2. FINANCIAL MATHEMATICS

Multiple future cash flows

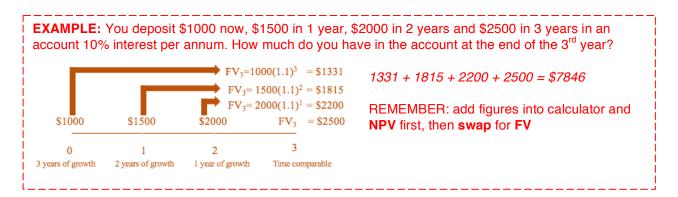
Value Additivity: cash today cannot simply be added to cash tomorrow as CFs occur at different times

- Mixed stream irregular (unstable) cash flows
- Therefore, you must **convert multiple CFs into a single equivalent cash flow** (CFs should be carried forward, accumulated, or back in time, discounted)

Future Value of a Mixed Stream

The approach to calculating the FV of a known mixed stream involves a 2 step process and requires value additivity

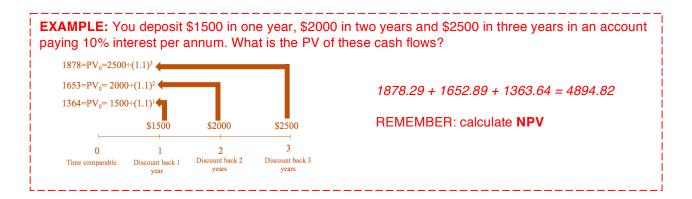
- 1. Calculate the FV of each future amount to be received at a comparable point in time
- 2. Sum all future values at a comparable point in time together to determine the future value of the known mixed stream



Present value of a Mixed Stream

Calculating PV also requires value additivity

- 1. Calculate the PV of each future amount to be received at a comparable point (normally t = 0)
- 2. Sum all PVs at a comparable point in time to determine the PV of the known mixed stream



Perpetuities

Perpetuity: a cash flow stream of equal amounts, equally spaced in time (fixed regular payment, received at fixed points in time forever)

NOTE: as the formula calculates PV at year 0, if there is a CF in year 0, add it onto the figure found using the formula

$$PV_{\infty} = \frac{CF}{i}$$

where

CF = the cash flow per period (i.e. the payment),

i = the interest rate per period.

Note: The formula values cash flows ONE period BEFORE the first cash flow

EXAMPLE: government security promises to pay \$3 pa forever. If the interest rate is 10% pa and a payment of \$3 has just been made, how much is the security worth?

$$C = $3, i = 10\%$$

$$PV = \frac{CF}{i} = \frac{3}{0.1} = $30$$

Note: as the \$3 has already been made, it is disregarded, and not included

EXAMPLE: government security promises to pay \$3 pa forever. If the interest rate is 10% pa and a payment of \$3 is made tomorrow, how much is the security worth?

$$PV = \frac{CF}{i} + C$$

$$=\frac{3}{0.1}+3=$33.00$$

Note: as the \$3 is made in year 0, it needs to be added to the calculation

EXAMPLE: Earn \$500 per year forever, with the first payment two years from today.

$$PV = \frac{\text{C/i}}{1+\text{i}} = \frac{\$500/0.08}{1.08} = \$5,787.04$$

Timeline

The first CF is in year 2 - so the perpetuity formula will give the PV of year 1. This PV must be discounted back to year 0 using the simple PV formula.

$$PV = \frac{CF}{i}$$
 then $PV = \frac{FV}{(1+i)^n}$

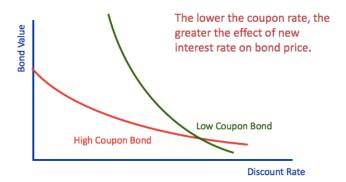
EXAMPLE: \$2420 per year forever, with the first payment 3 years from today.

$$PV = \frac{\text{C/i}}{(1+\text{i})^2} = \frac{\$2,420/0.08}{1.08^2} = \$25,934.50$$

Timeline

NOTE: Perpetuity Due
$$\Rightarrow$$
 $PV = PMT + \frac{PMT}{i}$

2. Level of coupon → the *lower the coupon rate*, the **greater** the effect of the new interest rate through compounding (lower coupon bonds *more price sensitive*; firm pays you less so less immune to changes in the economy)



- 3. **Default risk** → as default risk rises, the value of a bond will **fall**
 - Risk for investors that the bond issuer may default on the bond's cash flow (coupon payments, repayment of bond at maturity)
 - The financial health of a company is assessed to determine the chance of defaulting → these assessments are summarised by credit ratings, which are provided by rating agencies such as S&P and Moody's
 - The higher the market's assessment of the probability of default, the higher the requires rate of return on the debt

Shares

Equity securities are a company's *certificates of ownership*.

