

Topic 1: Forecasting Financial Statements

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Forecasting Financial Statements

- Pro forma statement analysis is the current tool for **forecasting future cash flows** and **financing needs** of a firm, since financial decisions are **inherently forward looking**
- Pro forma statements are 'make believe' **future projections** of income statements and balance sheets
- They are commonly prepared before major transactions or events, e.g. new projects, mergers or takeovers, capital restructuring, IPOs, etc.
- They help managers **formulate expectations** about the future based on current information

Pro Forma Statements

Assets	Liabilities + Equity
A	X
B	Y
C	Z

- Since $A + B + C = X + Y + Z$, in pro forma modelling a projected variable can be inferred if all other variables are directly projectable, i.e. $Z = A + B + C - (X + Y)$

Building a Pro Forma Statement

Step 1: Forecasting Sales

- Future sales depend on:
 - The economy
 - Industry and company prospects
 - New and existing projects
 - Marketing campaigns and customer preferences, etc.
- Inaccurate sales projection can lead to an **inability to meet demand** or **overexpansion** (excess capacity and debt, increased risk in cash flows)
- Forecasting sales growth rate:

- Compound: $g = \left(\frac{\text{sales}_{t+n}}{\text{sales}_t} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}} - 1$

- Arithmetic: $g = \frac{g_{t+1} + g_{t+2} + \dots + g_{t+n}}{n}$

- Log-level regression:

3. Log-Level Regression: $\ln(\text{sale}_t) = \alpha \times t$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial \ln(\text{sale})}{\partial t} = \alpha \Rightarrow \frac{\Delta \text{sale}}{\text{sale}} = \alpha \times \Delta t$$

If $\Delta t = 1$, then $\hat{g} = \alpha$

- Once you have the growth rate g , you then forecast sales:
 - $\text{Sales}_{t+n} = \text{Sales}_t \times (1 + g)^n$

Step 2: Forecasting Performance Ratios

- Pro forma statements are heavily reliant on **projected performance ratios**, since they are needed to forecast variables in the model based on projected sales
 - e.g. Projected COGS (aka COGS') = Sales' * COGS/Sales
- BUT:
 - Are historical ratios good representations of the future, i.e. can simple trends predict future ratios?
 - How do we revise ratios to reflect future operations and the economy, or adoption of new assets and technology?

Step 3: Building the Model

- We are assuming that **the most recent accounting ratios capture future expectations**
- Also we (usually) assume that **financial slack** (i.e. surplus cash or debt opportunities available to take up investment opportunities) will be used for short term investments - refer to 'the plug' later on
- Assume **financial deficit is raised with short term debt** (notes payable) - also refer to 'the plug' later on
- So, for example, given projections:
 - COGS' = Sales' * COGS/Sales, i.e. we assume that the ratio remains the same
 - Taxes' = Max(0, EBIT' * T)
 - Common Dividend Payout' = Max(0, Payout ratio * Net Income')
 - Increases in Retained profits' = Net income' - Common Div' - Pref Div'
- To calculate **projected depreciation expense**:

$$Deprec' = \frac{Deprec.}{Cost Prop Plant Equip} \times Cost Prop Plant Equip'$$

$$Cost of Prop Plant Equip' = sales' \times \frac{Net Prop Plant Equip}{Sales} + AccumDeprec'$$

$$AccumDeprec' = AccumDeprec + Deprec'$$

Solving for *Deprec'* gives:

$$Deprec' = \frac{Deprec.}{Cost Prop Plant Equip} \times \frac{[Net Prop Plant Equip' + AccumDeprec]}{\left[1 - \frac{Deprec.}{Cost Prop Plant Equip}\right]}$$

Financial Slack or Deficit: The Plug

- It is most likely that a pro forma balance sheet **will not balance**; either projected assets will be higher than projected liabilities + equity or vice versa
 - This is because greater projected sales can trigger **increases in projected investments**, resulting in a projected **financial deficit** (assets > L + E)
 - Alternatively, higher projected sales will **increase projected profits**, raising retained profits, resulting in a projected **financial surplus** (assets < L + E)
- Hence we introduce **the 'plug'** which is a financial policy variable used to close the model and balance the pro forma balance sheet

