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# 1 Reading 9: Correlation and Regressions

## 1.1 Sample covar and sample correlation coefficients

Sample covariance:  $cov_{x,y} = \sum_i \frac{(X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{n-1}$

Sample correlation coeff:  $r_{x,y} = \frac{cov_{x,y}}{s_x s_y}$ , where  $s_x$  is the sample dev of X.

## 1.2 Limitations to correlations analysis

Outliers: The results will be affected by extreme data points.(outliers)

Spurious correlation: There might be some non-zero correlation coeff, but actually they have no correlation at all.

Nonlinear relationships: Correlation only describe the linear relations.

## 1.3 Hypothesis: determine if the population correlation coefficient is zero

Two-tailed hypothesis test:

$$H_0 : \rho = 0, H_a : \rho \neq 0$$

Assume that the two populations are **normally** distributed, then we can use t-test:

$$t = \frac{r\sqrt{n-2}}{1-r^2}$$

: Reject  $H_0$  if  $t > +t_{critical}$  or  $t < -t_{critical}$ . Here,  $r$  is the sample correlation. Remember, you need to check t-table to find the t-value.

## 1.4 Determine dependent/independent variables in a linear regression

**Simple linear regression:** Explain the variation in a dependent variable in terms of the variation in a single independent variable. **Independent variables** are called explanatory variable, the exogenous variable, or the predicting variable. **Dependent variable** is also called the explained variable, the endogenous variable, or the predicted variable.

## 1.5 Assumptions in linear regression and interpret regression coeff.

1. Assumptions of linear regression:

- (a) Linear relationship must exist.
- (b) The independent variable is uncorrelated with residuals.
- (c) Expected Residual term is value.  $E(\epsilon) = 0$
- (d) variance of the residual term is const.  $E(\epsilon_i^2) = \sigma_\epsilon^2$ . Otherwise, it will be "heteroskedastic"
- (e) The residual term is independently distributed. otherwise - "auto correlation"  $E(\epsilon_i \epsilon_j) = 0$
- (f) The residual term is normally distributed.

2. Simple Linear Regression Model

- (a) Model:  $Y_i = b_0 + b_1 X_i + \epsilon_i$ , where  $i = 1 \dots n$ , and  $Y_i$  is the actual observed data.
- (b) The fitted line, the line of best fit :  $\hat{Y} = \hat{b}_0 + \hat{b}_1 X_i$ . Where  $\hat{b}_0$  is the estimated parameter of the model.

- (c) How to choose the best fitted line? **Sum of squared errors** is minimum.

$$\hat{b}_1 = \frac{cov_{x,y}}{sigma_x^2}$$

where  $X$  is the independent variable.  $\hat{b}_1$  is "regression coefficient".

$$\hat{b}_0 = \bar{Y} - \hat{b}_1 \bar{X}$$

where  $\bar{X}, \bar{Y}$  are the mean.

3. Interpreting a regression coefficient: Similar to basic ideas of "slope". Keep in mind: any conclusion regarding this parameter needs the statistical significance of the slope coefficient.

### 1.6 Standard error of estimate, the coeff. of determination and a confidence interval for a regression coefficient.

1. Standard error of estimate (SEE): Standard deviation between  $Y_{estimate}$  and  $Y_{actual}$ . - Smaller: better
2. Coefficient of Determination ( $R^2$ ) The percentage of the total variance in the dependent variable that is predictable from the independent variable. - One independent variable:  $R^2 = r^2$ , where  $r^2$  is the square of correlation coefficient.
3. Regression Coefficient confidence interval

(a) Hypothesis:  $H_0 : b_1 = 0 \Leftrightarrow H_a : b_1 \neq 0$

(b) Confidence interval:  $\hat{b}_1 - (t_c s_{\hat{b}_1}) < b_1 < \hat{b}_1 + (t_c s_{\hat{b}_1})$   $s_{\hat{b}_1}$  is the standard error of the regression coeffi.

### 1.7 Hypothesis: Determine if $\hat{b}_1 = b_1$

1. t-test statistic:  $t_{b_1} = \frac{\hat{b}_1 - b_1}{s_{\hat{b}_1}}$
2. Reject: if  $t > +t_{critical}$  or  $t < -t_{critical}$

### 1.8 Calculate the predicted value for the dependent variable

If an estimated regression model is known,  $\hat{Y} = \hat{b}_0 + \hat{b}_1 X_p$

### 1.9 Calculate and interpret a confidence interval for the predicted value of the dependent variable

1. Eq:  $\hat{Y} \pm (t_c s_f)$ , where  $s_f$  is the **std error of the forecast**.
2.  $s_f^2 = SEE^2 \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(X - \bar{X})^2}{(n-1)s_x^2} \right]$ 
  - (a)  $SEE^2$  = variance of the residuals
  - (b)  $s_x^2$  = variance of the independent variable
  - (c)  $X$  = value of the independent variable where the forecast was made.



### 1.10 ANOVA in regression. Interpret results, and calculate F-statistic

- Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to analyze the total variability of the dependent variable.
  - Total sum of squares(SST):  $SST = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$   
SST is the total variation in the dependent variable.  $Variance = SST/(n - 1)$
  - Regression sum of squares(RSS):  $RSS = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2$   
RSS is the explained variation.
  - Sum of squared errors(SSE):  $SSE = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2$   
SSE is the unexplained variation.
  - $SST = RSS + SSE$  I cannot get this equation yet You need to know how to use these squares.
  - Degree of freedom: i) Regression(Explained):  $k = 1$ , since we only estimate one parameters. ii) Error(Unexplained)  $df = n - k - 1 = n - 2$  iii) Total variation  $df = n - 1$
- Calculating  $R^2$  and **SEE**
  - $R^2 = explainedvariation/totalvarn = RSS/SST$
  - SEE** =  $\sqrt{\frac{SSE}{n-2}}$  **SEE** is the std deviation of the regression error terms.
- The F-Statistic: used to explain whether *at least one* independent parameter can significantly explain the dependent parameter.
  - F-statistic eq:  $F = \frac{MSR}{MSE} = \frac{RSS/k}{SSE/(n-k-1)}$  where  $MSR$  = mean regression sum of squares.  $MSE$  = mean squared errors. Note: **One tailed test!**
- F-statistic with one independent variable.
  - Hypothesis:  $H_0 : b_1 = 0 \Leftrightarrow H_a : b_1 \neq 0$
  - degree of freedom:  $df_{rss} = k = 1, df_{sse} = n - k - 1$
  - Decision rule: reject  $H_0$  if  $F > F_c$

### 1.11 Limitations of regression analysis

- Parameter instability: the estimation eq may not be useful for other times.
- Limited usefulness: other participants may also use the same eq.
- Assumptions does not hold: i) Heteroskedastic, i.e., non-const variance of the error terms. ii) autocorrelation, i.e., error terms are not independent.

## 2 Reading 10: Multiple Regression and Issues in Regression Analysis

Some basic ides

- Model:  $Y_i = b_0 + b_1X_{1i} + b_2X_{2i} + \dots + b_kX_{ki} + \epsilon_i$
- Multiple regression methodology estimates the intercept and slope coefficients so that  $\sum_i^n \epsilon_i^2$  is minimized.

### 2.1 Interpret estimated regression coefficients and their p-values.

They are just simple linear functions with multiple parameters. Ignore.

## 2.2 Formulate a null/alternative hypothesis, do corresponding calculations

1. Hypothesis Testing of Regression coefficient. (Multi-parameters).  
Use t-statistics to determine if one parameter significantly contribute to the model.

$$t = \frac{\hat{b}_j - b_j}{s_{\hat{b}_j}}, df = n - k - 1$$

where  $k$  is the number of regression coefficients, and 1 corresponds to the intercept term, and  $s_{\hat{b}_j}$  is the coefficient standard error of  $b_j$

2. Determining statistical significance.  
“testing statistical significance”  $\Rightarrow H_0 : b_j = 0, H_a : b_j \neq 0$
3. Interpreting p-values.  
(a) Def: p-value is **the smallest level of significance for which the null hypothesis can be rejected**. If the p-value is less than significance level, the null
4. Other Tests of the Regression Coefficients:  $H_0 : a = \text{some value}$

## 2.3 Calculate and Interpret a confidence interval for the population value of a regression coefficient or a predicted value for the dependent variable if an estimated regression model.

1. Confidence intervals for a regress. coeff.:  $\hat{b}_j \pm (t_c \times s_{\hat{b}_j})$
2. predicting the dependent variable:  $\hat{Y}_i = \hat{b}_0 + \hat{b}_1 \hat{X}_{1i} + \dots + \hat{b}_k \hat{X}_{ki}$   
Even if you may conclude that some  $b_i$  are not statistically significantly, you cannot treat them as 0 and keep other parameters unchanged. You should use the original model, or you can throw  $\hat{b}_k$  away and make a new regression model.

## 2.4 Assumptions of a multiple regression model

1. Linear relationships exist.
2. The independent variables are not random, and there is no exact linear relation between independent variables.
3.  $E[\epsilon | X_1, \dots, X_k] = 0$
4. Variance of  $\epsilon = 0$ , i.e.  $E[\epsilon_i] = 0$
5.  $E(\epsilon_i \epsilon_j) = 0$
6.  $\epsilon$  is normally distributed.

## 2.5 Calculate and interpret F-statistic

F-test: whether at least **one** of the independent variables explains a significant portion of the variation of the dependent variable. F test is a one-tail test.

1.  $H_0 : b_1 = b_2 = b_3 = 0$  vs  $H_a : \text{at least one } b_j \neq 0$
2.  $F = \frac{MSR}{MSE} = \frac{RSS/k}{SSE/n-k-1}$
3. Degree of freedom:  $df_{\text{numerator}} = k, df_{\text{denominator}} = n - k - 1$
4. Rules: reject  $H_0$  if  $F(\text{test} - \text{statistic}) > F_c(\text{critical value})$

## 2.6 Distinguish between $R^2$ and adjusted $R^2$

1. coefficient of determination  $R^2$ : used to test if a group of independent variable can explain the dependent variable:

$$R^2 = \frac{\text{total variation} - \text{unexplained variation}}{\text{total variation}} = \frac{SST - SSE}{SST} = \frac{RSS}{SST}$$

$$\text{Multiple } R = \sqrt{R^2}$$

2. Adjusted  $R^2$

- (a) Note:  $R^2$ : **Overestimating**: will increase as variables are added to the model. Even the marginal contribution of new variables are not statistically significant.
- (b) Introduce  $R_a^2$ :  $R_a^2 = 1 - \left[ \left( \frac{n-1}{n-k-1} \right) (1 - R^2) \right]$

## 2.7 Evaluate the quality of a regression model by analyzing the output of the equation/ANOVA table

1. ANOVA Tables, some important quantities

- (a)  $R^2 = \frac{RSS}{SST}$

- (b)  $F = \frac{MSR}{MSE}$  with  $k$  and  $n - k - 1$  df

- (c) Standard error of estimate:  $SEE = \sqrt{MSE}$

## 2.8 Formulate a multiple regression with dummy variables to represent qualitative factors

1. Def: Some value is quite qualitative. Using dummy values like 0 or 1 to describe their impacts.
2. Note: Pay attention to # of dummy variables. If  $n$  classes, we must use  $n - 1$  dummy variables.
3. Interpreting the coefficients in a dummy variable regression. We can use F-statistics to test a group of parameters, or use t-test to test the individual slope coefficients.
4. Example of Regression application with dummy variables. See Notes directly.

## 2.9 Why multiple regression isn't as easy as it looks?

Pay attention to the assumptions that have been used. Violations like::

1. Heteroskedasticity
2. Serial correlation (auto-correlation)
3. Multicollinearity

Any violations on the assumptions will impact the estimation of SEE, and finally change the t-statistic and F-statistic, and change the conclusion of the hypothesis test.

## 2.10 Types of Heteroskedasticity, how heteroskedasticity and serial correlation affect inference

1. What is Heteroskedasticity?

**Corresponding assumptions: Variance of the residuals is constant across observations. – Homoskedasticity** Heteroskedasticity means the variance of the residuals is not equal.

- (a) Unconditional heter: Not related to the level of the independent variables. Will not systematically increase with changes in the value of the independent variables. **Usually will not cause major problems.**

- (b) Conditional heter: Related to the level of the independent variables. Eg: Conditional heter exists if the variance of the residuals increase with the value of the independent variables increases. **Will cause big problems.**
2. Effect of Heteroskedasticity on Regression Analysis
- (a) Unreliable standard errors.
  - (b) The coefficient estimates aren't affected.
  - (c) Will change the t-statistic, and will change the conclusion.
  - (d) Unreliable F-test
3. Detect Heteroskedasticity
- (a) Scatter plot
  - (b) Breusch-pagan test:  $BPtest = n \times R_{resid}^2$  with  $df = k$ . where  $n$  = the number of observations,  $R_{resid}^2 = R^2$  from a second regression of the squared residuals from the first regression.  $k$  = the number of independent variables. If  $R^2$  or BP-test are too large, something is wrong.
4. Correcting Heteroskedasticity
- (a) Calculate robust standard errors (White corrected std errors.). Use them for t-test.
  - (b) Generalized least squares.
5. What is serial correlations?
- (a) Def: auto-correlation, in which the residual terms are correlated. Common problem with time series data.
    - i. Positive serial correlation: a positive error in one time period will increase the possibility to observe a positive one next time.
    - ii. Negative serial correlation: Just opposite.
  - (b) Effect: positive serial correlation will get small coefficient std errors. Thus, too large t-statistics. therefore, too many Type I errors: reject the null hypothesis  $H_0$  while it's actually true.
  - (c) Detection:
    - i. Residual plots
    - ii. Durbin-Watson statistics:
 
$$DW = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^T (\hat{\varepsilon}_t - \hat{\varepsilon}_{t-1})^2}{\sum_{t=1}^T \hat{\varepsilon}_t^2}$$

For large samples,  $DW \approx 2(1 - r)$ , where  $r$  is the correlation coefficient between residuals from one period and those from the previous period.

Results:

      - A.  $DW = 2 \Rightarrow$  Homoskedastic and not serially correlated.
      - B.  $DW < 2 \Rightarrow$  Positively serially correlated.
      - C.  $DW > 2 \Rightarrow$  Negatively serially correlated.

Formulated hypothesis with DW-table, upper and lower critical values

      - A. Hypothesis:  $H_0$ : the regression has **no** positive serial correlation.
      - B.  $DW < d_l$ : positive serially correlated. Reject null.
      - C.  $d_l < DW < d_u$ : inconclusive results.
      - D.  $DW > d_u$ : **There is no evidence that are positive correlated.**
  - (d) Correcting serial correlation:
    - i. Adjust the coefficient std errors. **recommended.** Using Hansen method.

- A. Serial correlation only: Hansen method.
- B. Heteroskedasticity only: White-corrected stand errors.
- C. Both: Hans methods.
- ii. Imporoe the specification of the model.

## 2.11 Multicollinearity and its cause and effects in regression analysis

Multicollinearity: Independent variables or linear combinations of independent variables are highly correlated.

1. Effect of Multicollinearity on Regression Analysis: Will increase the std errors of the slope coefficients.  
**Type II Error: A variable is significant, while we conclude it's not.**
2. Detecting: Common situation:  $t$  - statistic is not significant while  $F$  - test is significant. This tells us the independent variables are highly correlated.  
A simple rule works if there are 2 independent variables: when the absolute value of the sample correlation betewen any two independent variables in the regression is greater than 0.7.
3. Correcting: omit one or more of the correlated independent variables. The problame is that it's hard to find the variables that result in the multicollinearity.

