ Use the **Insert Function**
- ▶ Just type it in (there is auto completion available)

IMPORTANT: Please do not set RiskStatic(). Use default value which is:

- ▶ for a continuous distribution (e.g. RiskNormal or RiskUniform) the mean of the distribution
- ▶ for a discrete distribution (RiskDiscrete) the distribution value closest to the mean

Note: the number you see in a simulation cell is the result of the last trial.

Review

See the spreadsheet `riskStatic.xlsx` which illustrates the `RiskStatic` function for the `RiskDiscrete()` and `RiskUniform()` distributions.

Here is how to force a value for `RiskStatic()`.

Setting `RiskStatic()` for the `RiskDiscrete` distribution

```
=RiskDiscrete(C4:C8,D4:D8, RiskStatic(50))
```

Setting `RiskStatic()` for the `RiskUniform` distribution

```
=RiskUniform(C19,D19, RiskStatic(107.36))
```

Review

Key @RISK Skills:

1. Be able to insert a distribution
2. Run (and stop) and set simulation parameters
3. Be able to generate a histogram of results (use **Add Output**)
4. Be able to analyze results
5. Use @RISK simulation functions in your workbook, e.g. RiskMean
6. Use @RISK Goal Seek

Analyze Distribution Tails – TIAA/CREF

Key Idea: we are often interested in the tail of a simulation distribution.

We illustrate with an example from TIAA/CREF Financial Services. A large provider for people working in education, research, and medicine.

In this exercise we show how TIAA/CREF provides analysis of the tail of a simulation distribution for clients.

See also the handout under Week 7.

<http://faculty.chicagobooth.edu/kipp.martin/root/htmls/coursework/36106/handouts/Retirement-Portfolio.pdf>

Analyze Distribution Tails

Here is part of an actual report from TIAA-CREF.

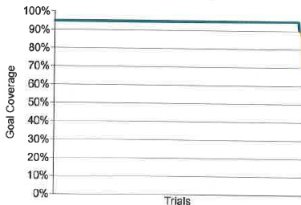
Current Plan and Life Expectancies to Age 100/Mod. Aggressive

The following graphs illustrate the likelihood of reaching your financial goal. We evaluated the results of 500 hypothetical market simulations ("trials") reflecting various possible market conditions. This assessment helps to determine whether there could be a shortfall in the amount required for you to reach your goal in any given year.

The analysis is performed to simulate a number of possible financial outcomes, rather than assuming an average return year after year. The greater the number of successful trials, the greater the likelihood you will achieve your goal. For this analysis, we define success as being able to cover 90% or more of your goal in at least 450 trials.

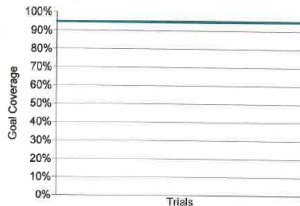
Likelihood Of Achieving Your Goal

Current Plan



- In 494 trials, 90% or more of your goal was covered.
- In 6 trials, 65 - 90% of your goal was covered.
- In 0 trials, less than 65% of your goal was covered.

Life Expectancies to Age 100/Mod. Aggressive



- In 499 trials, 90% or more of your goal was covered.
- In 1 trials, 65 - 90% of your goal was covered.
- In 0 trials, less than 65% of your goal was covered.

Analyze Distribution Tails – TIAA/CREF

Three Key Points:

1. “We evaluated the results of 500 hypothetical simulations reflecting various possible market conditions.”
2. “The analysis is performed to simulate a number of possible financial outcomes, *rather than assuming an average return year after year.*”
3. “For this analysis, we define success as being able to cover 90% or more of your goal in at least 450 trials.”

Note: results based on life expectancy and how aggressive the portfolio is.

Analyze Distribution Tails – TIAA/CREF

Goal: withdraw X dollars every year for N years and be left with Y dollars

- ▶ X – a number selected by the user, for example \$25,000 per year.
- ▶ Y – a number selected by the user, for example \$50,000
- ▶ N – life expectancy minus age at retirement

Objective: Build an @RISK model to find out often we meet 90% or more of our goal.

Analyze Distribution Tails – TIAA/CREF

Open retirement_TIAA. Use the data:

401 K Savings	\$200,000
Years	20
μ	11.55%
σ	20.62 %
Payment Goal	\$25,000 per year
Horizon End Goal	\$50,000
Goal Percentage	90%

Key Question: what do we mean by meeting 90% or more of the goal?

Analyze Distribution Tails – TIAA/CREF

Key Question: what do we mean by meeting 90% or more of the goal?

I assume we mean that:

1. For each of the 20 years there are sufficient funds to withdraw \$25,000.
2. After 20 years I have **at least**

$$0.9 * 50,000 = 45,000$$

dollars in my account.

Now implement in @RISK.

Analyze Distribution Tails – TIAA/CREF

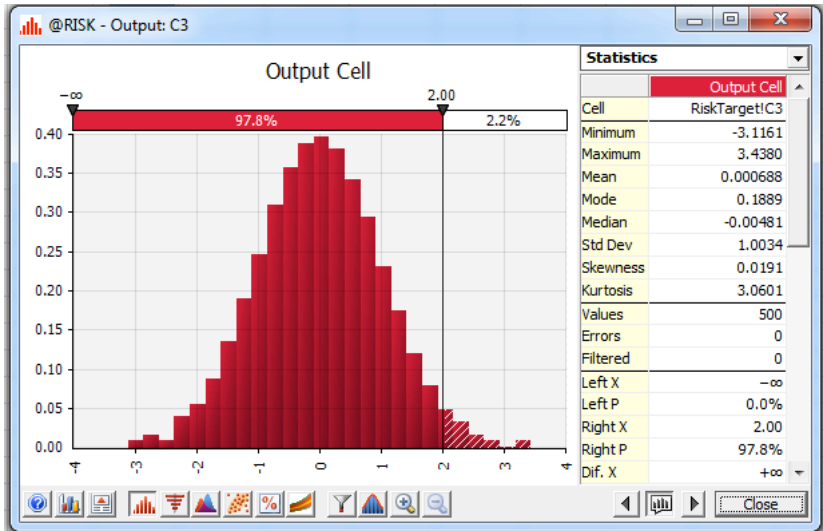
We do the following:

1. Run a simulation that records how much money we have after 20 years. **The simulation gives a distribution of returns.**
2. Find the probability associated with a tail value of \$45,000.
3. Multiply the probability associated with the tail by the number of trials.

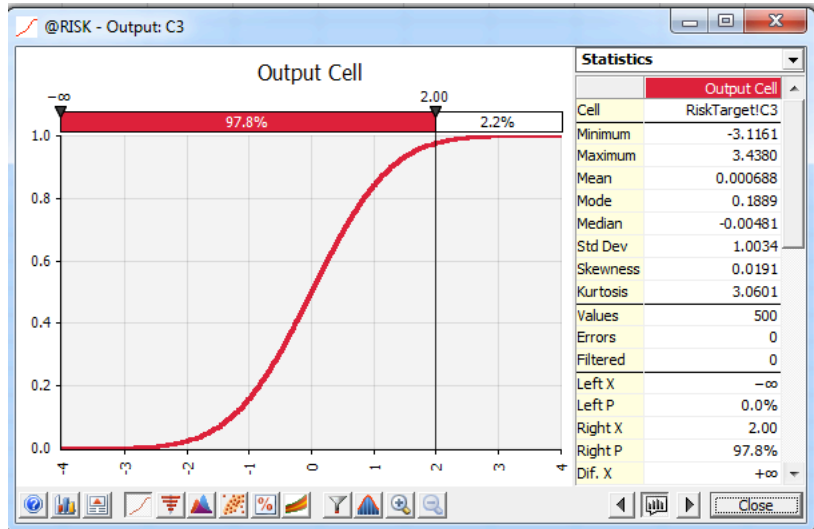
We use @RiskTargetD to calculate the tail probability we want.