- More than \$1.14 trillion worth of public equity securities were outstanding in Australia in March 2010 44% of the adult population either own shares *directly* or indirectly (superannuation)
- Outstanding shares of a company are bought and sold among investors in the secondary market
 - Active secondary markets enable companies to sell their new debt/equity issues at lower funding costs & also provide investors with fairly priced shares

Share valuation

Value of share = **PV of future cash flows** (but more complex due to uncertainty of CFs & no maturity)

Expected cash flows received from a share are all future dividends (consider dividend growth!)

Two approaches to share valuation – dividend valuation & earnings per share (EPS):

- <u>Valuation based on dividends</u> = dividends are discounted to a present value for share valuation
- <u>Valuation based on earnings (EPS)</u> = earnings are capitalised into a share value using a *price-earnings ratio*

1) CONSTANT DIVIDEND VALUATION

The constant dividend assumption is the simplest – this is where dividends are **constant** (ie preference share) so the *perpetuity formula* can be applied \rightarrow typically undertaken by mature firms who have constant profits

$$P_0 = \frac{D}{R}$$

EXAMPLE: Worley Ltd is expected to pay a constant annual dividend of \$2.50 per share indefinitely. If the discount rate is 8% what is the share value?

$$P_0 = \frac{D}{R} = \frac{2.50}{0.08} = $31.25$$

2) CONSTANT DIVIDEND GROWTH VALUATION

This is where dividends are expected to grow at a constant rate *indefinitely* (more realistic) → typically younger firms who are experiencing growth

$$P_0 = \frac{D_0 (1+g)}{(R-g)}$$

where g = expected growth rate in dividend per share

EXAMPLE: Coco Ltd has just paid an annual dividend of \$0.30 per share which will grow at 5% indefinitely. RRoR is 8%, find share value

$$P_0 = \frac{D_0(1+g)}{(R-g)} = \frac{0.30(1+0.05)}{(0.08-0.05)} = \$10.50$$

[Note: D_0 is current dividends; if dividends are to be paid in 1 year, then don't use $D_0(1+g)$, just use D_1]

3) VARIABLE DIVIDEND GROWTH VALUATION

This allows for different growth rates – dividends may grow at a high rate for a number of years, but not indefinitely (this valuation assumes dividends will grow constantly, some time in the future)

EXAMPLE: Dave Ltd just paid a \$0.50 annual dividend. The RRoR on Dave's shares is 10%. Exceptional growth is forecasted for Dave Ltd for the next 3 years at 12% pa. After year 3, growth rate (g) will settle at 5% indefinitely. What is the value of Dave Ltd shares today?

$$P_{0} = \frac{D_{0}(1+g')}{(1+R)} + \frac{D_{0}(1+g')^{2}}{(1+R)^{2}} + \frac{D_{0}(1+g')^{3}}{(1+R)^{3}} + \frac{1}{(1+R)^{3}} \times \frac{D_{0}(1+g')^{3}(1+g)}{(R-g)}$$

The first three terms account for the higher 12% growth (first three dividends), while the fourth term accounts for the all dividends thereafter (lower 5% growth).

$$P_{0} = \frac{D_{0}(1+g')}{(1+R)} + \frac{D_{0}(1+g')^{2}}{(1+R)^{2}} + \frac{D_{0}(1+g')^{3}}{(1+R)^{3}} \qquad P_{0} = \frac{\$0.50(1.12)}{1.10} + \frac{\$0.50(1.12)^{2}}{(1.10)^{2}} + \frac{\$0.50(1.12)^{3}}{(1.10)^{3}} + \frac{1}{(1+R)^{3}} \times \frac{D_{0}(1+g')^{3}(1+g)}{(R-g)} + \frac{1}{(1.10)^{3}} \frac{\$0.50(1.12)^{3}1.05}{(0.10-0.05)} = \$12.64$$

The value of Dave Ltd's shares is \$12.64

Note: 1/(1 + R)3 discounts the dividends from year 3 onwards, as the PV found for those is PV3

Constant chain of replacement

To compare projects with different lives, we replicate mutually exclusively projects over time

The replacement chains are continued until both chains are of equal length

Two methods:

- Lowest common multiple
- Perpetuity method

[1] Lowest common multiple

- if Machine A has a life of 5 years and B has a life of 3 years, the lowest common multiple is 15 yrs
- Machine A is replicated *3 times* and machine B is replicated *5 times* the PV of the costs of both machines over *15yrs* are then compared

[2] Perpetuity method

- Both projects are replicated forever the chains are then "equally lengthy" as both are infinite
- Is easier to use