## 2.12 Model misspecification

1. Defination of **Regression model of specification**: decide which independent variables to be included in the model.
2. Types of misspecification
  - (a) The functional form can be misspecified: important variables are ommitted; variables should be transformed; data is improperly pooled.
  - (b) Explanatory variables are correlated with error term in time series model: A lagged dependent variable is used as an independent variable; a function of the dependent variable is used as an independent variable (forecasting the past); independent variables are measured with error.
  - (c) Other time-series misspecification.

## 2.13 Models with qualitative dependent variables

Include qualitative dependent variables, like default, bankruptcy. Cannot use an ordinary regression model. Should use other models like **probit and logit models** or **discriminant models**.

1. Probit: normal distribution, give probability.
2. Logistic: logistic distribution.
3. Discriminant: result in an overall score or ranking.

# 3 Reading 11: Time-Series Analysis

## 3.1 Calculate/evaluate the predicted trend value for a time series given the estimated trend coefficients

1. Linear Trend Model and Log-linear Trend
  - (a) Definition:  $y_t = b_0 + b_1(t) + \epsilon_t$  Note:  $t$  is just time.
  - (b) Coefficients is determined by OLS. Ordinary least squared regression.  
 $\hat{y} = \hat{b}_0 + \hat{b}_1$
  - (c) Log-linear Trend Models
  - (d) Model:  $y_t = \exp b_0 + b_1(t) \Rightarrow \ln y_t = b_0 + b_1(t)$

### 3.2 Factors that determine whether a linear or a log-linear model trend should be used

1. Factors that determine which model is best: plot data.
2. Limitations of trend models:
  - (a) residuals are uncorrelated with each other. Otherwise, it will cause auto correlation and we should not use the trend model.
  - (b) For log-linear model, it is not suitable for cases with serial correlations (autocorrelation).
  - (c) Detect auto correlation: Durbin Watson statistic.  $DW = 2.0 \Rightarrow$  No auto correlation.

### 3.3 Autoregressive model, requirements for covariance stationary

1. Autoregressive model:
  - (a) Model:  $x_t = b_0 + b_1x_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$
  - (b) Statistical inferences based on ordinary least squares estimates doesn't apply unless the time series is **covariance stationary**.
  - (c) Conditions for covariance stationary
    - i. Constant and finite expected value.
    - ii. Constant and finite variance.
    - iii. Constant and finite covariance between values at any given lag.

### 3.4 An autoregressive model of order $p$

1. Model(order  $p$ ):  $x_t = b_0 + b_1x_{t-1} + b_2x_{t-2} + \dots + b_px_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t$
2. Forecasting with an autoregressive model:
  - (a) One-period-ahead forecast for  $AR(1)$ :  $\hat{x}_{t+1} = \hat{b}_0 + \hat{b}_1x_t$
  - (b) Two-period-ahead forecast for  $AR(1)$ :  $\hat{x}_{t+2} = \hat{b}_0 + \hat{b}_1\hat{x}_{t+1}$

### 3.5 How the residuals can be used to test the autoregressive model

1. The residual should have no *serial correlation* if an AR model is correct.
2. Steps
  - (a) Estimate: Start with  $AR(1)$
  - (b) Calculate: the autocorrelations of the model residuals
  - (c) Test: whether the autocorrelations are significantly different from 0.  
The standard error is  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{T}}$  for  $T$  observations. The t-test for each observation is  $t = \frac{\rho_{\varepsilon_t, \varepsilon_{t-k}}}{1/\sqrt{T}}$ , with  $T - 2$  df.

### 3.6 Mean reversion and a mean-reverting level

1. Mean reversion: The time series tends to move toward its mean.
2. Mean-reverting level:  $\hat{x}_{t+1} = x_t$ , where  $\hat{x}_t$  is the predicted value.
3. All covariance stationary time series has finite mean-reverting level.

### 3.7 Contrast in-sample and out-of-sample forecasts and the forecasting accuracy of different time-series models based on the root mean squared error criterion.

1. in-sample, out-of-sample: determined by if the predicted data is in the range of the observations.
2. RMSE, root mean squared error: used to compare the accuracy. If the accuracy of out-of-sample is better, you should use it for future applications

### 3.8 Explain the instability of coefficients of time-series models

1. Instability or nonstationarity. Due to the dynamic economic conditions, model coefficients will change a lot from period to period.
2. Shorter time series are more stable, but longer time series are more reliable.

### 3.9 Random walk processes and their comparisons between covariance stationary processes

1. Random walk:  $x_t = x_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$ 
  - (a)  $E(\varepsilon_t) = 0$ : The expected value of each error is zero.
  - (b)  $E(\varepsilon_t^2) = 0$ : The variance of the error terms is constant.
  - (c)  $E(\varepsilon_i, \varepsilon_j) = 0$ : There is no serial correlation in the error terms.
2. Random walk with a Drift:  $x_t = b_0 + b_1 x_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$ , where  $b_1 = 0$
3. A random walk or a random walk with a drift have no finite mean-reverting level. Since  $b_1 = 1$ ,  $\frac{b_0}{1-b_1} = \frac{b_0}{0}$ . Therefore, they are not covariance stationary.
4.  $b_1 = 1$ , they exhibit a unit root. Thus, **the least square regression that been used in AR(1) will not work unless we transform the data.**

### 3.10 Things about unit roots: when they will occur, how to test them, how to transform data to apply AR

1. Unit root testing for nonstationarity:
  - (a) run an AR model and check autocorrelations
  - (b) perform Dickey Fuller test.
    - i. Transform:  $x_t = b_0 + b_1 x_{t-1} + \varepsilon \Rightarrow x_t - x_{t-1} = b_0 + (b_1 - 1)x_{t-1} + \varepsilon$
    - ii. Direct test if  $b_1 - 1 = 0$  using a modified t-test.
2. First differencing
  - (a) For a random walk, transform the data  $y_t = x_t - x_{t-1} \Rightarrow y_t = \varepsilon_t$  then start to use an AR model  $y = b_0 + b_1 y_{t-1} + \varepsilon$ , where  $b_0 = b_1 = 0$
  - (b)  $y$  is covariance stationary.

### 3.11 How to test and correct for seasonality in a time-series model, and calculate and interpret a forecasted value using an AR model with a seasonal lag.

1. Detect: special autocorrelation exists for some seasonal lags.
2. Correction: Add an additional seasonal lag term.

### 3.12 Explain autogressive conditional heteroskedasticity (ARCH) and describe how ARCH models can be applied to predict the variance of a time series

1. ARCH: the variance of the residuals in one period is dependent on the variance of the residuals in a previous period.
2. Using ARCH models:  
 Example  $ARCH(1)$ :  $\hat{\varepsilon}_t^2 = a_0 + a_1\hat{\varepsilon}_{t-1} + \mu_t$  if  $a_1$  is significantly different from zero.  $\hat{\varepsilon}_t^2$  is the squared residuals.  
 Note: Things like generalized least squares should be used to correct heteroskedasticity. otherwise, the std errors of the coefficients will be wrong, leading to invalid conclusions.
3. Predicting the variance of a time series: using ARCH model to predict the variance of future periods:  $\hat{\sigma}_{t+1}^2 = \hat{a}_0 + \hat{a}_1\hat{\varepsilon}_t^2$

### 3.13 Explain How time-series variables should be analyzed for nonstationarity and/or cointegration before use in a linear regression

1. Cointegration:
  - (a) Two time series are economically linked or follow the same trend and that relationship is not expected to change. – Error terms from regressing one on the other is covariance stationary and the t-test are reliable.
  - (b) How to test cointegration: regress  $y_t$  on  $x_t$   $y_t = b_0 + b_1x_t + \varepsilon$ ,  $y_t, x_t$  are two different time series. Then do a unit root test using the Dickey Fuller test with critical t-values calculated by Engle and Granger.  
 If "A unit root" is rejected  $\Rightarrow$  covariance stationary, cointegrated.

## 4 Reading 12: Probabilistic Approaches: Scenario Analysis, Decision Trees, and Simulations

### 4.1 Describe steps in a simulation, Explain three ways to define the probability distributions for a simulation's variable, and describe how to treat correlation across variables in a simulation.

1. Steps in simulations:
  - (a) Determine the probabilistic variables
  - (b) Define probability distributions for these variables
    - i. Option 1: Historical data
    - ii. Option 2: Cross-sectional data: estimate the variable from similar companies.
    - iii. Option 3: Pick a distribution and estimate the parameters.
  - (c) Check for correlations among variables: Use historical data to determine whether any systematically related. Strong relations  $\Rightarrow$  1) Allow only one of the variables can be removed. Or 2) Build the rules of correlations into the simulation.
  - (d) Run the simulation.

### 4.2 Describe advantages of using simulations in decision making

1. Advantages: 1) Better input quality 2) Provides a distribution of expected value rather than a point estimate.



### 4.3 Describe some common constraints introduced into simulations

1. Constraints: specific limits imposed by users of simulations.
2. Types of constraints
  - (a) Book value constraints:
    - i. Regulatory capital requirements: minimum capital requirements
    - ii. Negative equity
  - (b) Earnings and cash flow constraints: might be imposed to meet analyst expectations
  - (c) Market value constraints

### 4.4 Describe issues in using simulations in risk assessment

1. Limitations of using simulations
  - (a) Input quality: garbage in, garbage out
  - (b) Inappropriate statistical distributions
  - (c) Non-stationary distributions: parameters will change
  - (d) Dynamic correlations: correlations between input variables will change.
2. Risk-adjusted value: cash flows from simulations are not risk-adjusted. SHOULD NOT be discounted at risk-free rate.

### 4.5 Compare scenario analysis, decision trees, and simulations

1. Scenario analysis: computes the value of an investment under some specific cases. Total probability is less than 1.
2. Decision trees: good when risk is discrete and sequential. Sum of probability is 1

## 5 Reading 13: Currency Exchange Rates: Determination and Forecasting

### 5.1 Calculate and interpret the bid-ask spread

1. Exchange rates
  - (a) Important things: exchange rate, spot exchange rate, forward exchange rate.
  - (b) Bid/offer(ask) rates: //Bid: The price that bank will buy. Offer: The price that bank will sell.
  - (c) Foreign Exchange Spread. Unit: "1 pip" =  $1/10000 = 0.0001$ . Spread depend on:
    - i. Spread in the interbank market. (Currencies, time, market volatility)
    - ii. Size of transaction.
    - iii. Relationship between the dealer and client.

## 5.2 Identify a triangular arbitrage opportunity and calculate its profit

- Example: USD/AUD. USD is the price currency, and AUD is the base currency.
  - Buy the base currency at the ask  $\Rightarrow$  Sell the price currency at the ask
  - Sell the base currency at the bid  $\Rightarrow$  Buy the price currency at the bid
- For investors, Rule: *up-the-bid-and-multiply, down-the-ask-and-divide*
  - Convert USD into AUD: going down the quote – from USD on top to AUD on bottom. Use the ask price for the quote.
  - Convert AUD into USD: similar. But from bottom to top.
- Cross Rate: The exchange rate between two currencies with the help by a common third currency.
- Cross Rate with bid-ask spreads.
  - Rule 1:
 
$$\left(\frac{A}{C}\right)_{bid} = \left(\frac{A}{B}\right)_{bid} \times \left(\frac{B}{C}\right)_{bid}; \left(\frac{A}{C}\right)_{offer} = \left(\frac{A}{B}\right)_{offer} \times \left(\frac{B}{C}\right)_{offer}$$
  - Rule 2:
 
$$\left(\frac{B}{C}\right)_{bid} = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{C}{B}\right)_{offer}}; \left(\frac{B}{C}\right)_{offer} = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{C}{B}\right)_{bid}}$$
- Triangular Arbitrage: If the dealer's quote is different from the cross rate, arbitrage opportunities may exist. Check it with Notes.

## 5.3 Distinguish between spot and forward rates and calculate the forward premium/discount for a given currency

- Forward premium relative to a second currency: Forward price  $>$  Spot price. Forward premium =  $F - S_0$
- Calculate the market-to-market value of a forward contract

$$V_T = (FP_T - FP)(contractsize)$$

where:

- $V_T$  = value of the forward contract at time  $T$ , denominated in price currency
  - $T$  = maturity of the forward contract
  - $FP$  = forward price locked in at inception to buy base currency
  - $FP_T$  = forward price to **sell** the same currency at time  $T$
- Value prior to expiration.

$$V_t = \frac{(FP_t - FP)contractsize}{1 + R\left(\frac{days}{360}\right)}$$

where

- $V_t$  is the value of the forward price
- $FP_t$ : forward price at time  $t$
- $days$  number of days remaining
- $R$  interest rate

## 5.4 Explaining international parity relations (covered and uncovered interest rate parity, purchasing power parity, and the international Fisher effect)

1. Covered interest rate parity: “Covered” means bound by arbitrage. Investor should earn the same return using either currency.

$$F = \frac{1 + R_A(\frac{days}{360})}{1 + R_B(\frac{days}{360})} S_0$$

2. Uncovered interest rate parity: Forward currency contract is unavailable, which makes the interest rate not bound by arbitrage. For a quote A/B, the base currency is expected to appreciate

$$E(\% \Delta_S)_{(A/B)} = R_A - R_B$$

Uncovered interest rate parity can only **forecast** the future spot exchange rate.

3. Comparing covered and uncovered interest parity:

- (a) Covered interest parity  $\Leftrightarrow$  No-arbitrage forward rate
- (b) Uncovered interest parity  $\Rightarrow$  **Expected** future spot rate

4. International Fisher Relation

- (a)  $R_{nominal} = R_{real} + E(inflation)$
- (b) Under real interest rate parity, the real interest rate are assumed to converge across different markets.

$$R_{nominalA} - R_{nominalB} = E(inflation_A) - E(inflation_B)$$

5. Purchasing Power Parity: Assumed by one price law.

- (a) Absolute purchasing power parity: The average price of a basket of consumption goods.

$$S(A/B) = CPI(A)/CPI(B)$$

May not hold due to different weights of consumptions.

- (b) Relative Purchasing Power Parity: Changes in exchange rates should exactly offset the price effects of any inflation differential between the two countries.

$$\% \Delta S(A/B) = Inflation_A - Inflation_B = change in spot price(A/B)$$

Not always held in short run.

- (c) Ex-Ante Version of Purchasing Power Parity: Similar to relative PPP, but Ex-Ante uses expected inflation instead of actual inflation.

## 5.5 Describe the relations among the international parity conditions

See Notes Page 263, Vol. 2.