The use of @RiskTarget and @RiskTargetD is illustrated spreadsheet RiskTarget in the retirement_TIAA workbook

Analyze Distribution Tails – TIAA/CREF



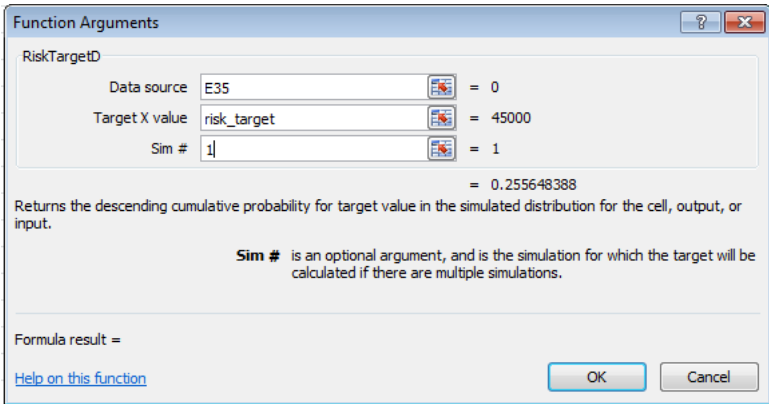
Analyze Distribution Tails – TIAA/CREF



Analyze Distribution Tails – TIAA/CREF

We implement in @RISK **two ways**.

Method 1: Use the RiskTargetD (descending CDF) function.



The screenshot shows the 'Function Arguments' dialog box for the RiskTargetD function. The dialog has a title bar with a question mark and a close button. Inside, the function name 'RiskTargetD' is listed. There are three input fields: 'Data source' with the value 'E35', 'Target X value' with the value 'risk_target', and 'Sim #' with the value '1'. Each field has a small icon to its right. To the right of each field is an equals sign followed by a value: '= 0' for Data source, '= 45000' for Target X value, and '= 1' for Sim #. Below these fields, the result of the function is shown as '= 0.255648388'. A description of the function follows: 'Returns the descending cumulative probability for target value in the simulated distribution for the cell, output, or input.' Below the description, a note states: 'Sim # is an optional argument, and is the simulation for which the target will be calculated if there are multiple simulations.' At the bottom left, it says 'Formula result =' followed by a blue hyperlink 'Help on this function'. At the bottom right, there are 'OK' and 'Cancel' buttons.

Function Arguments

RiskTargetD

Data source E35 = 0

Target X value risk_target = 45000

Sim # 1 = 1

= 0.255648388

Returns the descending cumulative probability for target value in the simulated distribution for the cell, output, or input.

Sim # is an optional argument, and is the simulation for which the target will be calculated if there are multiple simulations.

Formula result =

[Help on this function](#)

OK Cancel

Analyze Distribution Tails – TIAA/CREF

In cell **E38** we put

```
=RiskTargetD(E35,risk_target,1)*num_iterations
```

This is what the TIAA CREF report is doing when they say:

“In 494 trials, 90% or more of your goal was covered.”

What is our number?

Analyze Distribution Tails – TIAA/CREF

We implement in @RISK **two ways**.

Method 2: Requires three steps.

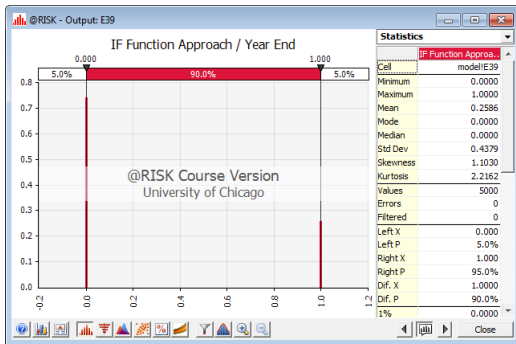
Step 1: First, count whether or not we meet our goal using an IF statement.

```
=IF(E35 >= risk_target,1,0)
```

Step 2: Build a “distribution” of the simulation results on the IF statement.

- ▶ We get a **bimodal** distribution. Either a 0 or 1.
- ▶ What does the resulting histogram tell you? (See Figure next page)
- ▶ What does the mean tell you?

Analyze Distribution Tails – TIAA/CREF



Analyze Distribution Tails – TIAA/CREF

Step 2 (Continued): Build a distribution for the IF.

```
=RiskOutput()+IF(E35 >= risk_target,1,0)
```

Step 3: Get the mean of this distribution using **RiskMean**.

```
=RiskMean(E39,1)*num_iteration
```


Analyze Distribution Tails – TIAA/CREF

	A	B	C	D	E	F
8	Horizon End Goal	\$ 50,000.00				
9	Goal Percentage	90%				
10	Number of Iterations	500				
11						
12						
13	Model					
14						
15	Year	Year Start	Return	Draw Down	Year End	
16	1	\$ 200,000.00	0.058518474	\$25,000.00	\$ 185,240.73	
17	2	\$ 185,240.73	0.221291897	\$25,000.00	\$ 195,700.71	
18	3	\$ 195,700.71	0.124677711	\$25,000.00	\$ 191,983.28	
19	4	\$ 191,983.28	-0.05055506	\$25,000.00	\$ 158,541.43	
20	5	\$ 158,541.43	0.058489362	\$25,000.00	\$ 141,352.19	
21	6	\$ 141,352.19	0.177155481	\$25,000.00	\$ 136,964.61	
22	7	\$ 136,964.61	0.224151198	\$25,000.00	\$ 137,061.62	
23	8	\$ 137,061.62	-0.018493667	\$25,000.00	\$ 109,989.19	
24	9	\$ 109,989.19	0.283824062	\$25,000.00	\$ 109,111.16	
25	10	\$ 109,111.16	0.110439522	\$25,000.00	\$ 93,400.36	
26	11	\$ 93,400.36	0.154745074	\$25,000.00	\$ 78,984.98	
27	12	\$ 78,984.98	0.016909585	\$25,000.00	\$ 54,897.84	
28	13	\$ 54,897.84	0.233963112	\$25,000.00	\$ 36,892.83	
29	14	\$ 36,892.83	0.329227001	\$25,000.00	\$ 15,808.27	
30	15	\$ 15,808.27	0.143422182	\$25,000.00	\$ -	
31	16	\$ -	0.182180891	\$25,000.00	\$ -	
32	17	\$ -	0.140158044	\$25,000.00	\$ -	
33	18	\$ -	0.167116702	\$25,000.00	\$ -	
34	19	\$ -	0.115537345	\$25,000.00	\$ -	
35	20	\$ -	0.064187575	\$25,000.00	\$ -	
36						
37				Risk Target	\$ 45,000.00	
38				RiskTarget Function	128.70	
39				IF Function Approach	0	
40				Risk Mean of IF Function	128.80	
41						

Corporate Valuation

This comes from Powell and Baker, Section 14.4.

- ▶ The initial IPO for Netscape was August 9, 1995.
- ▶ The underwriters, led by Morgan Stanley & Company, offered five million shares at \$28 per share.
- ▶ This was the beginning of the Internet boom.
- ▶ At \$28 per share, Netscape's market value would be more than \$1 billion dollars despite a book value of \$16 million
- ▶ Microsoft copied the Netscape technology and developed Internet Explorer. They gave Internet Explorer away for “free” leading to a major legal battle.

Our Objective: Place a value on Netscape given August, 1995 data.

Corporate Valuation

The Plan:

1. Define the problem – put a valuation on the firm (Netscape)
2. Assume all parameters (e.g. revenue growth rate) are deterministic
3. Calculate the NPV of the firm based on free cash flow
4. Determine the sensitivity of the NPV calculation to the inputs
5. Treat the most sensitive inputs as stochastic parameters (i.e. distributions)
6. Run a simulation

Corporate Valuation

Spreadsheet Walk Through:

1. Ch14-4CorporateValuationBaseModelEmpty.xlsx (contains parameter assumptions)
2. Ch14-4CorporateValuationBaseModel.xlsx (the deterministic valuation model)
3. Ch14-4CorporateValuationSensitivityModel.xlsx (used for Step 5 in the previous slide)
4. Ch14-4CorporateValuationRiskModel.xlsx (used for Step 6 in the previous slide)

Corporate Valuation

The basic assumptions for the deterministic model are given below. See Workbook Ch14-4CorporateValuationBaseModelEmpty.xlsx.