- Plug = Total assets - total liabilities - equity
- **If plug > 0**, projection is that the firm will **require external financing** of the amount equal to the plug (which our assumptions say is financed with short-term debt)
- **If plug < 0**, then the projection is that the firm will **have financial slack** (which our assumptions say is to be rolled into short-term investments)
 - e.g. a negative plug implies that the investments in operating assets required to sustain higher projected sales is more than offset by the greater earnings from this increase
- Our assumptions stated that financial deficit is financed with short term debt, hence:
 - Notes payable' = Notes payable + plug (**if plug > 0**)
- Alternatively financial surpluses are rolled into short term investments, hence:
 - Short term investments' = Short term investments + |plug| (**if plug < 0**)

Additional Funds Needed (AFN)

- It is a 'back of envelope' calculation especially useful if **performance ratios are constant** to easily work out **how much extra debt needs to be financed** (or **how much financial slack** will be available)

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Additional} \\ \text{Funds} \\ \text{Needed (AFN)} \end{array} = \begin{array}{l} \text{Required} \\ \text{Increase} \\ \text{in Assets} \end{array} - \begin{array}{l} \text{Increase in} \\ \text{Spontaneous} \\ \text{Liabilities} \end{array} - \begin{array}{l} \text{Increase in} \\ \text{Retained} \\ \text{Earnings} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Required} \\ \text{Increase} \\ \text{in Assets} \end{array} = \text{sale} \times g \times \left(\frac{\text{Cash}}{\text{Sale}} + \frac{\text{Acc. Receiv.}}{\text{Sale}} + \frac{\text{Inv.}}{\text{Sale}} + \frac{\text{NetPPE}}{\text{Sale}} \right)$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Increase in} \\ \text{Spontaneous} \\ \text{Liabilities} \end{array} = \text{sale} \times g \times \left(\frac{\text{Acc. Pay.}}{\text{Sale}} + \frac{\text{Accruals}}{\text{Sale}} \right)$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Increase in} \\ \text{Retained} \\ \text{Earnings} \end{array} = \text{sale} \times (1 + g) \times \left(\frac{\text{Net Income}}{\text{Sale}} \right) \times (1 - \text{payout}) - \text{Pref. Div}$$

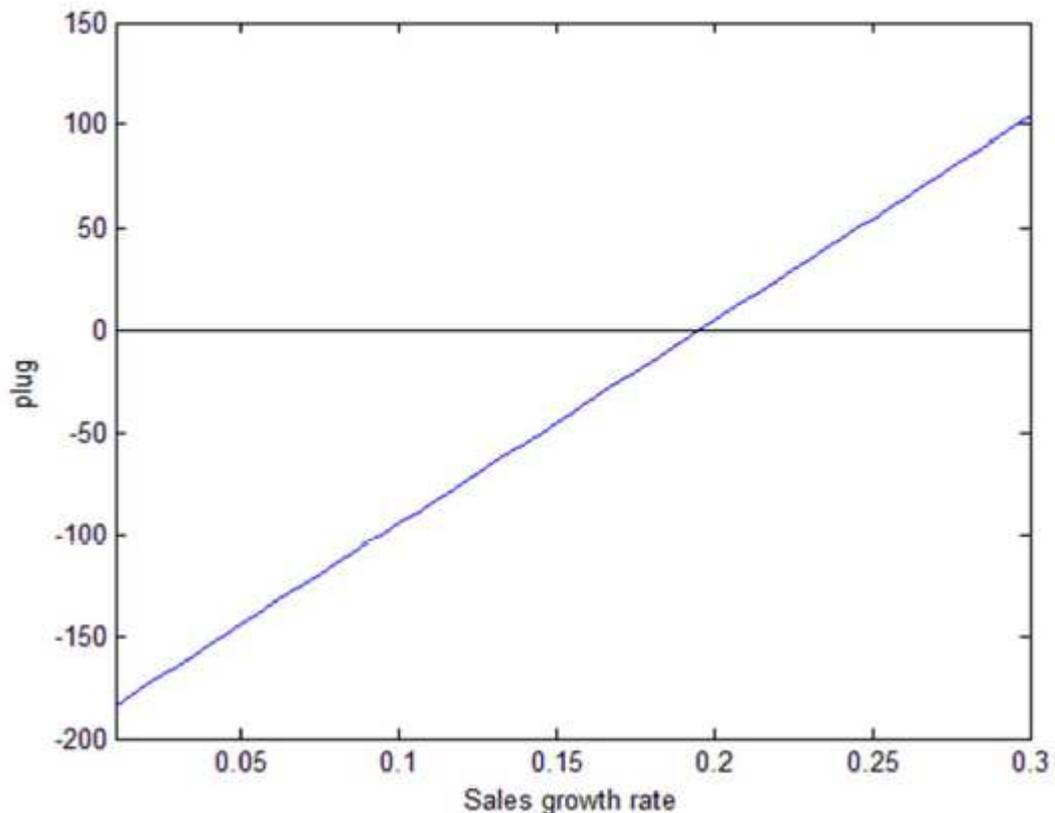
- If AFN is positive, **required assets > required L + E** = financial deficit
 - If negative, **required assets < required L + E** = financial surplus
- Ideally, a pro forma statement is more accurate and in-depth as it **forecasts the entire financial statement**
 - It offers more information and is more flexible for **changing ratios** allowing **more realistic market conditions**