## 5.6 Evaluate the use of the current spot rate, the forward rate, purchasing parity and uncovered interest parity to forecast future spot exchange rates

1. Real Exchange Rate =  $S_t \left[ \frac{CPI_B}{CPI_A} \right]$ ,  $S_t$  is the spot rate at time  $t$  given as A/B

## 5.7 Explain how flows in the balance of payment accounts affect currency exchange rates

1. Balance of Payments: accounting method to track transactions between a country and its international trading partners.
  - (a) Including government, consumer, and business transactions.
  - (b) current account + financial account + official reserve account = 0
  - (c)
    - i. Current account: Exchanges of goods/services, exchanges of investment income and unilateral transfers like gifts.
      - A. Surplus: we sell more to other countries, buy less from them
      - B. Deficit: we buy more from the rest, sell less to them
    - ii. Financial account/Capital account: Flows of funds for debt and equity investment into/out of a country. Surplus: Money is flowing into the country.
    - iii. Official reserve: those made from the reserves held by the government. Normally doesn't change from year to year.
2. Influence of BOP on Exchange Rates
  - (a) Current Account
    - i. Flow mechanism
      - A. Deficit: increase the supply of that currency in the market. Because exporters to our countries need to convert their revenue to their own currency.  $\Rightarrow$  Down on the exchange value.
      - B. Depreciation of the currency may rebalance the current account. Depending on **The initial deficit, the influence of exchange rates on import/export prices, price elasticity of traded goods**. See Notes P265 for details.
    - ii. Portfolio Composition mechanism. Countries with current account surpluses usually have capital account deficits, which typically take the form of investments in countries with current account deficits. As a result of these flows of capital, investor countries may find their portfolios' composition being dominated by few investee currencies. When investor countries decide to rebalance their investment portfolios, it can have a significant negative impact on the value of those investee country currencies.
    - iii. Debt sustainability mechanism: Current account deficit may be balanced by borrowing money from other countries. If the debt too high, lenders may question the security, leading to the depreciation of the borrower's currency.
  - (b) Capital Account Influences: Money flow in  $\Rightarrow$  Demand for my country's currency increases  $\Rightarrow$  Appreciation.
    - i. Good: can help to overcome a shortage of internal savings
    - ii. Bad: Too much money can be problematic for emerging markets.
      - A. Excessive appreciation of the domestic currency
      - B. Financial asset, real estate bubbles
      - C. Increase in external debt
      - D. Excessive consumption in the domestic market funded by credit
3. real exchange rate  $(A/B) = \text{equilibrium real exchange rate } (A/B) + (\text{real interest rate}_B - \text{real interest rate}_A) - (\text{risk premium}_B - \text{risk premium}_A)$   
 This equation is not precise. We cannot use it to calculate the rate.
4. Taylor Rule
 
$$R = r_n + \pi + \alpha(\pi - \pi^*) + \beta(y - y^*)$$
  - (a) R = Central bank policy rate implied by the Taylor Rule

- (b)  $r_n$  = Neutral **real** policy interest rate
- (c)  $\pi$  = Current inflation rate
- (d)  $\pi^*$  = Central bank's target inflation rate
- (e)  $y$  = log of current level of output
- (f)  $y^*$  = log of central bank's target (sustainable) output
- (g)  $\alpha, \beta$  = policy response coefficients. (suggested value: 0.5 for both)

$$\text{Real interest rate} = r = R - \pi = r_n + \alpha(\pi - \pi^*) + \beta(y - y^*)$$

Substitute the real interest rate equation, we have

Real exchange rate (A/B) = equilibrium real exchange rate(A/B) + difference in neutral real policy interest rate(B-A) +  $\alpha$ [difference in inflation gap (B-A)] +  $\beta$ [difference in output gap(B-A)] - (risk premium<sub>B</sub> - risk premium<sub>A</sub>) // Where: Inflation gap = current inflation - target inflation, Output gap = current output - target output

## 5.8 Explain approaches to assessing the long-run fair value of an exchange rate

1. The ex-ante version of relative PPP holds  $\Rightarrow$  The real exchange rates constant. However, relative PPP does not necessarily hold over the short term. Over long term, PPP holds, and the real rate will be near its equilibrium level.
2. IMF assesses long-term equilibrium real exchanges rate based on
  - (a) Macroeconomic balance approach: if the Ex rates need to be adjusted to equalize the expected current account imbalance and the sustainable current account imbalance.
  - (b) External sustainability approach. How rates need to be adjust to force a country's external debt relative to GDP towards its sustainable level.
  - (c) Reduced-form econometric model approach.

## 5.9 Describe the carry trade and its relation to uncovered interest rate parity and calculate the profit from a carry trade.

1. FX carry trade: Invest in a higher yielding funding with the funds borrowed in a lower yielding currency. This is due to the uncovered interest rate parity may not hold.
2. Risk of the Carry Trade
  - (a) The exchange rate may change abruptly.
  - (b) The return distribution is not normal. Negative skewness and excess kurtosis (fat tails).  $\Rightarrow$  High probability of large loss
3. Risk Management in Carry Trades
  - (a) Volatility filter: if volatility > certain threshold, close the carry trade.
  - (b) Valuation filter: valuation band for each currency based on PPP. If the value of a currency falls below the band, we will increase its ratio.

**5.10 Describe the Mundell-Fleming model, the monetary approach and the asset market approach to exchange rate determination.**

**5.11 Forecast the direction of the expected change in an exchange rate based on balance of payment, Mundell-Fleming, monetary, and asset market approaches to exchange rate determination.**

**5.12 Explain the potential effects of monetary and fiscal policy on exchange rates.**

1. Mundell-Fleming Model: evaluate the impact of monetary and fiscal policies on interest rates, and therefore on exchange rates.

2. Flexible Exchange Rate Regimes: rate are determined by markets.

(a) High Capital Mobility: Expansionary M and F are likely to have opposite effects. Expansionary M will reduce the interest rate, reduce the inflow of capital investment, reduce the demand for domestic money, depreciation.

(b) Low Capital Mobility: Uncertain

(c) Summary:

Monetary/Fiscal	High Capital Mobility	Low Capital Mobility
Expan/Expan	Uncertain	Depreciation
Expan/Restr	Depreciation	Uncertain
Restr/Expan	Appre	Uncertain
Restr/Restr	Uncertain	Appreciation

(d) Fixed Ex rate regimes

i. If monetary expansionary (depreciation), governments need to buy money in the FX market, therefore will reverse the effect from monetary expansionary.

ii. Fiscal expansionary → Appreciation (More money needed) → Government need to sell money to keep Ex rate stable. → Fiscal effect on aggregate demand will be reinforced.

3. Monetary Approach to Exchange Rate determination

Inflation play no role in exchange rate in Mundell-Fleming model.

Assumptions: 1. Output is fixed.

(a) Method 1: Pure Monetary model. Assume: PPP holds, output is constant.

(b) Dornbusch overshooting model. Price are inflexible in short term. Expan Monetary → price increase, interest rate down → depreciation of currency. Therefore, in short term, price sticky, interest rate down too much. → depreciation is greater than PPP implies.

4. Portfolio Balance Approach to Exchange rate determination.

(a) It focuses on long-term implications of fiscal policy on currency values.

(b) Fiscal deficit → sell bonds → When investors think the country is safe, they will continue to buy bonds. If the investors refuse to fund the deficits → depreciation

5. In short term, with free capital flows, expan fiscal → appreciation

Long term → government has to reverse expan fiscal. Otherwise, investor will refuse to fund it, then the country have to monetize its debt (print money). → depreciation

**5.13 Objectives of central bank intervention and capital controls and describe the effectiveness of intervention and capital controls.**

See Notes P274. Old version.

### 5.14 Describe warning signs of currency crisis.

1. Terms of trade deteriorate
2. Foreign reserve down quickly
3. Real exchange rate is extremely higher than mean-reverting value.
4. Inflation increases.
5. Equity markets have a boom-bust cycle.
6. Money supply relative to bank reserves increases.
7. Nominal private credit grows.

### 5.15 Technical analysis

See Notes P275 Old version.

## 6 Economic Growth and the Investment Decision

### 6.1 Compare factors favoring and limiting economic growth in developed and developing economies

Two important factors. 1: GDP per capita. 2: Growth of GDP

1. Preconditions for Growth
  - (a) Saving and investment. Positively correlated with economic development.
  - (b) Financial markets and intermediaries. Help resources reallocation. However, it may increase leverage, risks.
  - (c) Political stability, rule of law and property rights.
  - (d) Investment in human capital. Worker's skills.
  - (e) Tax and regulatory systems. Lower tax burdens are good. Lower regulation levels are good.
  - (f) Free trade and unrestricted capital flows.

### 6.2 Describe the relation between the long-run rate of stock market appreciation and the sustainable growth rate of economy.

The growth in the price is related to earnings and GDP:  $\Delta_P = \Delta_G DP + \Delta(E/GDP) + \Delta(P/E)$ . Over the long-term,  $\Delta(E/GDP) = 0, \Delta(P/E) = 0$ . Only GDP growth matters.

### 6.3 Explain why potential GDP and its growth rate matter for equity and fixed income investors.

Higher GDP growth  $\rightarrow$  Higher interest rates  $\rightarrow$  Higher real asset returns.

Higher GDP growth makes people think that future income is increasing, therefore increase consumptions and reduce savings. To encourage consumers save, higher interest rate is needed.

In short term, actual GDP in excess of potential GDP will result in rising prices  $\rightarrow$  inflationary pressure.

## 6.4 Distinguish between capital deepening investment and technological progress and explain how each affects economic growth and labor productivity

### 1. Factor input and Economic growth

- (a) Model: 2-factor aggregate production:  $Y = F(L, K)$  at a level of tech  $T$ . Output  $Y$  is a function of labor ( $L$ ) and capital.
- (b) Cobb-Douglas Production:  $Y = TK^\alpha L^{(1-\alpha)}$   
Dividing both sides by  $L$ , the output per worker is

$$Y/L = T(K/L)^\alpha$$

## 6.5 Forecast potential GDP based on growth accounting relations

### 1. Growth Accounting Relations

$$\Delta Y/Y = \Delta A/A + \alpha \times (\Delta K/K) + (1 - \alpha)(\Delta L/L)$$

i.e. growth rate in potential GDP = long-term growth of tech +  $\alpha$  long-term growth rate of capital +  $(1-\alpha)$ \*(long-term growth rate of labor)

The growth of technology is not observable. Can be estimated from previous data: ex-growth rate - ex-growth rate from  $L$  and  $K$

## 6.6 Explain how natural resources affect economic growth and evaluate the argument that limited availability of natural resources constrains economic growth

- 1. Access to natural resources does not require ownership of resources.
- 2. Another theory: ownership of natural resources may actually inhibit growth. → Dutch disease: global demand for natural resources drives up the country's currency, making all other exports more expensive and uncompetitive.

## 6.7 Explain how demographics, immigration, and labor force participation affect the rate and sustainability of economic growth

### 1. Labor Supply Factors

- (a) Demographics: A country's age distribution. Countries with younger age will have a higher potential growth.
- (b) Labor force participation.
- (c) Immigration: a potential source in developed countries ⇒ increase work force
- (d) Average hours worked

## 6.8 Explain how investment in physical capital, human capital, and technological development affects economic growth

- 1. Human capital: knowledge and skills that individuals possess. Can be enhanced via education.
- 2. Physical capital: infrastructure, computers, telecommunications (ICT) AND non-ICT capital (machinery, transportation and non-residential construction). More investment in physical capital ⇒ Good GDP growth.  
More investment may enhance the tech improvements.



3. Technological development. Investment in tech will increase the productivity.
4. Public infrastructure: like roads, bridges, and municipal facilities. This will enhance total productivity. Because the private investment will not invest these public things for their little returns.

## 6.9 Compare classical growth theory, neoclassical growth theory, and endogenous growth theory

1. Classical growth theory: In the long-term, population growth increases whenever there are increases in per capita income above subsistence level due to increase in capital or tech progress.  $\Rightarrow$  Growth in real GDP per capita is not permanent.  $\Rightarrow$  This is not supported by observed facts.
2. Neoclassical Growth theory:
  - (a) Estimate steady state growth rate. Equilibrium economy is when the output-to-capital ratio is constant. When the output-capital ratio is constant, the labor-to-capital ratio and output per capita also grow at the equilibrium rate. Check textbooks here.
  - (b) Based on Cobb-Douglas function,
    - i. Sustainable growth of output per capita:  $g^* = \frac{\theta}{1-\alpha}$ , where  $\theta$  is the growth rate in technology, and  $1 - \alpha$  is the labor's share of GDP.
    - ii. Sustainable growth rate:  $G^* = \frac{\theta}{1-\alpha} + \Delta_L$ , which is the growth rate of output per capita plus the growth of labor.
    - iii. Comments
      - A. Capital deepening will not affect the growth rate in the long run.
3. Endogenous Growth Theory
  - (a) Technological growth is a result of investment in physical and human capital. Returns to capital are constant.
  - (b) Private investments in R&D also benefits all economy.

## 6.10 Explain and evaluate convergence hypotheses

1. Absolute convergence: Less developed countries will achieve equal living standards overtime.
2. Conditional convergence: Convergence in living standards will only occur for countries with the same savings rates, population growth rates and production functions.
3. Club convergence: Countries may be part of a club. Poorer countries that are part of the club will catch up their richer peers. Institutional changes can help a country to join the club. Those are not in the club will never catch up.

## 6.11 Describe the economic rationale for governments to provide incentives to private investments in technology and knowledge.

R&D are risky. Governments support may provide incentives to private R&D, and therefore boosts the growth of the overall economy.

## 6.12 Describe the expected impact of removing trade barriers on capital investment and profits, employment and wages, and growth in the economies involved.

1. Increased investment from foreign savins

2. Allows focus on industries where the country has advantage.
3. Increased markets
4. Increased sharing of tech
5. Increased competition removes bad firms and relocating assets.

## **7 Reading 15: Economics of Regulation**

### **7.1 Describe classifications of regulations and regulators**

1. Regulations: i. Statues; ii. Administrative regulatinos; iii. judicial law
2. Regulators: government agencies/indepedent regulators/outside bodies. Independent regulators including self-regulating organizations that regulates and represents their members. Outside bodies will not regulate, but their products are referenced by regulators.

### **7.2 Describe uses of self-regulation in financial markets**

1. US: FINRA is an SRO recognized by SEC.
2. In civil-law countries, independent SROs are rare, and government agencies fulfill the role of SROs.
3. In common=law countries, independent SROs are historically good.

### **7.3 Describe the economic rationale for regulatory intervention**

1. Economic Rationale for Regulation. Regulations are needed when
  - (a) Information frictions. When information is not equally availabel or distributed.
  - (b) Externalities.

### **7.4 Describe regulatory interdependencies and their effects.**

1. Regulatory Interdependencies.
  - (a) Regulatory capture theory: Regulators will at some point in time be influenced or controlled byt the industiry that is being regulated. Because the regulators will be influenced by the industry, and the experience will sometimes lead to impartial conclusions.
  - (b) Regulatory competition: Regulatory difference between jurisdictions will lead to it. Regulators compete to provide the most business-friendly environment.
  - (c) Regulatory arbitrage: businesses find a coutry that best for itself.

### **7.5 Describe the tools of regulatory intervention in markets**

1. Price mechanisms
2. Restricting/requiring certain activities. Ban certain activities or require to perform some activities.
3. Provision of public goods or financing private projects.

## 7.6 Explain purposes in regulating commerce and financial markets

1. Regulating commerce: Government regulations, including company laws, tax laws, contract laws, competition laws, banking laws, bankruptcy laws and dispute resolution systems.  
This laws may help or hinder commerce.
2. REgulating financial markets: regulation of securities markets and regulation of financial institutions.
  - protecting investors, creating confidence in the markets, and enhancing capital formation.
  - (a) Regulation of security markets
  - (b) Regulation of Financial Institutions: Prudential supervision, the monitoring and regulation of financial institutions to reduce system-wide risks and to protect investors. Cost-benefit analysis should include hidden costs.

## 7.7 Describe anticompetitive behaviors targeted by antitrust laws globally and evaluate the antitrust risk associated with a given business strategy.

Antitrust regulation works to promote domestic competition. Like blocking a merger that leads to excessive concentration of market share. International companies may be subject to antitrust laws in different countries.

## 7.8 Benefits and costs of regulation

Costs include the implementation cost and the cost of the regulation to the private sector. *Regulatory burden*: the cost of compliance for the regulated entity. Regulatory burden - benefits that private sector receives = Net regulatory burden.

## 7.9 Evaluate how a specific regulation affects and industry company, or security

1. Can help or hinder the industry or the company.
2. Not necessarily always costly for those that being regulated.
3. May introduce inefficiencies in the market. For example, government bailout of financial institutions may convey a message that companies will be helped. And the credit spreads will not fully reflect their risk.
4. Certain industries have more exposure to certain types of regulations.