	A	B	C
1	Netscape Valuation Model - Deterministic Version		
2			
3	Assumptions		1996
4	Revenue growth rate	65%	
5	Terminal value growth rate	4.00%	
6	Cost of sales (% revenues)	10.40%	
7	R&D (% revenues)	36.8%	
8	Tax rate	34%	
9	Other operating expenses		0.80
10	Capital expenditure		0.45
11	Depreciation (% revenues)	5.50%	
12	Δ NWC	0.00%	
13	Beta	1.50	
14	Riskless rate	6.71%	
15	Market risk premium	7.50%	
16	Cost of equity	17.96%	
17	Shares outstanding	38,000	

Corporate Valuation

First, create the deterministic model. You will start with something like the following for homework.

N43												
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L
1	Netcase Valuation Model - Deterministic Version											
2												
3	Assumptions		1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
4	Revenue growth rate	65%										
5	Terminal value growth rate	4.00%										
6	Cost of sales (% revenues)	10.40%										
7	R&D (% revenues)	36.8%										
8	Tax rate	34%										
9	Other operating expenses		0.80	0.65	0.55	0.45	0.35	0.25	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20
10	Capital expenditure		0.45	0.40	0.30	0.20	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10
11	Depreciation (% revenues)	5.50%										
12	ΔNWC	0.00%										
13	Beta	1.50										
14	Riskless rate	6.71%										
15	Market risk premium	7.50%										
16	Cost of equity	17.96%										
17	Shares outstanding	38,000										
18												
19	Model											
20		1995 actual	Forecast									
21	Revenues	33,250										
22	Cost of goods sold	3,472										
23	R&D expenses	12,230										
24	Depreciation	1,836										
25	Other operating expenses	26,898										
26	Profit before taxes	(11,186)										
27	Taxes	(3,803)										
28	Net income	(7,383)										
29												
30	Capital expenditure	15,236										
31	Change in net working capital	0										
32												
33	Free cash flow	(20,783)										
34	Terminal value (2006)	0										
35	PV Free cash flow	(20,783)										
36	PV Terminal value	0										
37	Total PV	(20,783)										
38												

Corporate Valuation

Then fill in the numbers.

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
1	Netscape Valuation Model - Deterministic Version												
2													
3	Assumptions		1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	
4	Revenue growth rate	65%											
5	Terminal value growth rate	4.00%											
6	Cost of sales (% revenues)	10.40%											
7	R&D (% revenues)	36.8%											
8	Tax rate	34%											
9	Other operating expenses		0.80	0.65	0.55	0.45	0.35	0.25	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	
10	Capital expenditure		0.45	0.40	0.30	0.20	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10	
11	Depreciation (% revenues)	5.50%											
12	ΔNWC	0.00%											
13	Beta	1.50											
14	Riskless rate	6.71%											
15	Market risk premium	7.50%											
16	Cost of equity	17.96%											
17	Shares outstanding	38,000											
18													
19	Model												
20		1995 actual	Forecast										
21	Revenues	33,250	54,863	90,523	149,363	246,449	406,641	670,958	1,107,081	1,826,683	3,014,027	4,973,145	
22	Cost of goods sold	3,472	5,706	9,414	15,534	25,631	42,291	69,780	115,136	189,975	313,459	517,207	
23	R&D expenses	12,230	20,189	33,313	54,966	90,693	149,644	246,913	407,406	672,219	1,109,162	1,830,117	
24	Depreciation	1,836	3,017	4,979	8,215	13,555	22,365	36,903	60,889	100,468	165,771	273,523	
25	Other operating expenses	26,898	43,890	58,840	82,150	110,902	142,324	167,739	221,416	365,337	602,805	994,629	
26	Profit before taxes	(11,186)	(17,940)	(16,023)	(11,501)	5,668	50,017	149,624	302,233	498,684	822,829	1,357,668	
27	Taxes	(3,803)	(6,100)	(5,448)	(3,940)	1,927	17,006	50,872	102,759	169,553	279,762	461,607	
28	Net income	(7,383)	(11,840)	(10,575)	(7,561)	3,741	33,011	98,752	199,474	329,132	543,067	896,061	
29													
30	Capital expenditure	15,236	24,688	36,205	47,069	49,290	40,664	67,096	110,708	182,668	301,403	497,314	
31	Change in net working capital	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
32													
33	Free cash flow	(20,783)	(33,528)	(46,778)	(44,185)	(31,994)	14,712	68,558	149,655	246,931	407,436	672,270	
34	Terminal value (2006)	5,008,313											
35	PV Free cash flow	243,196											
36	PV Terminal value	960,160											
37	Total PV	1,203,357											
38													
39	Performance												

Terminal value is an estimate of the value of the firm after 2005.

PV Free cash flow is the value of the firm from 1995 to 2005.

PV Terminal value is the value as of 1995 of the value after 2005.

The Total PV is the

Corporate Valuation

Full disclosure: *I was a math major. Please do not ask me to justify accounting measures.*

We need to calculate the **free cash flow** in an **income statement**.

The free cash flow is the amount of cash a company can generate after paying out the capital expenditures. See:

<http://www.investopedia.com/terms/f/freecashflow.asp>

Free cash flow is *net income plus depreciation minus capital expenditure and changes in net working capital*.

Corporate Valuation

Objective: Calculate the *present value of free cash flow*. This requires the following key steps.

1. Calculate the present value of the **free cash flow** for the current year 1995 and the forecasted years 1996 - 2005.
2. Calculate the **terminal value** for the firm at the end of year 2005.
3. Calculate the present value of the terminal value.
4. Add Steps 1 and 3 for the net present value.

This number goes in cell B37 and the value is \$1,203,357 (In the book you will see a value of present value calculation of \$1,057,167. This is an error and was caught by Professor Che-Lin Su.)

Corporate Valuation

Step 1: Calculate the present value of the free cash flow for the forecasted years (i.e. through the end of 2005.)

Let C_t denote the free cash flow at the end of period t . We know C_{1995} , this value is in cell B33 and is equal to (20,738).

We have projected values for the 10-year period 1996 through 2005. These numbers are in the range C33:L33.

Corporate Valuation

Step 1 (Continued): Calculate the present value of the free cash flow for the forecasted years (i.e. through the end of 2005.)

Hence the present value of these cash flows is

$$C_{1995} + \sum_{t=1996}^{2005} C_t / (1 + i)$$

This number is \$243,196 and appears in cell B35. The formula in B35 is

=B33+NPV(B16,C33:L33)

The number i is **cost of equity**. In our spreadsheet this number is equal to 17.96% and is in cell B16.

Corporate Valuation

Step 2: Calculate the **terminal value**. Use the *Gordon terminal value*. See <http://www.investopedia.com/university/dcf/dcf4.asp#axzz2MS2bjic1>.

The forecasts are through the end of 2005. However, we assume the firm has an “infinite” life.

Let α be the terminal growth rate of free cash flow through infinity. In our case $\alpha = 0.04$ and is given in cell B5. This implies the following values for fresh cash flow starting at the end of 2006.

2006	2007	2008	2009	...
$(1 + \alpha)C_{2005}$	$(1 + \alpha)^2 C_{2005}$	$(1 + \alpha)^3 C_{2005}$	$(1 + \alpha)^4 C_{2005}$...

Corporate Valuation

Step 2 (Continued): Calculate the **terminal value**.

Now discount these free cash flows back *to the end of 2005* using the cost of equity (denoted by i).

2006	2007	2008	2009	...
$\frac{(1+\alpha)}{(1+i)} C_{2005}$	$\frac{(1+\alpha)^2}{(1+i)^2} C_{2005}$	$\frac{(1+\alpha)^3}{(1+i)^3} C_{2005}$	$\frac{(1+\alpha)^4}{(1+i)^4} C_{2005}$...