Step 4: Analysing the Model

- Once the initial projection is finished, it needs to be analysed for correctness, performance, robustness, sensitivity, risk, etc.
- **Robustness (correctness) checks:**
 - Models are prone to errors and are only as good as the assumptions made
 - Analysing helps identify these errors and minimising the impacts of these errors
- **Sensitivity analysis:**

- Investigation of the model in relation to a model input, i.e. how sensitive is the plug if we change specific ratios or, more importantly, sales growth
- This can be extrapolated to work out the sensitivity of short term debt or financial slack to the sales growth rate

(4) JT Ltd. Example: Plug value vs Sales growth



- In example above, we see that if sales growth is less than 19.5%, the plug is negative and therefore there is a projected financial surplus
 - If sales growth is greater than 19.5% the plug is positive which means there is a projected financial deficit
- **What-if analysis:** can be done on any other input or assumption of the model
- **Scenario analysis:** can be done on any set of inputs or assumptions (what-if analysis only changes one input)
- Plug can be remodelled with changes to dividend payout policy, borrowing rates, capital restructuring, etc.

Topic 2: Cost of Capital

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Defining the Cost of Capital

- **Investors provide capital** to the firm (through bonds or shares) in exchange for **financial gains**
 - The manager is responsible for delivering these gains
- The cost of capital is the return which **adequately compensates the investors** for investing in the company's securities
- If the **actual return exceeds the cost of capital**, then the manager has succeeded in delivering adequate returns and has **created firm value**
- Two main meanings in corporate finance:
 - **Hurdle rate**: Minimum rate of return on a **specific project** given its **market risk**, i.e. discount rate used to calculate NPV
 - Company's **overall cost of capital**: composite return required from the **firm's assets** given overall systematic risk
 - AKA **Weighted Average Cost of Capital (WACC)**: return demanded by investors given overall amount of systematic risk in the firm's securities
- Since a company can be seen as a **portfolio of real assets** or a **portfolio of financial securities**
 - The operating risk of the firm is equal to the portfolio risk of the financial securities of the firm
 - The return required from real assets = return required from financial securities
 - Therefore **cost of capital = market determined required return on portfolio of firm's securities**
- We then calculate the WACC based off the three main sources of capital for a firm; **debt, preferred equity and common equity**
- Other considerations of long term capital for WACC calculation
 - **Accruals**: e.g. accounts payable, deferred taxes, are accounted for by free cash flows (remember net working capital) in project analysis and **should not affect cost of capital**
 - **Retained earnings**: treated as part of equity capital
 - **Taxes**: accounted for by cost of capital, i.e. $r_D(1-T_c)$
- Companies are subject to **prevailing market conditions** when capital is raised
 - Since market conditions are constantly changing, **cost of capital must change** to reflect **required returns on new capital** even if the firm does not plan on raising capital
 - Implication is that when making corporate decisions, historical cost of capital is not important

Cost of Debt, r_D

- To determine the cost of debt, need to know prevailing yield in the bond market
- If the company's bonds are **private**, use the **market yield** on bonds with a **similar credit rating**
- **Taxes**: ATO allows interest expense to be a cost of running a business, hence they are **tax deductible**, reducing the overall tax burden of the company:
 - **After tax cost of debt** = $r_D \times (1 - T_c)$
- (Yield to maturity is the rate of return that investors in the market are pricing to value the bond - same equation as FINS1613)
- Raising new debt capital will also incur **flotation costs**, so the new price of bonds is:

$$B \times (1 - f_D) = C \times \left[\frac{1 - \frac{1}{(1 + ytm)^T}}{ymt} \right] + F \times \frac{1}{(1 + ytm)^T}$$