# 8 Reading 16: Intercorporate Investments

## 8.1 Describe the classification, measurement, and disclosure under IFRS for 1) Investments in financial assets, 2) Investments in associates, 3) joint ventures, 4) bussiness combinations, and 5) special purpose and variable interest entities

## 8.2 Distinguish between IFRS and US GAAP in the classification, measurement, and disclosure of things above.

1. Classification: a. Investments in financial assests. b. Investments in associates (investing firm has a significant influence but not control). c. Bussiness combinations.
  - (a) Financial assets. Ownership < 20%. Accounting treatment:
    - i. IFRS: held-to-maturity, available-for-sale, fair value through profit/loss.

- ii. GAAP: similar to IFRS.
    - iii. IFRS 9 start from 1/1/2018. Early adoption is allowed.
  - (b) Investments in associates. Ownership 20%~50%. Most important thing is “significant influence.” Equity method is used.
  - (c) Business combinations. Ownership > 50%. “Controlling” is important. The acquisition method is used.
  - (d) Joint ventures. Equity method for it.
2. Reporting of Intercompany investments
- (a) Financial assets. Acquisition is recorded at cost, and dividend or interest income is in Income Statement.
    - i. Held-to-maturity. Debt securities that cannot be sold prior to maturity except in unusual circumstances. Long-term: reported on the balance sheet at the amortized cost. Interest income (coupon cash flow adjusted for amortization) in the income statement but subsequent changes in fair value are ignored.
    - ii. Fair value through profit or loss.
      - a. Held-for-trading: Debt/equity for the purpose of profiting in the near term. < 3 month. Changes in fair value (realized or not) and dividend/interest are in Income Statement.
      - b. Designated at fair value: Report debt/equity that may be treated as held-to-maturity or available-for-sale at fair value. Gains/Loss are in Income Statement.
    - iii. Available-for-sale: are neither held-to-maturity nor held-for-trading. Reported on the balance at the fair value. However, only the realized gains/losses and dividend or interest income are in the income statement. Unrealized gains/losses are in comprehensive income. When sold, these unrealized things will move to income statement.  
 NOTE: In IFRS, unrealized gains or losses on available-for-sale **sale** that from foreign exchange movements are in the income statement. In USGAAP, the entire unrealized gain/loss are recognized in equity.  
 Available-for-sale **Equity**, the treatments are similar in IFRS/USGAAP.
  - (b) Reclassification of Investments in Financial Assets.
    - i. IFRS: a. does not allow reclassification into/out of the designated at fair value. b. Out of the held-for-trading is severely restricted.  
 c. Debt securities in available-for-sale can be reclassified as held-to-maturity. The value will be remeasured to reflect its fair value at the time it is reclassified.  
 d. Held-to-maturity: can be reclassified as available-for-sale. Carrying value is remeasured to the fair value, and any difference is recorded in comprehensive income.
    - ii. USGAAP:
      - A. Permit reclassification into/out of held-for-trading or designated at fair value. Unrealized gains on the income statement is reclassified.
      - B. Reclassification out of available-for-sale to held-for-trading, the cumulative gain/loss in comprehensive income will be recognized in income.
      - C. Out-of-available-for-sale to held-to-maturity: Gain/Loss in comprehensive income statement will be amortized over the remaining life of the security.
      - D. Out of held-to-maturity to available-for-sale: Unrealized Gain/Loss goes into comprehensive income statement.
      - E. Summary

From	To	Unrealized G/L
Fair value w/ G/L*	Any	Income Statement
Held-to-maturity	Fair value*	Income statement
Held-to-mat	Available-for-sale	Other comprehensive income
Available-for-sale	Held-to-maturity	Amortize out of other comprehensive income
Available-for-sale	Fair value w/ G/L*	Transfer out of other comprehensive income

\*: Restricted under IFRS

- (c) Impairment of Financial Assets: Held-to-Maturity (HTM) and available-for-sale (AFS) evaluated for impairment at each reporting period.
- US GAAP. If its decline in value is determined to be other than temporary. HTM/AFS, the write-down to fair value is treated as a realized loss.
  - US GAAP Reversals: NOT allowed.
  - IFRS: Impairments are in the income stmt. Impairment of a debt or equity security  $\Leftarrow$  at least one loss event HAS occurred, and its effect on the security's future cash flows can be estimated reliably.  
Debt: loss events – default on payments  
Equities: loss events – fair value has experienced a decline, and it's unlikely to recover.  
HTM security: if it's impaired, its carrying value will be the PV of future cash flows, using the interest rate when the security was PURCHASED.
  - IFRS Reversals: Permitted on HTM, available-for-sale. Not permitted for equity.
- (d) Analysis of Investments in Financial Assets: Separate a firm's operating results from its investment results.  
For comparison: market values for financial assets.  
Remove nonoperating assets when calculating the return on operating assets ratio.  
Investment classification will be misleading.
- (e) IFRS 9 (New standards)
- Instead of HTM, available-for-sale, and held-for-trading, Using new terms: amortized cost, fair value through profit or loss (FVPL), and fair value through other comprehensive income (FVOCI)
  - Amortized cost (For debt securities only): If the securities are
    - Business model test: being held to collect contractual cash flows
    - Cash flow characteristic test: the contractual cash flows are either principal or interest on principal only.
  - Fair Value Through Profit or Loss (for debt and securities)
    - Debt: can be FVTPL if held-for-trading, or Amortized cost results in an accounting mismatch.
    - Equity: Must be FVTPL if it is held-for-trading. Other equity can be FVTPL or fair value through OCI, but once classified, the choice cannot be reversed.
  - Fair Value Through OCI (Equity Only) = Available-for-sale
- (f) Reclassification under IFRS 9
- Reclassification of Equity is not allowed.
  - Reclassification of debt from amortized cost to FVPL or vice versa is OK only if the business model has changed. Unrecognized G/L on debt securities carried at amortized cost and reclassified as FVPL are in the income stmt.
  - Debt that out of FVPL: measured at amortized cost transferred at fair value on the transfer date, and the fair value becomes the carrying amount.
- (g) Investments in Associates
- Using equity method.

- ii. Initial investment is recorded at cost and reported on balance sheet as a noncurrent asset.
  - iii. Subsequent: proportional share of earnings increases the investment account on the balance sheet, and is recognized in the income stmt. Dividends received are treated as a return of capital, and reduce the investment account, will not be in income stmt.
  - iv. If the investee has a loss, investor will have a proportionate loss in balance, and income stmt. If the investment account on balance sheet reduce to 0, we stop using equity method until the earnings recovered.
- (h) Fair Value Option
- i. USGAAP allows equity method investment to be recorded at fair value.  
IFRS: the fair value only good to venture capital firms, mutual funds and similar firms.  
Decision to use FVO is irrevocable. If use FVO, any changes are in income stmt.
  - ii. Excess of Purchase Price Over Book Value Acquired.
    - A. At the acquisition date: the excess of the purchase price over the proportionate share of book value is allocated to the investee's identifiable assets and liabilities based on their fair values, and in investor's balance sheet. The remainder is good will.
    - B. Investor need to recognize expense based on the excess amount assigned to the investee's asset and liabilities.
    - C. Investor may need to include additional depreciation proportionate of the Excess of purchase price. See Notes-2 P11 examples and textbooks.
  - iii. Impairments of Investments in Associates:
    - A. Equity method investments need tests for impairment.
    - B. GAAP: Fair value of the investment < the carrying value (investment account on the balance sheet), and decline is permanent. Write-down to fair value, loss in income stmt.
    - C. IFRS/GAAP: asset cannot write up
  - iv. Transactions with the Investee Profit from these transactions deferred until the profit is confirmed through use/sale to a third party.
    - A. Upstream (investee to investor): investee recognized all profit in its income stmt. Eliminate its proportionate share of the profit.
    - B. Downstream (investor to investee). Investor recognize profit in its income stmt. Eliminate the proportionate share of unconfirmed profit.
  - v. Analytical Issues for Investments in Associates.
    - A. Equity method may have higher earnings.
    - B. Investor only report investee's proportionate share of equity. Investee's debt are ignored, and leverage is lower.
    - C. Proportionate share of Investee's earnings may be reinvested, not available to investor via dividend.
- (i) Business Combinations
- i. Classification: Acquisition method is required for business combinations.
    - A. IFRS: None
    - B. GAAP:
      - Merger. Acquiring firm survived.
      - Acquisition. Acquiring and Acquired continue to exist in a parent-subsidary form. Not 100% of sub is owned by parent.
      - Consolidation. A new entity absorbs both of companies.
  - ii. Accounting methods
    - A. Purchase method
    - B. Pooling-of-interests method (eliminated) = uniting-of-interests method in IFRS
      - Just combine assets and liabilities.

- Two companies combined using historical book values
- Operating results are restated, as two have been always combined.
- Ownership interests continue, and former accounting bases maintained.
- C. Acquisition method
  - A, L, Revenue, Expense of sub are combined with the parent. Intercompany transactions are excluded. Stock holder's equity is ignored. Because this is not controlled by the company.
  - noncontrolling interest account may be needed for proportionate asset that are not owned by the parent. Check examples.
- D. Good will in acquisition
  - Goodwill. Fair value for identifiable assets/liabilities. Any remainder will be unidentifiable A/L  $\Rightarrow$  Goodwill
  - GAAP: full goodwill. Fair value of the sub(calculated by acquired ratio) - Fair value of net identifiable net assets of the subsidiary; IFRS can use full goodwill or partial goodwill, partial goodwill = purchase price - (%owned\*FV of net identifiable asset)
  - Noncontrolling interest: For Full good will - nci based on the acquired company's fair value. For Partial goodwill - nci based on the fair value of the acquired company's identifiable net assets.
- E. Annual test impairment of Goodwill
  - IFRS: carrying amount of cash generating unit > the recoverable amount
  - GAAP: 2 steps. Carrying value of the reporting unit > the fair value; the loss = carrying value of the good will - the implied fair value of the goodwill.
- (j) Bargain Purchase: If acquisition price < fair value of net asset acquired, gain should be in income stmt for GAAP and IFRS.
- (k) Joint Ventures:
  - i. One entity shared by multiple investors. Equity method in GAAP and IFRS.
  - ii. Rare case: Proportionate consolidation method is OK for GAAP/IFRS. In Proportionate consolidation, investor only reports the proportionate share of assets, l, reve, expense. No minority owner's interest.
- (l) Special Purpose and Variable Interest Entities
  - i. SPE: Special purpose entity. Isolate certain A and L of the sponsor. SPE is often off-balanced-sheet. Thus enhance the ratios.
  - ii. VIE is a special SPE in FASB. Consolidated by the primary beneficiary. VIE Characteristics:
    - A. At-risk equity, insufficient to finance the entity's activities without additional support.
    - B. Equity investors lack: decision making rights, obligation to absorb loss, or the right to receive expected returns.
  - iii. IFRS: Sponsoring entity must consolidate if it controls SPE.
- 3. Analyze how different methods used to account for intercorporate investments affect financial statements and ratios.
 

Four important effects, Equity/Proportionate consolidation/Acquisition

  - (a) All 3 report the same Net Income.
  - (b) Equity: Equity method = Proportionate = Acquisition method - minority interest
  - (c) Assets and Liabilities: Acquisition > Proportionate consolidation > Equity
  - (d) Revenues and expenses: Acquisition > Proportionate consolidation > Equity

## 9 Reading 17: Employee Compensation: Post-Employment and Share-Based

### 9.1 Describe the types of post-employment benefit plans and implications for financial reports

Types: Defined-contribution plan and Defined-benefit plan. For defined-contribution plan, accounting is easy. Just the employer's contribution.

Defined-benefit:

1. Usually via a separate legal entity, like a trust.
2. funded status: difference between the pension obligation and the plan assets.
3. Other post-employment benefits: basically healthcare benefits.

### 9.2 Explain and calculate measures of a defined benefit pension obligation, i.e., PV of the defined benefit obligation and projected benefit obligation, and net pension liability.

1. Things to know
  - Projected Benefit Obligation, or Present Value of Defined Benefit Obligation under IFRS. :The PV of all future obligation, based on expected future salary increases. PVB will change from one period to the next.
  - (a) Current service cost: PV of benefits earned by during the current period.
  - (b) Interest cost: Increases in the obligation due to the passage of time. Interest will accrue. The cost = the pension obligation at the beginning of the period times the discount rate.
  - (c) Past service costs: retroactive benefits awarded to employees when plan's changed. IFRS: expensed immediately. GAAP: amortized over the average service life of employees.
  - (d) Changes in actuarial assumptions: Gains/losses due to changes like mortality, employee turnover, retirement age, and the discount rate.
  - (e) Benefits paid.
2. Balance Sheet Effects:
  - Funded status = fair value of plan assets - PBO
  - Balance sheet asset(liability) = funded status. This is good for IFRS/GAAP.

### 9.3 Describe the components of a company's defined benefit pension costs.

1. Total periodic pension cost = employer contributions - (ending funded status - beginning funded status)  
 TPPC = current service cost + interest cost - actual return on plan assets +/- actuarial losses, gains due to changes in assumptions affecting PBO + prior service cost.
2. Periodic Pension Cost Reported in P&L, i.e. Income stmt
  - (a) **Current service cost.** Immediately recognized in income stmt. CSC is the increase in PBO since the employee worked one more period.
  - (b) **Interest cost.** Immediately recognized. Increase in PBO due to the passage of time.
  - (c) **Expected return on plan assets.** The return on the plan assets has no effect on the PBO. Use expected return to compute the reported pension expense. Difference in expected return and actual return are in "actual gains and losses" IFRS: expected rate of return is assumed = the discount rate to compute PBO.



- (d) **Actuarial gains and losses** Recognized in Other Comprehensive Income. has 2 components. G/L due to changes in actuarial assumptions; difference in actual/expected return. IFRS: not amortized. GAAP: amortized with corridor.
- (e) **Corridor Approach.** If  $G/L > 10\%$  of  $\max(\text{beginning PBO, plan assets})$ , the excess amount should be amortized over the remaining service life of employees. Time can be shorter if wanted, but consistent.
- (f) **Past(prior) service costs.** If pension plan is changed, the change reported in OCI. And amortized of the remainig life of affected employees. In IFRS: changes are reported in income stmt instantly.
- (g) Summary

Component	GAAP	IFRS
Current service costs	Income stmt	Income stmt
Past service costs	OCI, amortized over life	Income
Interest costs	Income	Income
Expected return	Income	Income
Actuarial G/L	Amortized part in Income, Others in OCI	OCI

- (h) **Presentation.** GAAP: income stmt aggregated and presented in one line. IFRS: components may be presented separately.
- (i) **Capitalizing Pension Costs.**

## 9.4 Explain and calculate the effect of a defined benefit plan's assumptions on the defined benefit obligation and periodic pension cost.

3 Assumptions need disclosures.

1. **Discount rate:** Interest rate to compute the PV of BO and the current service cost.
2. **Rate of compensation growth:** average annual increase rate of employee's compensation.
3. **Expected return on plan assets:** long-term rate of return on the plan's investments. Only good in GAAP, b/c in IFRS, it's equal to the discount rate.

To improve reports, a company

1. Increase the discount rate to reduce PBO, pension costs, and interest cost.
2. Decrease the compensation growth rate to reduce futher benefit payments, PBO, and current service cost and interest cost.
3. Increase the expected return on plan assets.

Ultimate healthcare trend rate: constant rate of a health care inflation.

## 9.5 Explain and calculate how adjusting for items of pension and other post-employment benefits affect financial stmts and ratios.