So we need to find

$$C_{2005} \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \frac{(1+\alpha)^t}{(1+i)^t}$$

which is all future free cash flow discounted back to the end of 2005.

Corporate Valuation

Step 2 (Continued): Calculate the **terminal value**.

When $0 < r < 1$,

$$\sum_{t=1}^{\infty} r^t = \frac{r}{1-r}$$

As long as $\alpha < i$, $0 < (1 + \alpha)/(1 + i) < 1$. Doing a little algebra gives

$$C_{2005} \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \frac{(1 + \alpha)^t}{(1 + i)^t} = C_{2005} \frac{1 + \alpha}{i - \alpha}$$

This is the number calculated in cell B34 with the formula

`= (L33*(1+B5))/(B16-B5)`

using range names gives

`= (c_2005*(1+alpha))/(i-alpha)`

Corporate Valuation

Step 2 (Continued): Calculate the **terminal value**.

We have now discounted all future cash flows back to the end of 2005.

Discount back to the end of 1995. This is

$$\left(C_{2005} \frac{1 + \alpha}{i - \alpha} \right) / (1 + i)^{10}$$

This calculation is in cell B36 and gives \$960,160.

This differs from the value in the text, where the authors use a discount factor of $(1 + i)^{11}$. Professor Che-Lin the author of the above derivation found this error.

Corporate Valuation

Excellent reference: *Financial Modeling* by Simon Benninga, MIT Press, ISBN 0-262-02628-7 (Third Edition).

See Chapter 3, “Financial Statement Modeling.”

Corporate Valuation

You should understand the key part of the spreadsheet highlighted in gray below.

24	Depreciation	1,836	3,017	4,979	8,215	13,555
25	Other operating expenses	26,898	43,890	58,840	82,150	110,902
26	Profit before taxes	(11,186)	(17,940)	(16,023)	(11,501)	5,668
27	Taxes	(3,803)	(6,100)	(5,448)	(3,910)	1,927
28	Net income	(7,383)	(11,840)	(21,471)	(15,411)	3,741
29						
30	Capital expenditure	15,236	24,688	36,265	47,609	49,290
31	Change in net working capital	0	0	0	0	0
32						
33	Free cash flow	(20,783)	(33,511)	(33,511)	(44,185)	(31,994)
34	Terminal value (2006)	5,008,313				
35	PV Free cash flow	243,196				
36	PV Terminal value	960,160				
37	Total PV	1,203,357				
38						
39	Performance					
40	Total NPV	1,203,357				
41	Ratio TV/Total NPV	0.80				
42	Year FCF > 0	2002				
43	Max loss	(172,278)				
44	Price/Share	31.67				

Terminal value is an estimate of the value of the firm after 2005.

PV Free cash flow is the value of the firm from 1995 to 2005.

PV Terminal value is the value as of 1995 of the value after 2005.

The Total PV is the sum of the PV from 1995-2005 and the terminal value after 2005.

Corporate Valuation

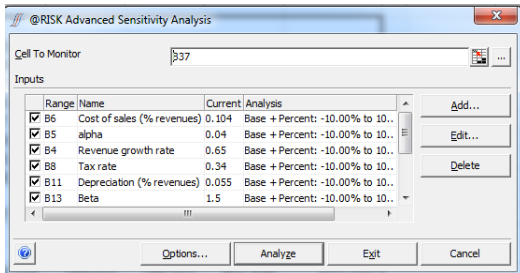
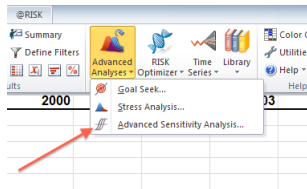
Deterministic Result: With the deterministic assumptions in the model, the NPV of Netscape is \$1,203,357. See cell B37.

This results in a price per share of \$31.67. See cell B44.

Let's do a simulation on the NPV.

Corporate Valuation

The first step is to determine which parameters have the greatest effect on the NPV outcome. We will create a **tornado** chart.



Corporate Valuation

I did a sensitivity analysis on the following:

- ▶ Revenue growth rate
- ▶ alpha – terminal value growth rate
- ▶ Cost of sales
- ▶ R&D (% of revenue)
- ▶ Tax Rate
- ▶ Depreciation
- ▶ Beta
- ▶ Riskless rate
- ▶ Market Risk Premium

Corporate Valuation

The settings for cell B6, Cost of sales (% revenues)

Input Definition

Input Analysis

Type: Cell

Reference: B6

Name: Cost of sales (% revenues)

Base Value: Auto(0.104)

Variation

Method: % Change from Base Value

Min Change (%): -10.00%

Max Change (%): 10.00%

of Steps: 7

Add Analysis Names...

☐ Fix Distribution to Base Value When Not Stepping

OK Cancel

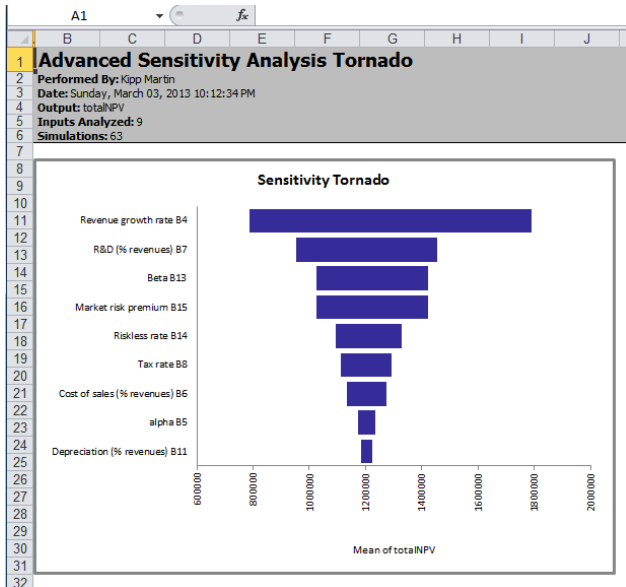
Corporate Valuation

Disclaimer:

- ▶ This sensitivity analysis looks at changing only **one** parameter at a time.
- ▶ We do not change two or more parameters simultaneously.

Corporate Valuation

The tornado chart.



Corporate Valuation

Now **identify key uncertainties**. Based on the tornado chart we examine:

- ▶ Revenue Growth Rate – *assume normal with mean of 65 percent and standard deviation of 5 percent*
- ▶ R&D (% of Revenue) – *assume triangular, with a minimum of 32 percent, most likely value of 37 percent, and a maximum of 42 percent*
- ▶ Market Risk Premium – *assume uniform with a minimum of 5 percent and maximum of 10 percent*

Corporate Valuation

Next identify model outputs. These are in the range B40:B44. See below.

32			
33	Free cash flow	(20,783)	(34,014) (42,58)
34	Terminal value (2006)	5,935,710	
35	PV Free cash flow	289,483	
36	PV Terminal value	1,508,795	
37	Total PV	1,798,278	
38			
39	Performance		
40	Total NPV	1,798,278	
41	Ratio TV/Total NPV	0.84	
42	Year FCF >0	2002	
43	Max loss	(177,136)	
44	Price/Share	47.32	
45			
46			

Model Outputs

Corporate Valuation

Run the simulation for 1000 trials. I get the following results:

Output	Mean	Min	Max	Std. Dev.
Total NPV	1,314,979	260,728	4,398,352	612,383
Ratio TV/Total NPV	.80	.73	.91	.03
Year FCF > 0	2002	2002	2003	.32
Max Loss	-173,339	-215,962	-135,408	13,723
Price/Share	34.6	6.86	115.75	16.12

Corporate Valuation

At Canvas please go to Homework 7.

Get the file **FigureOddsInAcquisitionResults.pdf**

You will use this file and a corresponding Excel data file **MergersandAcquisitionsData.xlsx** to build a corporate valuation model.

You will use **FigureOddsInAcquisitionResults.pdf** and the Excel file to get the time 0 data and assumptions about growth rates.

You will then run a simulation based on stochastic parameter assumptions.