- where f_D is the debt flotation cost as a percentage of funds raised

Cost of Preferred Equity, r_p

- Preferred equity is a form of equity which pays out a **fixed dividend**
 - In this way it is **similar to debt** interest repayments, however they are treated as equity and can be deferred
- **Dividend discount model:**
 - $P = \frac{Div_p}{r_p} \rightarrow r_p = \frac{Div_p}{P}$
- Preferred **flotation costs**, f_p , must be included if they are large
 - $r_p = \frac{Div_p}{P(1 - f_p)}$
- Empirical evidence shows that for some companies, $r_D > r_p$, which doesn't make sense since debt should have lower risk than equity
 - This could be explained by the fact that preferred equity dividend payments are not tax deductible (unlike debt payments), which means their after-tax cost of preferred shares is still higher than after-tax cost of debt

Cost of Equity, r_E

- Two sources of equity capital:
 - Issuance of **new shares**
 - Internal capital, i.e. **retained earnings**

Method A: Dividend discount model: $S_0 = \frac{D_1}{r_E - g}$

- $r_E = \frac{D_1}{S_0} + g$
- Adjusting for equity **flotation costs**, f_E :
 - $r_E = \frac{D_1}{S_0(1 - f_E)} + g$
- This method is useful if growth is expected to remain constant **and will resemble past growth rates**
 - To forecast dividend growth from historical data:

- compound growth rate:

$$div_{t+n} = (1 + g)^n \times div_t$$

- Arithmetic growth rate:

$$g = \frac{g_{t+1} + g_{t+2} + \dots + g_{t+n}}{n}$$

- Log-Level Regression:

$$\ln(div_t) = \alpha + g \times t$$

- **Earnings retention model:** $g = \text{retention rate} \times ROE$

Method B: CAPM Approach: $r_E = r_f + \beta_E(r_M - r_f)$

- r_f : risk-free rate, i.e. forecast of yield on long-term government bonds
- r_M : forecast of the return on the market portfolio, usually calculated with broad market indexes
- $r_M - r_f$: forecast of the **market risk premium**
- If firm equity risk is expected to remain constant, equity beta can be estimated based off historical returns:

$$\widehat{\beta}_E = \frac{Cov(r_E, r_M)}{Var(r_M)}$$

- When we calculate beta, we assume **equity risk is constant** and that we are able to **estimate using historical returns**
- For firms with **illiquid stocks**, e.g. nano-caps (firms with market capitalisation < \$50 million) or younger firms, the stock price **trails market movements**, so a **lagged market risk premium** is added
 - **Dimson's correction:**

$$r_{E,t} = r_{f,t} + \beta_{E,1} \times (r_{M,t} - r_{f,t}) + \beta_{E,2} \times (r_{M,t-1} - r_{f,t-1})$$

$$\widehat{\beta}_E = \widehat{\beta}_{E,1} + \widehat{\beta}_{E,2}$$

- Adjusting for flotation costs:
 - Let r_e' be the cost of equity adjusted for flotation costs (see above)
 - The difference between r_e' and r_e is added to the CAPM model:

CAPM approach adjusted for flotation cost:

$$r_E = r_f + \beta_E \times (r_M - r_f) + \zeta$$

Forecasting the Equity Premium, $r_M - r_f$

- **Method A:** dividend discount model:

$\widehat{r}_M - r_f$: Forecasted equity risk premium

Div_{MKT} : current dividend from the market index

MKT : current level of the market index

$\frac{Div_{MKT}}{MKT}$: Current dividend yield of the market index

g_{MKT} : Div_{MKT} growth rate

Div_{MKT}, MKT are observable. g_{MKT} is forecasted by analysts or predicted from statistical models.

Then, applying the constant dividend growth model

$$MKT = \frac{Div_{MKT} \times (1 + g_{MKT})}{\widehat{r}_M - g_{MKT}}$$

Implies that a forecasted for the equity risk premium is

$$\Rightarrow \widehat{r}_M - r_f = \frac{Div_{MKT} \times (1 + g_{MKT})}{MKT} + g_{MKT} - r_f$$

- **Method B:** assume a reasonable equity premium
- **Method C:** rely on economic forecasts

WACC: Overall Cost of Capital

- **Weighted Average Cost of Capital:**
 - $WACC = w_D \times r_D \times (1 - T) + w_P \times r_P + w_E \times r_E$
- The firm's WACC is the correct cost of capital for a project if it has the **same amount of systematic risk as the rest of the firm**
- If systematic risk is different, there are three other ways to find cost of capital:
 - **Pure Play Method:** rely on the WACC of pure players, i.e. other firms or divisions who specialise in only that type of project
 - **Accounting Method:** calculate divisional beta by regressing historical ROA on the risk premium
 - **Risk-adjusted method:** simply add or subtract the WACC by a particular amount depending on the project's systematic risk