One need to pay attention to different assumptions when compare companies:

1. Gross vs. net pension assets/liabilities. ROA will be lower with gross pension A/L; leverage ratios will be higher.
2. Differnces in assumptions used: like discount rates.
3. IFRS, GAAP.
4. Difference due to classification in the income stmt. GAAP: the entire periodic pension cost in P&L, including interest are operating expense. IFRS: can be in various line items.

## 9.6 Interpret pension plan note disclosures including cash flow related information.

If the difference between cash flow and total periodic pension cost is material, the difference can be reclassified from Operating activities to Financing activities.

## 9.7 Explain issues associated with accounting for share-based compensation

1. Forms: stock options and outright share grants.
2. Recording: issues for stocks – the value needs estimating.
3. Should be spread over the period for which they reward the employee.

## 9.8 Explain how accounting for stock grants and stock options affects financial stmts, and the importance of companies assumptions in valuing these grants and options.

IFRS and GAAP are similar.

1. **Stock options.** Expense is based on the fair value of options. Spread over the service time (grant date to the actual date that employees can act). Net income and retaining earnings will decrease, but total-equity will not change.
2. **Determining Fair Value.** If on-market, use market price. Otherwise, Using different models to find it.
3. **Stock grants.** Compensation expense is based on the fair value of the grant date. Allocated over the service period.
4. **Stock appreciation rights.** It's different from stock options. It gives the employee the right to receive compensation based on the increase in the price of the firm's stock over some threshold. No shares are issued. No dilution, but the company needs to pay cash.
5. **Phantom stock.** Similar to stock appreciation rights. But is based on the performance of hypothetical stock

# 10 Reading 18: Multinational Operations

## 10.1 Distinguish among presentation currency, functional currency and local currency.

1. Definition:
  - Local currency: currency of the country being referred to.
  - Functional currency: determined by the management. The main currency the company uses.
  - Presentation (reporting) currency: The currency the parent company prepares stmts

## 10.2 Describe foreign currency transaction exposure, including accounting for and disclosures about foreign currency transaction gains and losses

1. Foreign currency denominated transactions are measured in the presentation currency at the spot rate on the transaction date. Currency risk arises when the transaction date and payment date differ, leads to different spot rate.
2. If balance sheet date occurs before the transaction is settled, recognize G/L in balance sheet, and unrecognized G/L in income stmt. When the transaction settled, additional G/L may need to be recognized.

3. Analyst Issues: G/L due to currency in income stmt may be in operating or non-operating income. B/c accounting std do not provide any guides. Pay attention to this.

### 10.3 Analyze how changes in exchange rates affect the translated sales of the subsidiary and parent company

### 10.4 Compare the current rate method and the temporal method, evaluate how each affects the parent company's balance sheet and income stmt, and determine which method is appropriate in variuos scenarios.

1. Methods to translante financial stmts of sub to parent reporting currency
  - Remeasurement: converting the local to functional currency with temporal method.
  - Translantion: convert functional currency to paraent's reporting currency using the currenty rate method.
  - Define appropriate translation method. See P64 in notes, new version.
  - More definitions. a) Current rate: the exchange rate on the balance sheet rate. b) Average rate: the average exchange rate over the reporting period. c). historical rate: the actual when the transactions occurs.
2. Apply the current rate method process:
  - (a) All income stms are translate at the average rate.
  - (b) All balance sheet accounts are translated at the current rate *except for common stock, at historical rate.*
  - (c) Dividends are at the rate that applied when they were declared.
  - (d) Translation G/L is reported in shareholder's equity as a part of the cumulative translation adjustment.
3. Applying the Temporal Method
  - (a) Monetary A/L(fixed in the amount of currency) remeasured using the current exchange rate.
  - (b) All other A/L are nonmonetary assets, like inventory, fixed assets, intangible assets.for example, Unearned(deferred) revenue. They are remeasured in hisotyrcal rate. (*Exception: non-money A/L on the balance sheet at fair value are remeasured at the current rate*).
  - (c) Common stock, dividends paid are at historical rate.
  - (d) Expense related to nonmonetariy assets are remeasured based on the historical rates at the time of purchase.
  - (e) Revenues and all other expenses are at the average rate.
  - (f) Remeasurement G/L is in income stmt.
4. Inventory and COGS under the Temporal Method.  
Numerous historical exchange rate needs to be remembered. Inventory are complicated. Inventory and COGS are remeasured at different rates in FIFO/LIFO.
5. Parents Company Exposure to Changing Exchange Rates
  - (a) In Current rate method: Exposure in the net asset position of the subsidiary.
  - (b) In Temporal method: net monetary A/L are exposed.
6. Calculating the Translation/Remeasurement G/L  
G/L is reported in CTA, and GTP is used to make  $A=L+E$ .

### 10.5 Calculate the translation effects and evaluate the translation of a subsidiary's balance sheet and income

1. -CR method: start with income stmt. As the net income here will be used for the retained earnings in balance stmt.  
-Temporal method: start with balance stmt.
2. Different results from CR and Temporal methods. Why?
  - (a) Income before translation G/L is different, due to the different rate used for items. Example: COGS and depreciation, average rate in CR method and historical rate in Temporal.
  - (b) Translation G/L are different. Since net assets are exposed to the depreciation of Local Currency in CR, but net MONETARY assets are in temporal method.
  - (c) Net income is different. This is due to different exchange rate. Besides, in CR method, translation G/L are in CTA. In Temporal, remeasurement G/L are in income stmt.
  - (d) Total assets are different b/c inventory and net fixed assets are different.
- 3.

### 10.6 Analyze how the current rate method and the temporal method affect financial statements and ratios.

1. Pure Balance Sheet and pure Income Stmt ratios. PURE balance sheet and pure income statement ratios
2. Mixed Balance Sheet/Income Statement ratios. CR result in small changes.  
Key points to remember  
-Pure balance sheet/pure income ratios will be the same.  
-If foreign currency is depreciating, translated mixed ratios (with income stmt in up and end-of-period balance sheet item down) will be larger.
3. Compare ratios from Temporal method and current rate method. Compare the rates is the key.
  - (a) Determine whether the foreign currency is appreciating/depre.
  - (b) which rates is on numerator or denominator.

### 10.7 Analyze how alternative translation methods for subsidiaries operating in hyperinflationary economies affect financial stmts& ratios

1. Hyperinflation def. In FASB, cumulative inflation >100% over 3-yr period. IASB: doesn't have definition. But 100-3-yr is a good indication. Nonmonetary A/L are not affected by hyperinflation.
2. GAAP: in hyperinflation, the parent's presentation currency is the functional currency. - Temporal method
3. IFRS: foreign currency stmts are restated for inflation, and then translated with CR method.
  - Nonmonetary A/L restated with price index.
  - Monetary A/L doesn't change.
  - Shareholder's equity are restated with price index.
  - Retained earnings, plug figure
  - Income stmt: times the change in the price index from the transaction date.
  - Net purchasing power G/L recognized in income stmt
  - Check the examples on P82, new notes, book2
4. Analyzing Foreign Currency Disclosure

- (a) –Multiple foreign subs may exist. And disclosure information are limited. Can be found in footnotes (financial stmt) and management discussion/analysis of the annual report.  
 —Possible Solution: Add the change in CTA into net income.  
 —Also, can add the unrealized G/L to net income.
- (b) – Clean-surplus accounting: add G/L that are reported in shareholder's equity to net income stmt.  
 – Dirty-surplus accounting: report G/L in shareholder's equity.

## 10.8 Describe how multinational operations affect a company's effective tax rate

1. Tax Implications of Multinational Operations
  - Effective tax rate: tax expense divided by pretax profit
  - Statutory tax rate: Provided by the tax code of the home country.
 Companies need to reconcile these two rates.  
 Influence on the effective rate:
  - Changes in the mix of profits from different countries
  - Changes in tax rates

## 10.9 Explain how changes in the components of sales affect the sustainability of sales growth

1. Sales growth due to currency appreciation are not sustainable.
2. Organic growth: growth in sales excluding the effects of acquisitions/ divestitures and currency effects.

## 10.10 Analyze how currency fluctuations potentially affect financial results, given a company's countries of operation

Major Sources of Foreign Exchange Risk

1. Can affect value of A/L
2. Related disclosures in MD&A.
  - Helpful for Earnings change from currency change
  - Can do sensitivity analysis or inquire further information of hedging tools the company used.

# 11 Evaluating Quality of Financial Reports

## 11.1 Demonstrate the use of a conceptual framework for assessing the quality of a company's financial reports

1. Financial Report Quality = earnings quality + reporting quality
  - reporting quality: decision useful information
  - earnings quality: high-level earning + sustainable earning
  - Cannot have low-quality reporting and high-quality earning
2. Questions to ask:
  - Standard compliant AND decision useful?
  - Are the earnings of high quality?

## 11.2 Explain potential problems that affect the quality of financial reports

Two problems: Measurement and timing issues and/or Classification issues

### 1. Problems

- Measurement and Timing Issues: aggressive/conservative recognition practices influence p,e,a; omission/postponement of expense will increase profits,equity,assets.
- Classification Issue: How an individual financial stmt element within a particular financial stmt. Influence particular item.

### 2. Biased Accounting: Examples below.

- (a) Misstate profitability P102 NB2
  - Aggressive revenue recog
  - Lessor use of finance lease classification
  - Classifying non-operating reve/income as operating, and operating expense as non-operating
  - Channeling gains in net income and expense in OCI
- (b) Warnings signs of misstated profitability: high revenue growth than peers; receivable growth>revenue growth; higher rate of returns;high proportion of revenue is received in 4th quarter; unexplained boost to operating margin; operating cash flow lower than operating income; inconsistency in operating vs non-operating classification;aggressive
- (c) Misstate A/L
  - Choose bad inputs to change estimated value of stmt elements
  - Reclassification from current to non-current
  - Over/understating allowances or reserves
  - Understating identifiable assets
- (d) Warning signs of A/L
  - Inconsistent inputs for estimating A/L
  - Typical current A is in non-current.
  - Allowances and reserves differ from peers, and fluctuate
  - high goodwill
  - Use of special purpose entities
  - Large fluctuations in deferred tax A/L
  - Large off-balance-sheet liability
- (e) Overstate operating cash flows
  - Manipulating activities to affect CFlow from operating
  - Misclassifying investing CFlow from operations.

### 3. Business Combinations – Acquisition method accounting

- (a) Give opportunities to change cf stmt:Purchase cash-generating entities to increase CFlow. Payment using stock can bypass the cash flow stmt.
- (b) Give motivations to impact stmt.

### 4. GAAP accounting but not Economic reality

## 11.3 Describe how to evaluate the quality of a company's financial reports

## 11.4 Evaluate the quality of a company's financial reports

### 1. Steps:

- Understand the company, industry, and accounting principles
- Understand management, evaluate insider trades and related party transactions
- Identify material areas of accounting that are vulnerable to subjectivity

- Make cross-sectional and time series comparisons of stmts and ratios
- Check for warning signs
- multinational firms, check for shifting of profits/revenues to specific part of business that the firm wants to highlight.
- Use quantitative tools to evaluate the likelihood of misreporting

## 2. Quantitative tools

- (a) The Beneish model  
M-score > -1.78 indicates a higher-than-acceptable probability of earnings manipulation.  
Limitations: relies on accounting data.
- (b) Altman model: Z-score to assess the probability that a firm will file for bankruptcy.  
Limitations: a single-period static model.

## 11.5 Describe indicators of earnings quality

1. High-quality earnings: sustainable, adequate
2. low-quality earnings may due to
  - below the firm's cost of capital
  - not sustainable
  - poor reporting quality

## 11.6 Describe the concept of sustainable earnings

1. Definition: earnings that are expected to recur.
2. Possible gaming parts: 1. Classification items. 2. use non-GAAP metrics.  
-One way to gauge earnings:  $\text{earnings}(t+1) = \alpha + \beta_1 \text{earnings}(t) + \varepsilon$
3. Accruals:  
 $\text{earnings}(t+1) = \alpha + \beta_1 \text{cash flow}(t) + \beta_2 \text{accruals} + \varepsilon$   
Accruals from normal business: non-discretionary accruals  
Red flag: A company reports positive net income while negative operating cash flow.
4. Other indicators: companies repeatedly meet or barely beat consensus estimates. External: enforcement actions.

## 11.7 Explain mean reversion in earnings and how the accruals component of earnings affects the speed of mean reversion

Extreme earnings will revert back to mean. When earnings are largely comprised of accruals, mean reversion will occur more.

## 11.8 Evaluate the earnings quality of a company

1. Earnings manipulations: 1. Revenue recognition issues; 2. Expense recognition issues (capitalization)
2. Revenue recognition issues:
  - (a) Issues
    1. Channel-stuffing, bill-and-hold
    2. higher growth rate of receivables wrt the growth rate of revenue
    3. Increasing days' sales outstanding over time

## (b) Steps

- 1. Understand the basics
- 2. Evaluate and question ageing receivables
- 3. Cash vs accruals
- 4. Compare financials with physical data provided by the company.
- 5. Evaluate revenue trends and compare with peers
- 6. Check for related party transactions

## 3. Expense Capitalization

## Checking steps

- 1. Understand the basics
- 2. Trend and comparative analysis. Stable profit margins with a buildup of non-current assets is bad.
- 3. Check for related party transactions.

**11.9 Describe indicators of cash flow quality**

1. High-quality cash flow: reported CF is high; reporting quality is high.
2. Startup: negative OCF is OK. Mature: negative OCF is bad.
3. Operating CF is most important. OCF that is sustainable and adequate are good.
4. Manipulate CF via strategic decisions (timing issues)

**11.10 Evaluate the cash flow quality of a company**

## Steps

1. Checking for any unusual items or items that not shown in prior yrs.
2. Checking revenue quality.
3. Checking for strategic provisioning.
4. Remember: different standards of GAAP and IFRS may influence cash flow.

**11.11 Describe indicators of balance sheet quality****11.12 Evaluate the balance sheet quality of a company**

## Completeness, unbiased measurement, clarity of presentation

1. Completeness
  - If off-balance-sheet liabilities exist, then need to restate the balance sheet.
  - Equity method can make certain ratios higher than acquisition method. If firms use equity method rather than acquisition method, then pay attention to it.
2. Unbiased Measurement. Some subjectivity:
  - Value of the pension liability, based on several assumptions
  - Value of investment in debt or equity of other companies for which a market value is not available
  - Goodwill value
  - Inventory valuation
  - Impairment of PP&E
3. Clear Presentation
 

A single-line item or items grouped together? Although standard doesn't specify how much items must be presented. Clear presentation is good.



### 11.13 Describe sources of information about risk

Financial statements; Auditor's report; Notes to financial stmts; Management discussion and Analysis; SEC form "NT"; Financial press

## 12 Reading 20: Integration of Financial Statement Analysis Techniques

### 12.1 Demonstrate the use of a framework for the analysis of financial statements, given a particular problem, question, or purpose. (e.g., valuing equity based on comparables, critiquing a credit rating, obtaining a comprehensive picture of financial leverage, evaluating the perspectives given in management's discussion of financial results)

Steps: in notebook.

### 12.2 Identify financial reporting choices and biases that affect the quality and comparability of companies' financial statements and explain how such biases may affect financial decisions

#### 1. Sources of Earnings and Return on Equity: Use DuPont decomposition

(a) Use DuPont to find the performance drivers.

$$ROE = \frac{NI}{EBT} \times \frac{EBT}{EBIT} \times \frac{EBIT}{Revenue} \times \frac{revenue}{averageassets} \times \frac{average}{averageequity}$$

(b) Consider, if the income is generated internally or externally. Remove them from DuPont analysis.