Corporate Valuation

Important: Please note the following for your homework on *M&A*.

- ▶ See Point 6 in the M&A clarifications homework. The Capital Expenditures in the Ch14-4CorporateValuationBaseModel.xlsx example are calculated differently than in the M&A homework case.
- ▶ See Point 7 in the M&A clarifications homework. Calculate taxes and net income as in the Ch14-4CorporateValuationBaseModel.xlsx workbook.

Compound Distributions

Consider the following scenario: (sales, general, and administrative expenses (SG&A) from your next homework)

1. nature determines an outcome
2. for each possible outcome there is a (potentially different) probability distribution

Example Data:

Scenario		Uniform Distribution Parameters	
Index	Probability	Min	Max
1	0.3	-2%	1%
2	0.5	1%	4%
3	0.2	4%	7%

Compound Distributions

Example 1: Nature determines outcome state 1. In this case the relevant distribution is a uniform distribution with a min of -2% and a max of 1%.

Example 2: Nature determines outcome state 3. In this case the relevant distribution is a uniform distribution with a min of 4% and a max of 7%.

The probability of outcome (scenario) 1 is 0.3, the probability of outcome 2 is 0.5, and the probability of outcome 3 is 0.2.

We want to model this process for seven years.

You have to do this in Homework 7, involving Mergers and Acquisitions. It is based on a document about *probability-based scenario planning* prepared by Crédit Lyonnais (now Crédit Agricole) of America.

Compound Distributions

There are two methods in `compoundDistributions.xlsx` to do this.

Method 1:

Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5	Year 6	Year 7
-0.019373378	-0.018448466	-0.003034135	-0.0037663	0.007747254	-0.0002269	-0.002732214
0.021636047	0.017343423	0.012106574	0.0362221	0.021814185	0.01275471	0.013879671
0.049992129	0.061583884	0.064888847	0.0521943	0.055888519	0.042851273	0.060304191
0.021636047	0.017343423	-0.003034135	-0.0037663	0.055888519	0.01275471	-0.002732214

Step 1: For each year, generate a realization of each of the three random variables. For example,

For example, the second number generated in Year Three, 0.012106574, is a realization from the uniform distribution with minimum 1% and maximum 4%.

Compound Distributions

Important:

1. In the first part of this example, I am generating a *different uniform distribution* for each of the seven years, but we do not do that in the M&A case. In the M&A it is stipulated which years use the same draw from the uniform distribution.
2. In the M&A case we are using different draws from the RiskDiscrete for each of the different accounting measures, e.g. revenue growth, we may wish to use the SAME scenario probabilities for each accounting measure.

Compound Distributions

Method 1 (continued): The first number generated in Year Five, 0.007747254, is a realization from the uniform distribution with minimum -2% and maximum 1%.

Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5	Year 6	Year 7
-0.019373378	-0.018448466	-0.003034135	-0.0037663	0.007747254	-0.0002269	-0.002732214
0.021636047	0.017343423	0.012106574	0.0362221	0.021814185	0.01275471	0.013879671
0.049992129	0.061583884	0.064888847	0.0521943	0.055888519	0.042851273	0.060304191
0.021636047	0.017343423	-0.003034135	-0.0037663	0.055888519	0.01275471	-0.002732214

Step 2: For each year, generate a realization from the **RiskDiscrete** random variable. For example, in the fourth row for Year One we have:

=RiskDiscrete(C20:C22,probRange)

The range **probRange** contains the probabilities .3, .5, and .2. Note that C20:C22 is the range with the realizations from the uniform distributions for year one.

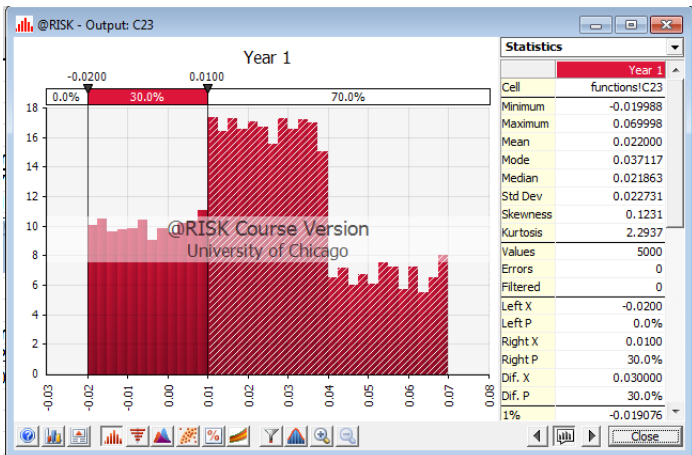
Compound Distributions

Now do the experiment where we fix in F12:F14 the same uniform distribution to be used in each year. Then generate the output for years 1-7 in row 27. This is the way to do it for the M&A case.

Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5	Year 6	Year 7
0.007736761	0.060179286	0.037699322	0.03769932	0.060179286	0.060179286	0.007736761

Compound Distributions

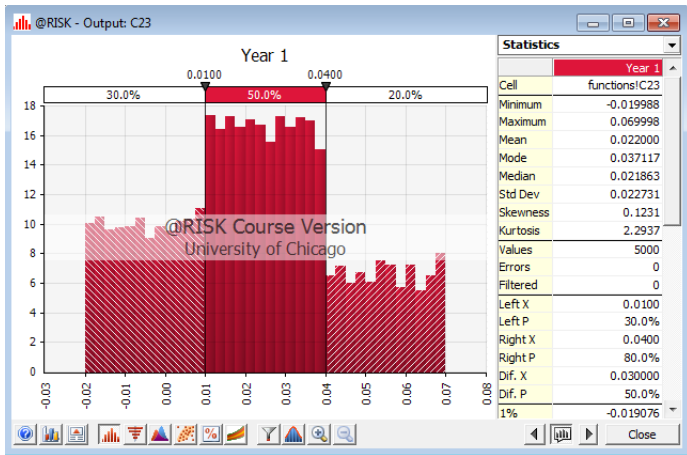
The histogram below illustrates that 30% of returns are between -2% and 1%.



Note: we put an RiskOutput in for the RiskDiscrete in Period 1

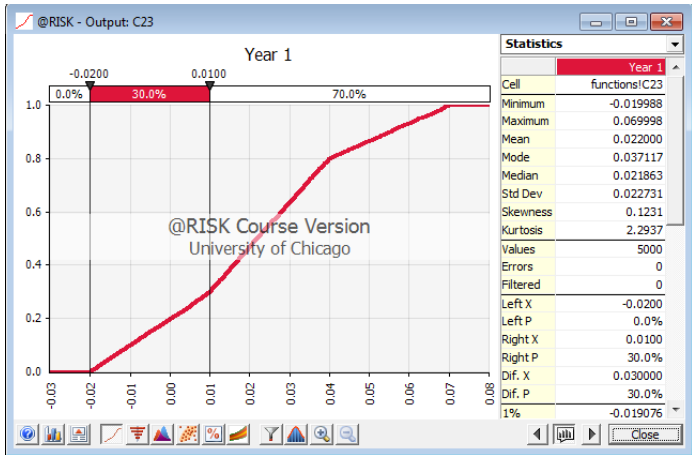
Compound Distributions

The histogram below illustrates that 50% of returns are between 1% and 4%.



Compound Distributions

The cumulative distribution motivates the second approach.



Compound Distributions

Method 2: Use the @Risk function **Riskcumul**. For this function to be valid:

1. the probability distributions for each possible outcome must be uniform
2. the intervals defining the uniform distributions cannot overlap

See the explanation and definition in the section Distribution Functions of the User's Manual.