(c) Rm pro-rata share of investee's earnings in influential investments.

(d) In equity method, Rm the carrying value of investments in balance sheet.

#### 2. Asset Base

Try to present balance sheet items in a common-size format. To get an overview of the changes in the composition of assets over time.

#### 3. Capital Structure

Must be able to support management's strategic objectives as well as honor obligations in future.

Some liabilities are more burdensome than others.

#### 4. Capital Allocation Decision

(a) Financial stmts should be disaggregated by segment.

- Business segment: > 10% of a large company

- Geographic segment

(b) Compare methods

- Compare EBIT margin to capital allocations, to see if the company invests on most profitable segment.

- Compare cash flow generated by each segment with capital allocations. Cash flow  $\approx$  EBIT + depreciation + amortization

### 12.3 Analyze and interpret how balance sheet modifications, earnings normalization, and cash flow statement related modifications affect a company's financial statements, financial ratios, and overall financial condition

#### 1. Earnings quality and cash flow analysis

- (a) Earnings quality: persistence and sustainability. Earnings closer to OCF are good. Check ratio of accruals to net operating assets to measure earnings quality. Split accruals and cash flow in earnings with balance method or cashflow stmt method.
- (b) Accruals Ratio
  - Balance sheet method:

$$Accruals = \Delta Asset - \Delta Liability - \Delta Cash = NOA_{end} - NOA_{beg}$$

where  $NOA = Netoperatingasset = Asset - Liability - Cash$ .

$$accrualratio^{bs} = \frac{NOA_{end} - NOA_{beg}}{(NOA_{end} + NOA_{beg})/2}$$

-Cash flow statement approach

$$Accruals = NI - CFO - CFI$$

Higher ratio or wide fluctuated ratio are bad, indicating earnings manipulation.

To compare these two measures. Eliminate cash paid for interest and taxes from OCF by adding them back. They are not operating income. - CGO, cash generated from operations.

$$CGO = EBIT + non - cashcharges - increaseinworkingcapital$$

Compare CGO vs operating income to see if any problems.

- (c) Market Value Decomposition
  - It's good to determine the standalone value of the parent company.

### 12.4 Evaluate the quality of a company's financial data and recommend appropriate adjustments to improve quality and comparability with similar companies, including adjustments for differences in accounting standards, methods, and assumptions.

#### 1. Off-Balance-Sheet Financing

Some important items are not reported on Balance sheet. Example: Operating Leases. In analysis, an operating lease should be treated as a finance lease.

Methods to convert operating lease:

- Equity is OK. Since assets and liabilities are increased by the same amount.
- Income statement: replace the rental expense for the operating lease with depreciation expense (on the lease asset) and interest expense (on the lease liability).

## 13 Reading 21: Capital Budgeting

1. Warm-up: Basics of Capital Budgeting
2. Categories of Capital Budgeting Projects
  - Replacement project to maintain business
  - Replacement projects for cost reduction

- Expansion projects
- New product or market
- Mandatory
- Other projects

### 3. Principles of Capital Budgeting

- (a) Based on cash flows:
  - Sunk cost: costs that cannot be avoided.
  - Externalities: effects that the acceptance of a project may have on other cash flows
- (b) Cash flows are based on opportunity costs.
  - OC: cash flow that the firm might lose by undertaking the project.
- (c) The timing of cash flow is important.
- (d) Cash flows are analyzed on an after-tax basis.
- (e) Financing costs are reflected in the project's required rate of return.

### 4. Modified Accelerated Cost Recovery System (MACRS)

- (a) Definition: A depreciation method that most US companies used for tax purpose. Should use it as well in capital budgeting.
- (b) You will have a MACRS table to compute incremental cash flows
- (c) Half-year convention: asset is in service in the middle of the first year. Therefore, 3-yr asset will have 4 calendar years.
- (d) Depreciable basis: purchase price + any shipping or handling and installation costs.

## 13.1 Calculate the yearly cash flows of expansion and replacement capital projects and evaluate how the choice of depreciation method affects those cash flows

1. Classification: 1, Initial investment outlay. 2, Operating cash flow over the project's life. 3, terminal-year cash flow
  - Initial investment outlay =  $FCInv + NWCInv$  = invest in Fixed capital + investment in net working capital.  $NWCInv = \Delta \text{non-cash current assets} - \Delta \text{non-debt current liabilities} = \Delta NWC$  = changes in networking capital. Cash is not operating asset. If  $NWCInv$  is positive, cashflow will be negative. Cash is needed to invest in NWC.
  - After-tax operating cash flows:  $CF = (S - C - D)(1 - T) + D = (\text{Sales} - \text{Cash operating expense} - \text{Depreciation expense})(1 - \text{marginal tax rate}) + D$
  - Terminal year after-tax non-operating cash flows (TNOCF). Sometimes,  $NWCInv$  can be reverted at the terminal year.
2. Expansion Project Analysis: increase both the size and earnings of a business. Using Initial investment outlay, After-tax ocf, and TNOCF to calculate NPV and IRR. Then decide if we should accept the project.
3. Other Presentation Formats.
  - Type: table format with cash flows collected by yr; tbl format with cf collected by type.
4. Replacement Project Analysis. Different from Expansion
  - Initial outlay, old asset will be sold:  $\text{Outlay} = FCInv + NWCInv - \text{Sal}_0 + T(\text{Sal}_0 - B_0)$
  - Incremental operating CF, CF from new asset - CF from old asset:  $\Delta CF = (\Delta S - \Delta C)(1 - T) + T\Delta D$
  - TNOCF =  $(\text{Sal}_{T\text{New}} - \text{Sal}_{T\text{Old}}) + NWCInv - T[(\text{Sal}_{T\text{New}} - B_{T\text{New}}) - (\text{Sal}_{T\text{Old}} - B_{T\text{Old}})]$

### 13.2 Explain how inflation affects capital budgeting analysis

1. Analyzing nominal or real CF. Nominal CF has inflation, while real CF not. CF should be discounted at a correct rate. (Nominal rate or real rate.)
2. Changes in inflation affect project profitability. Changes in inflation rate will change the value of future CF.
3. Inflation reduces the tax savings from depreciation. Because the depreciation savings is less valuable, the tax paid is more.
4. Inflation decreases the value of payments to bondholders.
5. Inflation may affect revenues and costs differently.

### 13.3 Evaluate capital projects and determine the optimal capital project in situation of 1) Mutually exclusive projects with unequal lives, using either the least common multiple of lives approach or the equivalent annual annuity approach, and 2) capital rationing.

1. Mutually Exclusive Projects with Different Lives
  - (a) Least Common multiple of lives approach.  
For example. a-3yr, b-6yr. We will use Cashflows for 2\*a to compare with b-6yr.
  - (b) Equivalent annual annuity approach: Use FV=0 and current PV, to calculate the PMT.
2. Capital Rationing  
Firms will continue to invest in positive NPV until marginal return = marginal cost.  
If Firm doesn't have enough funds, it needs to allocate funds to maximize NPV.

### 13.4 Explain how sensitivity analysis, scenario analysis, and Monte Carlo simulation can be used to assess the stand-alone risk of a capital project.

Sensitivity analysis: change an input to see the changes in results.

Scenario analysis: A risk analysis technique that considers both the sensitivity of key output variable to key input variables and the likely probability distributions of these variables. It studies different possible scenarios, like *worst case*, *best case*, *base case*.

### 13.5 Explain and calculate the discount rate, based on market risk methods, to use in valuing a capital project

1. CAPM:  $R_{project} = R_F + \beta_{Project}[E(R_{MKT}) - R_F]$   
The calculated R is the appropriate discount rate. Also, it's the required return rate specific for one project.
2. R=Hurdal rate

### 13.6 Describe types of real options and evaluate a capital project using real options

1. Real options: allow managers to make future decisions that change the value of capital budgeting decisions made today.

2. Types of real options:
  - Timing options: allow to delay making an investment with the hope of having better information in the future.
  - Abandonment options: right to drop a project
  - Expansion options: right to make additional investments.
  - Flexibility options: 1. price-setting options: allow the company to change the price of a product. 2. production-flexibility options: give some flexibilities in productions.
  - Fundamental options: projects that themselves are options. b/c the payoff depends on the price of an underlying asset.
3. Evaluate project with real options. Approaches:
  1. Determine the NPV of the project w/t the option.
  2. Calculate the project NPV without the option and then add the estimated value of the real option.
$$\text{overall NPV} = \text{project NPV (based on DCF)} - \text{option cost} + \text{option value}$$
3. Use decision trees.
4. Use option pricing models.

### 13.7 Describe common capital budgeting mistakes

1. Failing to incorporate economic response into the analysis. Example: low barriers to entry will have more competitors.
2. Misusing standardized templates.
3. Pet projects of senior management. Projects backed by influential people are usually overrated.
4. Basing investment decisions on EPS or ROE. Managers whose incentive is related to ROE.
5. Using the IRR criterion for project decision. NPV is good.
6. Poor cash flow estimation.
7. Misestimation of overheaded costs.
8. Using the incorrect discount rate. Should use the rate for a specific project.
9. Politics involved with spending the entire capital budget. Spend entire budget and then ask for an increase for the next year.
10. Failure to generate alternative investment ideas.
11. Improper handling of sunk and opportunity costs. Shouldn't consider sunk costs in the evaluation of a project.
- 12.

### 13.8 Calculate and interpret accounting income and economic income in the context of capital budgeting.

1. Economic income and Accounting income
 

Economic income = cash flow + (ending market value - begin market value) = cash flow - economic depreciation. beginning market value is PV of the remaining after-tax cash flows.

Accounting income = net income
2. Difference
  1. Accounting depreciation is based on the original cost
  2. Financing costs are subtracted out to arrive at net income.

### 13.9 Distinguish among the economic profit, residual income, and claims valuation models for capital budgeting and evaluate a capital project using each

1. **Economic profit:**  $EP = NOPAT - \$WACC = \text{Net operating profit after tax} - WACC \times \text{capital}$ . Capital = dollar amount of investment = equity + debt  
Returns on all supplies of income.  
Company value = NPV + initial capital investment
2. **MVA:** market value added, is the NPV based on economic profit  
 $NPV = MVA = \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \frac{EP_t}{(1+WACC)^t}$
3. **Residual income:** returns on equity  
Residual income = net income - equity charge  
 $RI_t = NI_t - r_e B_{t-1}$ .  $r_e$ : required return on equity.  $B_{t-1}$ : beginning of period book value of equity  
 $NPV = \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \frac{RI_t}{1+r_e}$   
Company value = NPV + initial capital = NPV + initial equity + debt
4. **Claims valuation approach:** Value debt and equity cash flows separately.
  - (a) Cash flows to debt holders: interest and principal payments, discounted at the cost of debt
  - (b) Cash flows to equity holders: dividends and share repurchases. rate at the cost of equity.  
CF to equity = Operating income - principle payment to debt = NI + depreciation - principal payments
  - (c) company value = market value of debt + mv of equity

## 14 Reading 22: Capital Structure

### 14.1 Capital Structure Theory

### 14.2 Explain the Modigliani-Miller propositions regarding capital structure, including the effects of leverage, taxes, financial distress, agency costs, and asymmetric information on a company's cost of equity, cost of capital, and optimal capital structure

1. **MM Proposition I (No Taxes):** The capital Structure Irrelevance Proposition  
Sum: MM proved that the value of a firm is unaffected by its capital structure under some restrictive assumptions.  
Assumptions:
  - Capital markets are perfectly competitive. No transactions costs, taxes, bankruptcy costs.
  - Investors have homogeneous expectations.
  - Riskless borrowing and lending: borrow at risk-free rate.
  - No agency costs: no conflict of interest between managers and shareholders.
  - Investment decisions are unaffected by financing decisions.
 Results:  $Value_{leverage} = Value_{unleverage}$
2. **MM Proposition II (No Taxes):** Cost of Equity and Leverage Proposition  
Sum: the cost of equity increases linearly as a company increases its proportion of debt financing.  
Result: -Debt holders have a priority claim on assets and income, thus cost of debt < cost of equity.  
-If the use of debt is increasing, the risk increase. Cost of equity is increasing. -No change in WACC  
 $-r_e = r_0 + \frac{D}{E}(r_0 - r_d)$ ;  $r_e$  is the cost of CAPITAL.  $r_0$  is unleveraged equity.

## 3. MM Proposition I(With Taxes): Value is Maximized at 100% Debt

**Tax shield provided by debt:** Firms like using debt because interest is tax-deductible.

$$V_L = V_U + (t \times d); \text{ Value of Leverage firm} = \text{Value of unxx firm} + \text{tax rate times value of debt}$$

Value will be maximized if use 100% debt.

## 4. MM Proposition II(Wtih Taxes): WACC is Minimized at 100% Debt

$$r_E = r_0 + \frac{D}{E}(r_0 - r_D)(1 - T_c)$$

## 5. Costs and Their Potential Effect on the Capital Structure

## (a) Costs of financial distress

- Costs of financial distress and bankruptcy: direct(direct fees), indirect(lost some investment opportunities and trust from customers, suppliers, etc)
- Probability of financial distress: Higer amounts of leverage result in higher probabily of distress. Higher expected cost of fin. distress will discourage companies from debt.

## (b) Agency costs of euqity: conflicts between interest between managers and shareholders.

Net agency cost of euqity has 3 components

- Monitoring costs: costs to supervise management
- Bonding costs: assumed by manageent to assure shareholders that the managers are working in the shareholder's best interest.
- Residual losses

## (c) Costs of asymmetric information:

Resultig from the fact that managers have more infor than owners or creditors.

Shareholders creditors looking for the signals that tell what management have

- Taking on the commitment to make fixed interest payments via debt financing is good.
- Issuing equity is usually bad.

## (d) Pecking order theory: signals management sends to investors via financing choices.

Managers will make financing choices that are least likely to send signal to investors.

Choice: Internally generated equity(retained earnings) > Debt > External equity

Based on POT, the capital structure is the by product of the individual financing decision.

## 6. Static Trade-off Theory, include fin. distress: balance costs of fin. distress and tax shielding from debt

$$V_L = V_U + (t \times d) - \text{PV}(\text{costs of financial distress})$$

## 7. Implications for Managerial Decison Making

-MM's Propositions iwth no taxes: 1. capital structure is irrelevant with firm value. 2. WACC will not change. Increase use of debt will increase the cost of euqity.

-MM's Propositions with taxes: 100% debt is good due to tax shielding.

-Static trade-off theory

### 14.3 Describe target capital structure and explian why a compny's actual capial structure may flucturate around its target.

## 1. Target capital structure: optiamal capital structure

## 2. May flucturate

- Management may choose to exploit opportunities in a specific financing source
- Market value flucturation will occur, like changes in stock and bond markets.

### 14.4 Describe the role of debt ratings in captial structure policy

Debt ratings: cost of capital is tied to debt ratings. Thus companies will keep the minimum ratings of debts.

### 14.5 Explain factors an analysis should consider in evaluating the effect of capital structure policy on valuation.

Consider:

1. Changes in the company's capital structure over time
2. Capital structure of competitors with similar business risk
3. Company-specific factors (like quality of corporate governance). Better corporate governance will reduce agency costs.

### 14.6 Describe international differences in the use of financial leverage, factors that explain these differences and implications of these differences for investment analysis

Capital structure of international firms will impact a firm's capital policy.

1. Total debt: Japan, Italy, France will have more total debt in USA, UK.
2. Debt Maturity: Co. in North America will use longer maturity debt than Co in Jp.
3. Emerging market differences: Co. in developed companies will use more and longer debt than those in emerging markets.

Other factors are

1. Institutional and Legal factors
  - Strength of legal system: strong legal system results in less debt and long maturity in capital structure.
  - Information asymmetry: strong asymmetry → More debt.
  - Taxes
2. Financial Markets and Banking system factors
  - Liquidity of capital markets: larger and more liquid markets → longer maturity debt
  - Reliance on banking system: If more rely on banking systems, companies will be more leveraged.
  - Institutional investor presence: If institutional investors play more role, the capital structure may be changed.
3. Macroeconomic factors
  - Inflation: higher inflation → use less debt and short maturity.
  - GDP growth: higher GDP growth → long maturity debt.

Country specific factors	Use of Total Debt	Maturity of Debt
Institutional and Legal factors		
-Strong legal systems	Low	Long
-Less information asymmetry	low	long
-Favorable tax rates on dividend	low	
-Common law opposed to civil law	low	long
Financial Market factors		
-More liquid stock and bond markets		long
-Greater reliance on banking system	high	
-Greater institutional investor presence	low	long
Macroeconomic Factors		
-High inflation	low	short
-High GDP growth	low	long



## 15 Dividends and Share Repurchases: Analysis

### 15.1 Compare theories of dividend policy and explain implications of each for share value given a description of a corporate dividend action

1. **Dividend irrelevance:** In a perfect world with no taxes, broker fees, and infinity divisible shares, dividend policy has no effect on the price of a firm's stock or its cost of capital. Will not affect the required return on equity capital.
2. **Bird-in-hand argument for dividend policy:** Required return on equity capital  $r_s$  decreases as the dividend payout increases.
3. **Tax aversion:** Historically, higher tax on dividends than capital gain. Therefore, investors prefer to not receive dividends. While companies will make dividend payments necessary to avoid tax.
4. Conclusion:

### 15.2 Describe types of information (signals) that dividend initiations, increases, decreases, and omissions may convey

1. Dividend initiation: ambiguous. Positive: company is sharing its wealth; Negative: a company has a lack of profitable reinvestment opportunities.
2. Unexpected dividend increase: Good. Companies future is good.
3. Unexpected dividend decreases or omissions: negative signals.

### 15.3 Explain how clientele effects and agency issues may affect a company's payout policy.

1. Clientele effect: dividend preferences of different groups are different.
  - Tax consideration. High tax-bracket investors (individuals) prefer low dividend payouts. Low-tax-bracket investors prefer high payouts.
  - Requirements of institutional investors: some of institutional investors will only invest companies that have dividend yield above some threshold.
  - Individual investor preferences.
2. Agency issues
  - Between shareholders and managers: agency cost is due to difference interest between managers and stockholder. Manager may overinvest. Therefore, one way to reduce the agency cost is to increase the payout of free cash flow as dividends.
  - Between shareholders and bondholders: If high-risk debt outstanding, shareholders may pay themselves a large dividend.

### 15.4 Explain factors that affect dividend policy.

6 factors:

1. Investment opportunities. If the firm has many opportunities and need to react quickly, dividend payout would be low.
2. Expected volatility of future earnings. If earnings are volatile, firms are more cautious in *changing* dividend payout.
3. Financial flexibility.

4. Tax considerations.
  - Dividend preference may different if capital gains and dividends are taxed at different rate.
  - Taxes on dividends are paid when dividend is received. Capital gain taxes are paid when shares are sold.
  - Tax-exempt institutions will be indifferent between dividends/capital gains.
5. Flotation costs: 3% to 7% fee will be applied for new stocks, while retained earnings have no such fee. High flotation costs→lower dividend payout.
6. Contractual and legal restrictions.
  - Impairment of capital rule: in some countries, dividend cannot be larger than retained earnings.
  - Debt covenants: many covnants require a firm to meet/exceed a certain target for liquidity rations and coverage ratios before they can pay a dividend.

### 15.5 Calculate and interpret the effective tax rate on a given currency unit of corporate earnings under double taxation, dividend imputation, and split-rate tax systems.

1. Double-taxation system  
Earnings are taxed at corporate regardless of whether dividend. Dividend are taxed again for share-holders.  
Effective rate = Corporate tax rate + (1-Corporate tax rate)(individual tax rate)(payout ratio)
2. Imputation tax system  
All taxes are effectively paid at the shareholder rate.
3. Split-rate  
Earnings that are distributed as dividends are taxed at a lower rate. Individual: dividends are taxed as income.

### 15.6 Compare stable dividend, constant dividend payout ratio, and residual dividend payout policies, and calculate the diviend under each policy.

1. Stable Dividend Policy:
2. Target Payout Ratio Adjustment Model  
Expected dividend = previous dividend + (exp.d increase in EPS)(target payout ratio)(adjustment factor). Where adjustment factor = 1/number of years of which the adjustment will take place.
3. Constant Dividend Payout Ratio Policy  
Seldom used.
4. Residual Dividend Model:  
(Dividends) is based on (Earnings) less (funds retained to for the equity portion.)  
Advantages: 1. Simple to use; 2. Pursue investment opportunities without being constrained by dividend considerations.  
Disadvantages: Dividends will be unstable.
5. Long-term residual dividend model.

### 15.7 Explain the choice between paying cash dividends and repurchasing shares

Possible reasons to repurchase shares

1. Potential tax advantage

2. Share price support/signaling: company to show that they are confident with their stock.
3. Added flexibility: repurchase can be a supplement to the dividend. Repurchase doesn't need long-term commitment.
4. Offsetting dilution from employee stock options.
5. Increase financial leverage. If funded by new debt, share repurchase will increase leverage. Besides, share repurchase may increase EPS, if the cost of fund < EPS.

## 15.8 Describe broad trends in corporate dividend policies

1. A lower proportion of US companies pay dividends compared to European ones.
2. In developed markets, the proportion of companies paying cash dividends is down.
3. The percentage making stock repurchases has been upwards.

## 15.9 Calculate and interpret dividend coverage ratios based on 1) net income and 2) free cash flow.

### 15.10 Identify characteristics of companies that may not be able to sustain their cash dividend.

**Dividend safety:** the metric used to evaluate the probability of dividends continuing at the current rate for a company.

-Useful ratios: Dividend payout ratio(dividends/net income) and dividend coverage ratio(net income/dividends)  
Free cash flow to equity(FCEE): cash flow available for distribution to stockholders after working capital and fixed capital needs are accounted for.

FCFE coverage ratio = FCFE/(dividends + share repurchase)

## 16 Reading 24: Corporate Performance, Governance, and Business Ethics

### 16.1 Compare interest of key stakeholders groups and explain the purpose of a stakeholder impact analysis

Stakeholders:

1. Definition: Groups with an interest or claim in a company.
2. Key internal stakeholders
  - Stockholders
  - Employees
  - Managers
  - Members of the board of directors
3. Key external stakeholders
  - Customers
  - Suppliers
  - Creditors
  - Unions
  - Governments
  - Local communities
  - General public

### Reconciling interests and the stakeholder analysis

1. Not all stakeholders are so interested in the profitability. e.g. Customers don't want to overpay.
2. Stakeholder Impact Analysis (SIA): Force the company to identify which stake groups are critical to the company.
3. Stockholders are special stakeholders. Return on invested capital(ROIC) and growth in profits→Measure if the company satisfy shareholders

## 16.2 Discuss problems that can arise in principal-agent relationships and mechanism that may mitigate such problems.

### The Principal-Agent Relationship

1. Definition: PRA arises when one group delegates decision to another group. Problems: Information asymmetry. Agent doesn't tell everything to the principal.
2. Example Problems  
CEOs manipulate the board of directors to extract excessive compensation packages.
3. Controlling PAR problems  
Guide the behavior of agents  
Reduce the asymmetry of information  
Remove agents who misbehave and violate ethical principles.
4. Ethics and Strategy, examples of unethical behavior  
Self-dealing  
Information manipulation  
Anticompetitive behavior  
Substandard working conditions  
Environmental degradation  
Corruption

## 16.3 Discuss roots of unethical behavior and how managers might ensure that ethical issues are considered in business decision making

### Roots of Unethical Behavior

1. Personal ethics are flawed
2. Failure to realize
3. Culture to focus on profit/growth
4. Flawed business culture where top management sets unrealistic goals
5. Unethical leadership

## 16.4 Compare the Friedman doctrine, Utilitarianism, Kantian Ethics, and Rights and Justice Theories as approaches to ethical decision making

1. Friedman Doctrine: The only social responsibility is increase profits "within the rules of the game".
2. Utilitarianism: seeks to produce the highest good for the largest number of people.
3. Kantian Ethics: People are more than an economic input and deserve dignity and respect.

4. Rights theories: all individuals have fundamental rights and privileges, and the utilitarianism's greatest good doesn't trump these fundamental rights.
5. Justice theories: justice is met if all participants would agree the rules are fair if the results is decided under 'veil of ignorance'.

## **17 Reading 25: Corporate Governance**

### **17.1 Describe objectives and core attributes of an effective corporate governance system and evaluate whether a company's corporate governance has those attributes**

1. Objectives
  - Eliminate or reduce conflicts of interest
  - Use the company's assets in a good way
2. Properties of effective corporate governance system

### **17.2 Compare major business forms and describe the conflicts of interests associated with each**

1. Sole proprietorships: Business owned and operated by a single individual No distinction between the business and its owner, unlimited liability.  
Conflict of interest: suppliers, creditors.
2. Partnerships  
Def: two or more owners/managers, but are otherwise similar to a sole proprietorship. Unlimited liability.  
Typical: Law firms, real estate firms, advertising agencies  
CoI: creditors and suppliers; partners conflicts are addressed in contracts.
3. Corporations  
Def: Distinct legal entities that have rights similar to those of an individual person.  
CoI: owners vs management

### **17.3 Explain conflicts that arise in agency relationships, including manager-shareholder conflicts and director-shareholder conflicts**

Principal-agent problem includes:

1. Managers and shareholders, examples
  - Using funds to expand the size of the firm
  - Get high salaries and perquisites
  - Investing in risky ventures
  - Not taking enough risk: Some risk-averse managers will be conservative to keep their job, rather than do a better job for shareholders
2. Directors and shareholders
  - Lack of independence
  - Board members have personal relationships with management
  - Board members have consulting or other business agreement with the firm
  - Interlinked boards
  - Directors are overcompensated.

**17.4 Describe the responsibilities of the board of directors and explain qualifications and core competencies that an investment analyst should look for in the board of directors**

**17.5 Explain effective corporate governance practice as it relates to the board of directors and evaluate strengths and weaknesses of a company's corporate governance practice**

The Board of Directors – Standards related to the effectiveness

3/4 of board members should be independent.

Whether the board has an independent chairman: separate is good.

Qualifications of directors: should bring skills and experience: for board members to have the requisite industry, strategic planning, and risk management knowledge, not serve on more than two or three boards.

How the board is elected: Annual elections are good

Board self-assessment practices

Frequency of separate sessions for independent directors: independent members should meet at least annually, prefer quarterly.

Audit committee and audit oversight: audit committee only has independent directors, has expertise in financial/accounting, has full access to the cooperation management, and meets with auditors at least annually.

Nominating committee: only have independent directors.

Compensation committee and the compensation awarded to management: should focus on long term goals. Shouldn't use the salary at other companies as a reference point. Good: have salaries as a small percentage of compensation, with bonus, options and restricted stock for good performance.

Use of independent or expert legal counsel. Common practice: advise the board of directors, but this is bad.

Best: use independent, outside counsel whenever legal counsel is required.

Statement of governance policies

Disclosure and transparency. Best: more disclosure is better. Should provide info about organization structure, corporate strategy, insider transactions, compensation policies and changes to governance structure.

Insider or related-party transactions. Best: Any related-party transactions should be proved by the board of directors.

Responsiveness to shareholder proxy votes. Should consider the shareholder's opinions.

**17.6 Describe elements of a company's statement of corporate governance policies that investment analysts should assess.**

1. Code of ethics
2. Directors oversight, monitoring, and review responsibilities
3. Management's responsibility to the board
4. Reports of directors' oversight and review of management
5. Board self assessments
6. Management performance assessments
7. Director training

**17.7 Describe environmental, social, and governance risk exposures**

Environmental, Social, and Governance Factors ESG factors

1. Environmental risk
2. Social risk

### 3. Governance risk

Organized as follows

1. Legislative and Regulatory risk: new laws may be bad
2. Legal risk: potential results for lawsuits may be bad
3. Reputational risk
4. Operating risk: due to impact of ESG factors
5. Financial Risk:

## 17.8 Explain the valuation implications of corporate governance

Strong/effective corporate governance system is good.

Weak or ineffective corporate governance system is bad

1. Financial disclosure risk
2. Asset risk
3. Liability risk
4. Strategic policy risk

## 18 Mergers and Acquisitions

### 18.1 Classify merger and acquisition activities on forms of integration and relatedness of business activities

Forms of Integration

1. Statutory merger: acquiring company acquires all of the target's A and L.
2. Subsidiary merger: the target company will be a sub of the purchaser.
3. Consolidation: both companies will combine into a new company.

Types of Mergers

1. Horizontal merger: businesses in the same or similar industries
2. Vertical merger: the acquiring company seeks to move up/down the product supply chain.
3. Conglomerate merger: two companies operate in completely separate industries.

### 18.2 Explain common motivations behind MA activity.

1. Synergies: combined company will be worth more than the two companies. Horizontal combination will reduce cost.
2. Achieving more rapid growth.
3. Increased market power.
4. Gaining access to unique capabilities.
5. Diversification: diversify the firm's cash flow. Merger are not likely to increase value purely for diversification reasons. B/c merger process involves a lot of costs.

6. Bootstrapping EPS.
7. Personal benefits for managers. Large size of company → high salary for managers.
8. Tax benefits
9. Unlock hidden value.
10. Achieving international business goals, some specific driving factors
  - Taking advantage of market inefficiencies
  - Working around disadvantageous government policies
  - Use technology in new markets
  - Product differentiation
  - Provide support to existing multinational clients

### 18.3 Explain bootstrapping of earnings per share and calculate a company's postmerger EPs

when a high P/E company purchases a low P/E firm in a stock transaction. When we calculate EPS for the new company, total earnings is equal to the sum, however, the total shares outstanding is less than the sum of the combined firms. EPS will increase.

### 18.4 Explain, based on industry life cycles, the relation between merger motivations and types of mergers.

Industry life cycle stage	Industry Characteristics	Merger Motivations
Pioneer/development	1. Unsure of product acceptance 2. Large capital requirements and low profit margins	1. Gain access to capital from more mature firms 2. Share management talent
Rapid Growth	1. High profit margins 2. Accelerating sales and earnings 3. Competition still low	1. Gain access to capital 2. Expand capacity to grow
Mature growth	1. Lots of new competition 2. Still opportunities for above average growth	1. Increase operational efficiencies 2. Economies of scale/synergies
Stabilization	1. Competition has reduced growth potential 2. Capacity constraints	1. Economies of scale/reduce costs 2. Improve management
Decline	1. Consumer tastes have shifted 2. Overcapacity/shrinking profit margins	1. Survival 2. Operational efficiencies 3. Acquire new growth opportunities

### 18.5 Contrast merger transaction characteristics by form of acquisition, method of payment, and attitude of target management

#### Forms of Acquisition

1. Stock purchase: usually entire company.
  - Payment: directly to target company shareholders in exchange for their shares.
  - Approval: Majority shareholder approval required.
  - Corporate taxes: None.
  - Shareholder taxes: shareholders pay capital gains tax.
  - Liabilities Acquirer assumes liabilities of target.
2. Asset purchase: usually part of a company
  - Payment: Made directly to target company.
  - Approval: No shareholder approval needed unless asset sale is substantial.