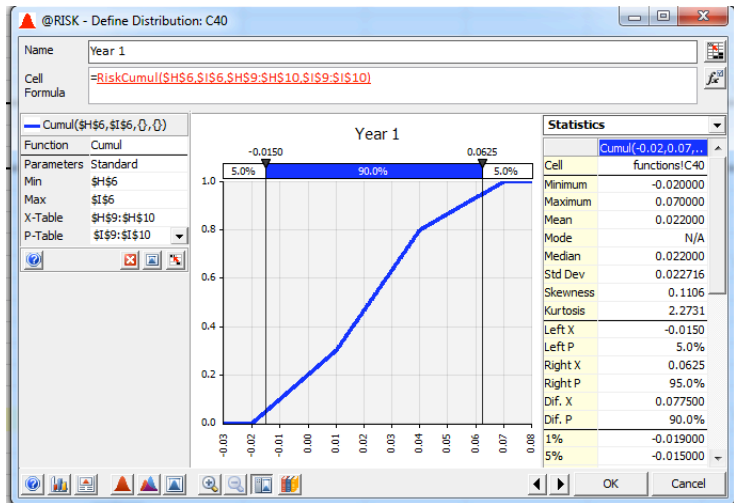
Compound Distributions

Method 2: (Continued) Riskcumul requires the following arguments:

1. a minimum value – in our case -0.02 (this is the minimum value of any realization over the set of uniform distributions)
2. a maximum value – in our case 0.07 (this is the maximum value of any realization over the set of uniform distributions)
3. a range of X values – in our case 0.01 and 0.04 (the upper limits of the uniform distributions, not including the uniform distribution that gave the maximum value)
4. a range of p values – in our case 0.3 and 0.8 (the cumulative probabilities associated with the X values)

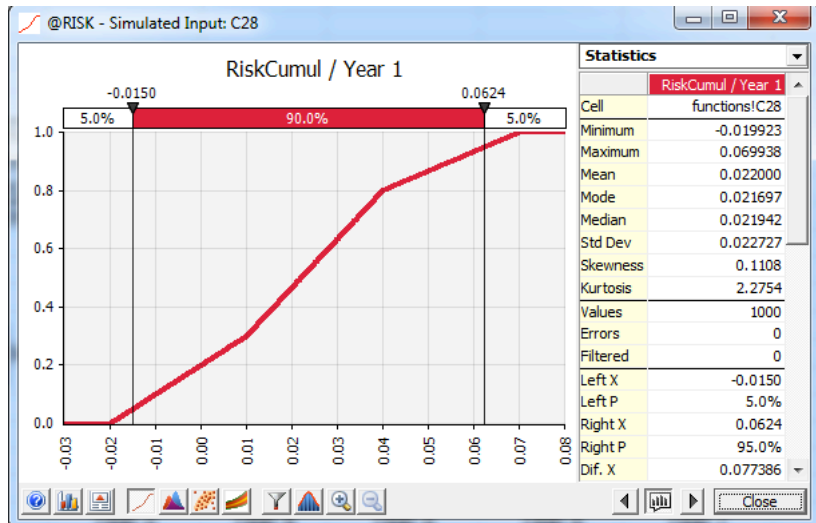
Compound Distributions

Method 2: (Continued) Defining Riskcumul



Compound Distributions

Method 2: (Continued) Riskcumul simulation results.



Compound Distributions

Practice Problem: Assume there are two outcome distributions.

Outcome 1:

- ▶ 25 percent probability that this outcome occurs
- ▶ this outcome results in a uniform distribution between -12 and -7

Outcome 2:

- ▶ 75 percent probability that this outcome occurs
- ▶ this outcome results in a uniform distribution between 0 and 8

Implement in **Riskcumul**. See

<http://kb.palisade.com/index.php?pg=kb.page&id=51>

Compound Distributions

Summary:

Method 1:

The Good: this is the most general method. No assumptions are made about the distributions associated with each outcome. They do not even need to be uniform.

The Bad: The most cumbersome of the three methods to implement.

Method 2:

The Good: You can use a built-in @Risk function, **Riskcumul**, nothing else needed.

The Bad: The most restrictive of the three methods. The outcome distributions must be non-overlapping uniform distributions.

Multiple Simulations (RiskSimtable)

New Idea: Return to the retirement example and treat the payment value as a **variable**. Run a simulation for different values of this variable.

The current annual payment is \$23,327.72. We currently take this as a given.

Let's examine what happens as we vary this from \$10,000 to \$28,000.
We are now treating the payment as adjustable or a variable.

Remember the Data Table in the **What If Analysis?**

We do a similar thing for simulation using RiskSimtable().

Multiple Simulations (RiskSimtable)

The end result of this will be `retirementRiskTable_key.xlsx`. For now, modify `retirementRiskTable.xlsx`.

We had in B6 (the range **payment**) the value that results from evaluating the Excel **PMT** function.

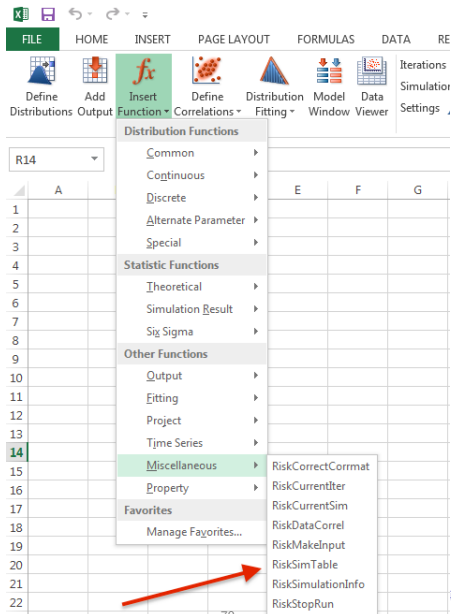
Treat this as a variable. Insert the `RiskSimtable()` function here.

Under **Insert Function** select **Special** and then **RiskSimtable()**.

See next slide for picture.

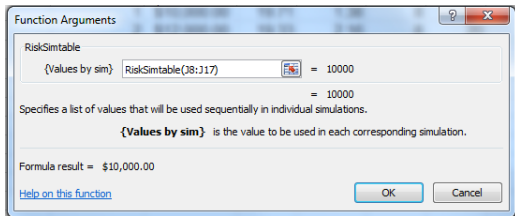
Multiple Simulations (RiskSimtable)

Here is the location of **RiskSimTable**.



Multiple Simulations (RiskSimtable)

Now select the range where the test values are. In our case this is J8:J17.



Multiple Simulations (RiskSimtable)

Next in columns K, L, M, N and Row 8 we insert the four functions:

- ▶ `=RiskMean(objectiveCell,I8)`
- ▶ `=RiskStdDev(objectiveCell,I8)`
- ▶ `=RiskMin(objectiveCell,I8)`
- ▶ `=RiskMax(objectiveCell,I8)`

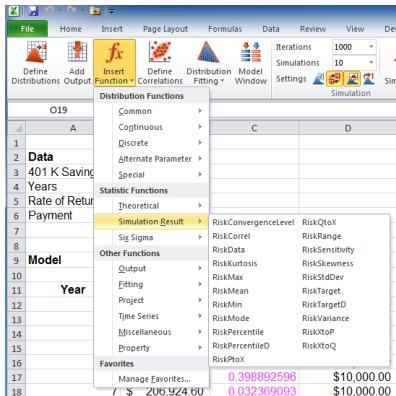
Recall that **objectiveCell** is the green cell E32, it is the Risk Output cell

`=RiskOutput()+COUNTIF(E12:E31,">0")`

Copy and paste the four functions through row 17.

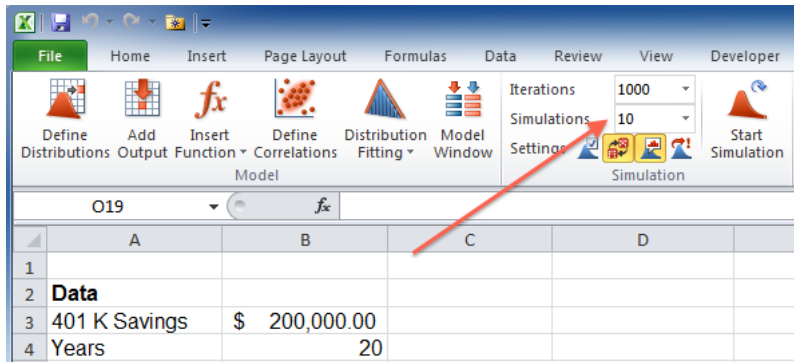
Multiple Simulations (RiskSimtable)

The functions that we inserted came from **Insert Function**, **Statistic Functions**, then **Simulation Result**.