<i>Industry Life Cycle Stage</i>	<i>Industry Characteristics</i>	<i>Merger Motivations</i>	<i>Common Types of Mergers</i>
Pioneer/ development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Unsure of product acceptance</li> <li>• Large capital requirements and low profit margins</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gain access to capital from more mature businesses</li> <li>• Share management talent</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Conglomerate</li> <li>• Horizontal</li> </ul>
Rapid growth	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High profit margins</li> <li>• Accelerating sales and earnings</li> <li>• Competition still low</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gain access to capital</li> <li>• Expand capacity to grow</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Conglomerate</li> <li>• Horizontal</li> </ul>
Mature growth	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lots of new competition</li> <li>• Still opportunities for above average growth</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Increase operational efficiencies</li> <li>• Economies of scale/synergies</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Horizontal</li> <li>• Vertical</li> </ul>
Stabilization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Competition has reduced growth potential</li> <li>• Capacity constraints</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Economies of scale/reduce costs</li> <li>• Improve management</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Horizontal</li> </ul>
Decline	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Consumer tastes have shifted</li> <li>• Overcapacity/shrinking profit margins</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Survival</li> <li>• Operational efficiencies</li> <li>• Acquire new growth opportunities</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Horizontal</li> <li>• Vertical</li> <li>• Conglomerate</li> </ul>

-Corporate taxes: Target company pay capital gain tax.

-Shareholder taxes: None.

-Liabilities: Acquirer usually avoids assumptions of target's liabilities.

#### Method of Payment

1. Securities offering: pay with shares.
2. Cash offers: pay with cash.
3. Factors to choose securities/cashes
  - Distribution between risk and reward for the acquirer and target shareholders.
  - Relative valuations of companies involved. Stock offering is kind of a signal that acquirer's share may be overvalued.
  - Changes in capital structure.

#### Attitude of Target management

1. Friendly merger offers process
  - both companies will negotiate, and draft a merger agreement, and finally release all the information to the public.

## 2. Hostile merger offers

- Bear hug: Acquirer submits a merger proposal directly to the target's board of directors.
- If bear hug fails, appeal directly to shareholders
- Tender offer: buy the shares directly from shareholders
- Proxy battle: have shareholders approve a new "acquirer approved" board of directors."

## 18.6 Distinguish among pre-offer and post-offer takeover defense mechanisms

Pre-offer and Post-offer. Pre-offer defense is better, b/c faces less scrutiny in court.

### Pre-Offer Defense Mechanisms

1. Poison pill: give shareholder's right to buy shares at extremely attractive price
  - flip-in pill: target company's shareholders can buy target's share at a discount
  - flip-over pill: target shareholders can buy acquirer's shares at a discount
2. Poison put: give bondholder's the option to get repayment immediately
3. Restrictive takeover laws: some states in US will protect company against a hostile takeover. Ohio/Pennsylvania
4. Staggered board: Board of directors are split into 3 groups, each is elected for a 3-year term. Prevent bidder controlling the board.
5. Supermajority voting provision for mergers: require more support for merger, like 66.7%, 75% or 80%.
6. Fair price amendment: restricts a merger offer unless a fair price is offered.
7. Golden parachutes: give the managers a lot of money if they leave the company after merger.

### Post-Offer Defense Mechanisms

1. Just say no: target can tell shareholders merger is bad.
2. Litigation: file a lawsuit against the acquirer that takes long time and a lot of money.
3. Greenmail: payoff to the acquirer to terminate the merger.
4. Share repurchases: target company submit a tender offer for its own shares. Acquirer therefore has to increase the bid price.
5. Leveraged recapitalization: target assumes a lot of debt to repurchase shares. The capital structure will be unattractive.
6. Crown jewel defense: target sell a essential subsidiary or major asset to a neutral third party.
7. Pac-Man defense: target can acquire the acquirer.
8. White knight defense: a white knight is a friendly third party. The friendly third party will start a bidding war against the acquirer.
9. White squire defense: seek a third party to buy a minority stake of the company. However, the stake is big enough to block the merger.

## 18.7 Calculate and interpret the Herfindahl-Hirschman Index, and evaluate the likelihood of an antitrust challenge for a given business combination.

Calculation:

$$HHI = \sum_{i=1}^n (MS_i \times 100)^2$$

where  $MS_i$  = market share of firm i.

Steps to challenge antitrust

1. Whether the post-merger HHI > 1000?
2. If post-merger HHI between 1000 and 1800 → Moderately concentrated category → check the changes of HHI. If > 100, bad. possible antitrust.
3. If post-merger HHI > 1800 → Highly concentrated → check the change of HHI. If > 50, bad. Antitrust almost certain.

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Valuing a target company

1. Discounted cash flow analysis
2. Comparable company analysis
3. Comparable transaction analysis

## 18.8 Calculate free cash flows for a target company, and estimate the company's intrinsic value based on discount

Discounted Cash Flow (DCF) analysis: 1) Calculate future free cash flow. 2) Calculate discounted cash.

1. Determine which free cash flow model to use for the analysis.
2. Develop pro forma financial estimates.
3. Calculate free cash flows using the pro forma data, starting with net income:

	Net Income
+	Net interest after tax
=	Unlevered net income
±	Change in deferred taxes
=	Net operating profit less adjusted taxes (NOPLAT)
+	Net non cash charges
-	Change in net working capital
-	Capital expenditures (capex)
=	Free cash flow

4. Discounted free cash flows back to the present at the appropriate discount rate. Usually use WACC, or  $WACC_{adjusted}$  which includes the risk from the merger.
5. Determine the terminal value and discount it back to the present.  
Method 1: assumes the company grows at a constant rate.

$$terminalvalue = \frac{FCF_T(1+g)}{WACC_{adjusted}} - g$$

Method 2:  $Terminalvalue_T = FCF_T \times (Projectedprice/FCF)$

6. Add the discounted FCF values for the first state and the terminal value to determine the value of the target firm. Check examples on Page 294.

## 18.9 Estimate the value of a target company using comparable company and comparable transaction analyses

Comparable company analysis

1. Identify the set of comparable firms: same industry with similar size and capital structure.
2. Calculate various relative value measures based on the current market price of companies in the sample with some useful quantities:
  - Enterprise value(EV)=market value of debt and equity - the value of cash and investments.
  - Price to earnings P/E
  - Price to book P/B
  - Price to sales P/S
3. Calculate descriptive statistics for the relative value metrics and apply those measures to the target firm.
4. Estimate a takeover premium:  $TP = \frac{DP - SP}{SP}$ , where TP: takeover premium, DP: deal price per share, SP: target company's stock price. The takeover premium is estimated by looking at recent takeovers on similar companies.
5. Calculate the estimated takeover price for the target as the sum of estimated stock value based on comparable and the takeover premium.

Comparable transaction analysis: using recent takeover transactions of similar companies to estimate the takeover price.

1. Identify a set of recent takeover transactions. Should be firms in the same industry and have a similar capital structure.
2. Calculate various relative value measures based on **completed deal prices** for companies in the sample.
3. Calculate descriptive statistics for the relative value metrics and apply those measures to the target firm.

## 18.10 Compare the discounted cash flow, comparable company, and comparable transaction analyses for valuing a target company, including the advantages and disadvantages of each.

Discounted cash flow analysis: based on a forecast of the target firm's CF

1. Advantages
  - relatively easy to model
  - based on forecasts of conditions in the future
  - the model is easy to customize
2. Disadvantages
  - Hard to apply when free cash flows are negative
  - estimates of CF and earnings have error.
  - Discount rate changes over time
  - Estimation error

Comparable company analysis: use market data from similar firms AND a takeover premium

1. Advantages
  - Data for comparable companies is easy to access
  - Assumptions that similar assets have similar value is good.
  - Estimates of value are from the market.

## 2. Disadvantages

- Assumes that the market valuation of the comparable companies is accurate
- Just get a fair stock price. Takeover premium must be determined.
- Difficult to incorporate merger synergies or changing capital structures in analysis.
- Historical data for premium estimate may not be timely.

Comparable transaction analysis: uses data from completed M&A deals

## 1. Advantages

- No need to estimate takeover premiums
- Estimates of value from actual M&A deals
- Reduce the risk that shareholders sue that the managers/BoD for mispricing the deal.

## 2. Disadvantages

- Assumes that M&A transactions are valued accurately.
- Not enough transactions to use.
- Difficult to incorporate merger synergies or changing capital structure.

### 18.11 Evaluate a takeover bid, and calculate the estimated post-acquisition value of an acquirer and the gains accrued to the target shareholders versus the acquirer shareholders.

1. Post-Merger Value of an Acquirer:  $V_{AT} = V_A + V_T + S - C$ , where  $V_{AT}$  is the post-merger value of the combined company,  $V_A$ ,  $V_T$  are acquirer and target,  $S$  is synergies, and  $C$  is the cash paid to target shareholders.
2. Gain Accrued to the Target:  $Gain_T = TP = \text{Takeover premium} = P_T - V_T$
3. Cash payment VS Stock payment
  - Cash payment: price is just the cash
  - Stock payment:  $P_T = N \times P_{AT}$  = number of new shares  $\times$  price per share of combined firm after the merger announcement.

Check the examples in notes. P306-Vol2

### 18.12 Explain how price and payment method affect the distribution of risks and benefits in M&A transactions

1. Effect of price: acquirer hopes buy low, target hopes to sell high.
2. Effect of Payment Method
  - Cash offer: acquirers assumes the risk and the potential reward.
  - Stock offer: some of the risk and potential rewards from the merger shift to the target.

### 18.13 Describe characteristics of M&A transactions that create value

1. Short term: target's stock price gains 30%, and acquirer's lose 1% 3%
  - Winner's curse: the firm who wins will overpay the most
  - Managerial hubris: managers overestimate the synergies and expected benefits.
2. Long term: Acquirers tend to underperform their peers
3. mergers enhance value for the acquirer
  - Strong buyer: acquirers that have strong performance in the prior 3 yrs.
  - Low premium
  - Few bidders
  - Favorable market reaction

### 18.14 Distinguish among equity carve-outs, spin-offs, split-offs and liquidation

Diverstitures: a company selling, liquidating, spinning off a division or subsidiary.

1. Equity carve-outs: create a new company. Shares are issued in public.
2. Spin-offs: create a new company. Shares are not issued to public but distributed to shareholders of parent company.
3. Liquidations: break up the firm, and sell assets.

### 18.15 Explain common reasons for restructuring

1. Division no longer fits into management's long-term strategy.
2. Lack of profitability
3. Individual parts are worth more than the whole.
4. Infusion of cash. Parents need money.

## 19 Reading 27: Equity Valuation: Applications and Process

### 19.1 Define valuation and intrinsic value and explain sources of perceived mispricing

Valuation assets, steps:

1. Understand the business
2. Forecast company performance
3. Select the appropriate valuation model
4. Convert the forecasts into a valuation.
5. Apply the valuation conclusions

Intrinsic value and actual intrinsic

$$IV_{analyst} - price = (IV_{actual} - price) + (IV_{analyst} - IV_{actual})$$

### 19.2 Explain the going concern assumption and contrast a going concern value to liquid value.

Going concern assumption: a company will continue to operate.

Liquidatio value: company will die.

### 19.3 Describe definitions of value and justify which definition of value is most relevant to public company valuation.

1. Intrinsic value: used for valuing public equities
2. Fair market value: the price that a hypothetical willing, informed, and able seller would trade an seet to a willing, informed, and able buyer.
3. Investment value: the value of a stock to a particular buyer. Some buyer's may have specific values for specific stocks.

Investment: intrinsic value is best. Acquisition: investment value is good.

## 19.4 Describe applications of equity valuation

Valuation: the process of estimating the value of an asset.

Methods: 1) Modeling 2) Comparing with similar assets

Uses:

1. Stock selection
2. Reading the market
3. Projecting the value of corporate actions
4. Fairness opinions
5. Planning and consulting
6. Communication with analysts and investors
7. Valuation of private business
8. Portfolio Management
  - Planning: plan investment strategy, select portfolios
  - Executing the investment plan

## 19.5 Describe questions that should be addressed in conducting an industry and competitive analysis

Five elements of industry structure (Porter's five forces)

1. Threat of new entrants in the industry
2. Threat of substitutes
3. Bargaining power of buyers
4. Bargaining power of suppliers
5. Rivalry among existing competitors

Three generic strategies to compete and generate profits

1. Cost leadership: being the lowest-cost producer of the good
2. Product differentiation
3. Focus:

Several problems may be encountered

1. Accelerating or premature recognition of income
2. Reclassifying gains and nonoperating income
3. Expense recognition and losses
4. Amortization, depreciation, and discount rates
5. Off-balance sheet issues: SPE, leases

## 19.6 Contrast absolute and relative valuation models and describe examples of each type of model

1. Absolute valuation models: determine an asset's intrinsic value
  - PV of all cash flows
  - Dividend discount models
  - free cash flow
  - residual income
  - Asset-based models: estimate a firm's value as the sum of the mkt value of the assets it owns.
2. Relative valuation models: Financial factor should be similar for similar companies, like P/E. P/E higher than others: overvalued.

## 19.7 Describe sum-of-the-parts valuation and conglomerate discounts

1. Sum-of-the-parts value: company operates multiple divisions. Analyst value individual parts and add them.
2. Conglomerate discount: investors apply a markdown to the value of a company that operates in many unrelated divisions.
 

Reason

  - Internal capital inefficiency
  - Endogenous(internal) factors
  - Research measurement errors: some hypothesize that this discount does not exist.

## 19.8 Explain broad criteria for choosing an appropriate approach for valuing a given company

Things to consider

1. Fits the characteristics of the company
2. appropriate based on the quality and availability of input data
3. suitable for the given purpose of the analysis

## 20 Reading 28: Return Concepts

### 20.1 Distinguish among realized holding period return, expected holding period return, required return, return from convergence of price to intrinsic value, discount rate and internal rate of return.

1. Holding Period Return:  $r = \frac{P_1 - P_0 + CF_1}{P_0} = \frac{P_1 + CF_1}{P_0} - 1$  If the CF is received before the end of the period,  $CF_1$  = the cash flow received and the interest earned.  
Holding period return is annualized.
2. Realized and Expected Holding Period Return  
Realized return: historical return based on past prices/Cf  
Expected return: forecast
3. Required return: minimum return an investor requires given the asset's risk.  
Also called Opportunity cost.  
Expected return greater(less) than required return → Undervalued(Overvalued)
4. Price Convergence: Expected return = required return +  $\frac{V_0 - P_0}{P_0}$



5. Discount Rate:

6. Internal Rate of Return: Rate that makes PV of CF = The current price of securities  
In efficient market, IRR=required return

## 20.2 Calculate and interpret an equity risk premium using historical and forward-looking estimation approaches

Background:

1. Equity risk premium: The return in excess of risk-free rate = required return on equity index - risk-free rate
2. Required return for individual stocks =  $r_{fr} + \beta_j \times (\text{equity risk premium})$

Estimates of The Equity Risk Premium:

1. Historical Estimates: use mean market return and mean rfr
  - Strength: Objectivity, simplicity, unbiased
  - Weakness: i) Assume mean/variable constant over time. ii) Biased by survivorship
2. Forward-Looking Estimates: use current information and expectations on economic/financial variables.
  - Strength: doesn't rely on stationary assumption; less influenced by survivorship.
  - Three model: Gordon growth, supply-side, estimate from surveys

Three main

1. Gordon Growth Model=constant growth model  
 GGM equity risk premium = (1-year forecasted dividend yield on mkt index) + (consensus long-term earnings growth rate) - (long-term government bond yield) =  $D_1/P + \hat{g} - r_{LT,0}$