Multiple Simulations (RiskSimtable)

Now run 10 simulations since there are 10 possible values for our decision variables.



The screenshot shows the Microsoft Excel interface with the Data Simulation ribbon active. The 'Simulations' dropdown is set to 10, and the 'Iterations' dropdown is set to 1000. A red arrow points to the 'Simulations' dropdown. The worksheet shows a table with columns A, B, C, and D, and rows 1, 2, 3, and 4. Row 2 is labeled 'Data'. Row 3 contains '401 K Savings' and '\$ 200,000.00'. Row 4 contains 'Years' and '20'.

	A	B	C	D
1				
2	Data			
3	401 K Savings	\$ 200,000.00		
4	Years	20		

Multiple Simulations (RiskSimtable)

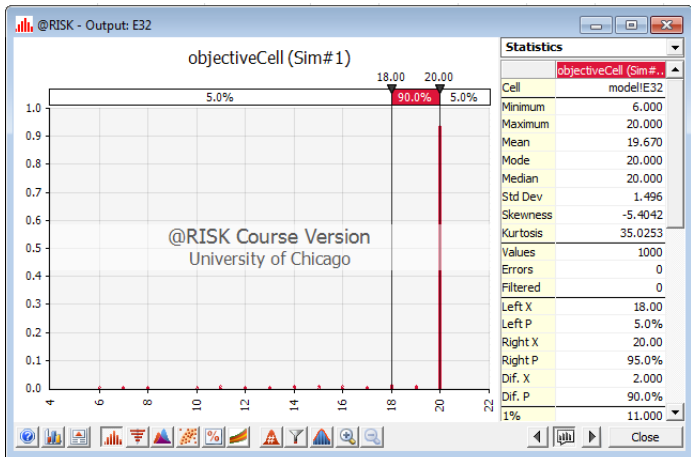
The simulation result is:

Simulation						
Run	Payment	Mean	Std Dev	Min	Max	
1	\$10,000.00	19.71	1.38	8	20	
2	\$12,000.00	19.33	2.16	8	20	
3	\$14,000.00	18.95	2.66	6	20	
4	\$16,000.00	18.21	3.47	5	20	
5	\$18,000.00	17.31	4.13	4	20	
6	\$20,000.00	16.33	4.53	4	20	
7	\$22,000.00	15.19	4.95	5	20	
8	\$24,000.00	13.85	5.16	4	20	
9	\$26,000.00	12.73	5.17	3	20	
10	\$28,000.00	11.55	4.97	3	20	

Are the results logical?

Multiple Simulations (RiskSimtable)

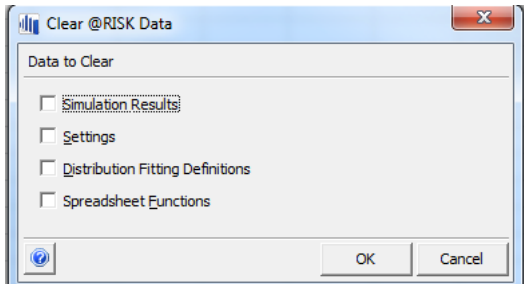
You get a histogram for each simulation run. See the cute little icon.



Multiple Simulations (RiskSimtable)

A useful trick for getting rid of your simulation results.

Under **Utilities** select **Clear @RISK Data**



Airline Overbooking

See Excel files `airlineOverbooking.xlsx` and `airlineOverbooking_key.xlsx`.

This example is due to Sudhakar D. Deshmukh at Kellogg School of Management, Northwestern University.

- ▶ Consider the Chicago to Tokyo leg for North East Airlines (NEA).
- ▶ Chicago to Tokyo leg serviced by an NEA Boeing 007 jumbo jet with 300 passenger capacity.
- ▶ Each one-way ticket generates \$500.
- ▶ The flight fixed cost is \$80,000.
- ▶ Based on past data, there is a 10% chance a ticket holder does show.
- ▶ NEA is allowed to overbook, but must give \$250 in compensation, plus provide alternative transportation which also costs \$500.
- ▶ NEA wants to determine how many tickets to sell.

Airline Overbooking

Step 1: The deterministic parameters in Excel files
airlineOverbooking.xlsx.

A32			fx		
	A	B	C		
1	Airline Overbooking: Source Sudhakar D. Deshmukh				
2					
3	Economic Data				
4	Fixed Cost Per Flight	\$	80,000.00		
5	Revenue Per Ticket	\$	500.00		
6	Bumping Cost per Passenger	\$	250.00		
7					
8	Operational Data				
9	Plane Capacity		300		
10					
11	Probabilistic Data				
12	Probability of No Show		0.1		
13					

Airline Overbooking

Step 1: Continuing with parameters, the *stochastic parameter* is the number of people who show up.

We need a distribution!

We select the **binomial distribution**.

See the You Tube video:

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=012yTz_8E0w
@Risk provides the **RiskBinomial** distribution.

The **RiskBinomial** has two parameters: 1) number of tickets sold, and 2) the probability of *success*.

Airline Overbooking

To better understand the **binomial distribution**, think of tossing a fair coin 500 times.

For a given toss consider a **success** to be a Head and a failure a Tail.

The probability of a success is 0.5.

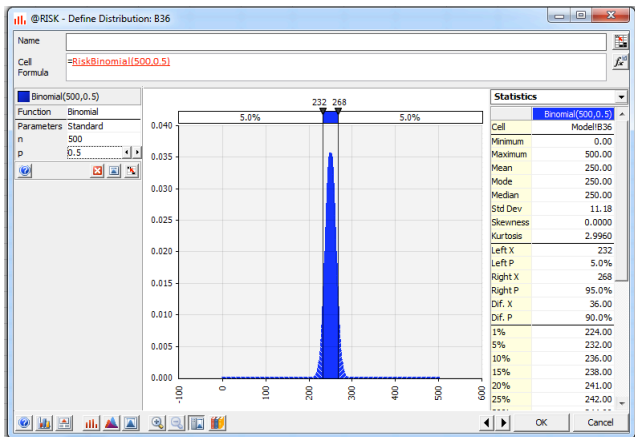
Toss the coin 500 times so there are 500 trials.

The random variable X is the number of successes. This is the binomial random variable.

Airline Overbooking

Here is the binomial distribution with probability of success .5 and 500 trials.

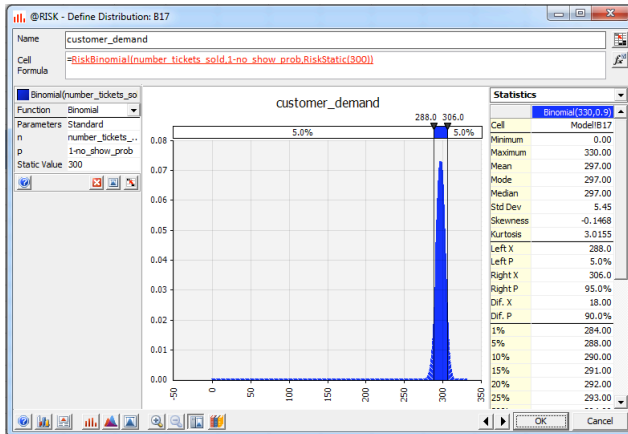
Note that the mean is 250 and 90 percent of the outcomes are between 232 and 268.



Airline Overbooking

Here is the binomial distribution with probability of success (showing up) .9 and 330 trials.

Note that the mean is 297 and 90 percent of the outcomes are between 288 and 306.



Airline Overbooking

Step 2: Identify the decision variables. In this case there is one, *the number of tickets sold*.

Step 3: Determine the model output. This is the profit. Assume no-shows are not refunded. Develop an expression for the profit.

Let X be the number of overbooked customers. This is a random variable.

Let Y denote the number of tickets sold. This is a decision variable.

The profit random variable conditioned on the value of Y is:

$$p(X|Y) = 500 * Y - X * (250 + 500) - 80000$$

Airline Overbooking

The number of tickets sold (value of Y) is contained in cell **B16**. We fix this.

The number of overbooked customers (the value of X) is in cell **B18**. It is calculated by

`=MAX(customer_demand - plane_capacity, 0)`

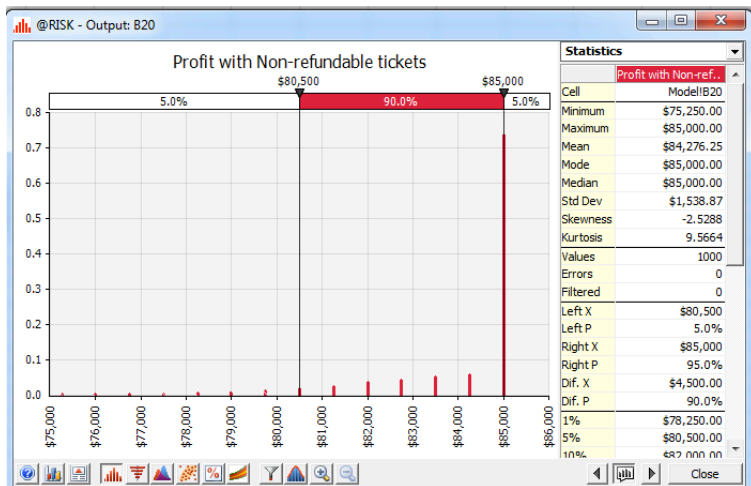
Airline Overbooking

14	The Model		
15			
16	Number of Tickets Sold	330	
17	Number of Customers Arriving	300	
18	Number of Overbooked Customers	0	
19	Passengers on the flight	300	
20	Profit with Non-refundable tickets	\$ 85,000.00	
21			

14	The Model	
15		
16	Number of Tickets Sold	330
17	Number of Customers Arriving	=RiskBinomial(number_tickets_sold,1-no_show_prob,RiskStatic(300))
18	Number of Overbooked Customers	=MAX(customer_demand-plane_capacity,0)
19	Passengers on the flight	=MIN(customer_demand,plane_capacity)
20	Profit with Non-refundable tickets	=RiskOutput()+ticket_revenue*number_tickets_sold-flight_fixed_cost-number_overbooked*(ticket_revenue+bumping_cost)
21		

Airline Overbooking

Step 4: Run the simulation.



Airline Overbooking

Step 5: Analyze the outputs. Let X be the random variable denoting the number of overbooked customers. Let $f(X)$ denote the profit function.

Sample Exam Question: In this example, what is $f(E(X))$?

Sample Exam Question: In this example, what is $E(f(X))$?

You must understand the difference between $E(f(X))$ and $f(E(X))$. *I just pounded very loudly on the blackboard!*

KEY CONCEPT: Even when $E(f(X)) = f(E(X))$ simulation is very useful. Why?

Airline Overbooking

Modification: Assume that tickets are refundable. How does this affect the profit calculation?

Step 3: Determine the model output. This is the profit.

Again, let X be the number overbooked customers. This is a random variable.

Let Y denote the number of tickets sold.

The profit random variable conditioned on the value of Y without refunds was

$$p(X|Y) = 500 * Y - X * (250 + 500) - 80000.$$

With refunds the revenue is $500 * \min(Y, 300)$ where 300 is the plane capacity. The new profit function is

$$p(X|Y) = 500 * \min(Y, 300) - X * (250 + 500) - 80000.$$

Airline Overbooking

Run Simulation and Analyze Results:

	Non-refundable	Refundable
Mean Profit	\$84,276	\$67,294
Minimum Profit	\$73,750	\$57,000
Maximum Profit	\$85,000	\$70,000
Std. Dev.	\$1,541	\$1,990

Airline Overbooking

Optimization: Treat the number of tickets sold as a variable / adjustable cell and find the *optimal number of tickets to sell*.

Consider values between 300 and 440 in increments of 10 tickets.

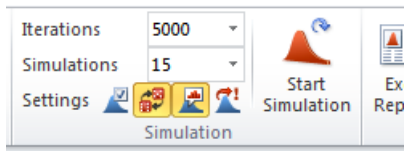
Run simulations for both the non-refundable and refundable profit functions.

Record the Mean, Min, Max, and Standard Deviation statistics for each run.

Put the RiskSimTable in cell B16. This is the cell with the range name **number_tickets_sold**.

Airline Overbooking

We are running **15 simulations** on **two** @Risk Output Cells.



Simulation Basics

What is the optimal number of tickets to sell for the non-refundable profit function? What is the optimal number of tickets to sell for the refundable profit function?

Simulation Run	Tickets Sold	Profit with Non-Refundable Tickets				Profit with Refundable Tickets			
		Mean	Min	Max	Std. Dev.	Mean	Min	Max	Std. Dev.
1	300	\$ 70,000.00	\$ 70,000.00	\$ 70,000.00	\$ -	\$ 55,000.10	\$ 44,500.00	\$ 63,500.00	\$ 2,597.46
2	310	\$ 74,999.85	\$ 74,250.00	\$ 75,000.00	\$ 10.61	\$ 59,500.15	\$ 49,000.00	\$ 69,250.00	\$ 2,642.80
3	320	\$ 79,989.65	\$ 74,750.00	\$ 80,000.00	\$ 150.03	\$ 63,982.35	\$ 53,000.00	\$ 70,000.00	\$ 2,647.71
4	330	\$ 84,276.25	\$ 71,500.00	\$ 85,000.00	\$ 1,544.24	\$ 67,293.95	\$ 56,500.00	\$ 70,000.00	\$ 1,992.67
5	340	\$ 85,185.75	\$ 72,000.00	\$ 90,000.00	\$ 3,608.74	\$ 64,976.45	\$ 52,000.00	\$ 70,000.00	\$ 3,394.04
6	350	\$ 83,741.45	\$ 69,500.00	\$ 95,000.00	\$ 4,186.01	\$ 58,736.25	\$ 44,500.00	\$ 70,000.00	\$ 4,173.11
7	360	\$ 82,000.60	\$ 67,750.00	\$ 100,000.00	\$ 4,270.08	\$ 52,000.50	\$ 37,750.00	\$ 69,500.00	\$ 4,269.67
8	370	\$ 80,249.85	\$ 63,000.00	\$ 98,250.00	\$ 4,330.04	\$ 45,249.85	\$ 28,000.00	\$ 63,250.00	\$ 4,330.04
9	380	\$ 78,500.00	\$ 62,750.00	\$ 95,000.00	\$ 4,384.42	\$ 38,500.00	\$ 22,750.00	\$ 55,000.00	\$ 4,384.42
10	390	\$ 76,750.30	\$ 62,500.00	\$ 97,000.00	\$ 4,445.31	\$ 31,750.30	\$ 17,500.00	\$ 52,000.00	\$ 4,445.31
11	400	\$ 75,000.15	\$ 60,000.00	\$ 92,250.00	\$ 4,498.51	\$ 25,000.15	\$ 10,000.00	\$ 42,250.00	\$ 4,498.51
12	410	\$ 73,250.30	\$ 57,500.00	\$ 90,500.00	\$ 4,556.53	\$ 18,250.30	\$ 2,500.00	\$ 35,500.00	\$ 4,556.53
13	420	\$ 71,500.30	\$ 56,500.00	\$ 89,500.00	\$ 4,610.37	\$ 11,500.30	\$ (3,500.00)	\$ 29,500.00	\$ 4,610.37
14	430	\$ 69,750.15	\$ 53,250.00	\$ 89,250.00	\$ 4,665.58	\$ 4,750.15	\$ (11,750.00)	\$ 24,250.00	\$ 4,665.58
15	440	\$ 68,000.15	\$ 50,750.00	\$ 87,500.00	\$ 4,721.70	\$ (1,999.85)	\$ (19,250.00)	\$ 17,500.00	\$ 4,721.70