NPV
$$\infty$$
 = $NPV + \frac{NPV}{(1+k)^t} + \frac{NPV}{(1+k)^{2t}} + \dots$
= $NPV \left[1 + \frac{1}{(1+k)^t} + \frac{1}{(1+k)^{2t}} + \dots \right]$
= $NPV \left[\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{(1+k)^t}} \right] = NPV \frac{(1+k)^t}{(1+k)^t - 1}$

EXAMPLE: Using the prior example, where PV(costs of A) = \$664,949 where t = 4 and k = 0.13

$$PV(A)\infty = $664 949 \times \frac{(1.13)^4}{(1.13)^4 - 1}$$

= \$1 719 631

PV(Costs of B) = \$499 283; t = 2 and k = 0.13
PV(B)
$$\infty$$
 = \$499 283 $\times \frac{(1.13)^2}{(1.13)^2 - 1}$
= \$2 302 400

For an infinite chain of replacement, the costs of Machine B (\$.23m) are greater than costs fo A (\$1.7m) so should choose machine A

Equivalent Annual Value (EAV)

What amount, to be received for n years, is equivalent to receiving the NPV of a project whose life is n years?

$$NPV = \frac{EAV}{k} \left(1 - \frac{1}{(1+k)^t} \right) \qquad \longrightarrow \qquad EAV = \frac{NPV}{\frac{1}{k} \left(1 - \frac{1}{(1+k)^t} \right)}$$

1. The PV of a perpetual stream of EAV's is given by:

$$PV = \frac{EAV}{k} \longrightarrow \frac{EAV}{\frac{1}{k} \left(1 - \frac{1}{(1+k)^{k}}\right)} \longrightarrow PV = \left(\frac{1}{k}\right) \frac{NPV}{\frac{1}{k} \left(1 - \frac{1}{(1+k)^{k}}\right)}$$

2. EAV and NPV:

$$PV = NPV \frac{1}{\left(1 - \frac{1}{\left(1 + k\right)^t}\right)}$$
$$= NPV \frac{\left(1 + k\right)^t}{\left(1 + k\right)^t - 1}$$
$$= NPV \infty$$

Note that the EAV and the perpetual chain of replacement methods are **equivalents** in regard to choosing a project

$$EAV = k \times NPV \infty$$

3. EAV and EAC:

- The principle of EAV is also applicable in the context of comparing the cost of investments of different lives (the *equivalent annual costs EAC*)
- EAC reflects the **annuity cost** that has the *same present value* as the NCFs of an investment over the investment period we are considering

$$EAC_{i} = kNPV_{i} \left[\frac{(1+k)^{t}}{(1+k)^{t}-1} \right]$$

Where:

k is the opportunity cost of capital, NPVi is the normal NPV of the investment i, t is the life of the investment

EXAMPLE: Where you are considering replacing your old Nissan with a new Toyota (r = 3%);

- Annual maintenance costs for Nissan = \$1500
- Annual maintenance costs of Toyota = \$200
- Price of Toyota = 15yrs & remaining life of Nissan = 3 years

NPV (Toyota) = 18,000 + 200 x
$$\frac{1 - (1.03)^{-15}}{0.03}$$
 = \$20,387.59

EAC of Toyota = 0.03 x 20,387.59 x
$$\frac{(1.03)^{15}}{1.03^{15}-1}$$
 = \$1707.80

EAC of new car > \$1500 SO the Nissan should be used for 3 more years (then buy Toyota)

Risk measures

Risk is the uncertainty of future outcomes or the probability of an adverse outcome

Alternatively it is a chance of financial loss (the variability of returns associated with an asset)

Variance =
$$Var(R) = \frac{1}{T-1}[(R_1 - \overline{R})^2 + (R_2 - \overline{R})^2 + ... + (R_T - \overline{R})^2]$$
 or $Var(R) = \sigma^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n [R_i - E(R)]^2 p_i$

where, $p_i = \frac{1}{T-1}$

Standard deviation = $SD(R) = \sqrt{Var(R)}$

EXAMPLE: What is the standard deviation and variance for the following investment?

year 1: 19%

 \rightarrow sd = 0.26 & var = 0.0677 year 2: 20%

year 3: -30%

year 4: 26%

EXAMPLE: Yearly returns for the following investment?

Year	Price	Dividend	Returns
1	31.64	0.1	-
2	32.09	0.1	0.0173831
3	34.99	0.17	0.0956684
4	23.02	0.17	-0.337239

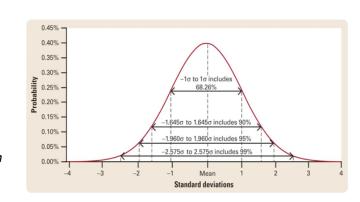
- (1) Average (do on calculator) sum/number years = -0.0747
- (2) HPR = (1 + 0.0174)(1 + 0.0957)(1 0.3372) 1 = 0.739
- (3) SD = 0.2307 // Var = 0.05322

Normal distribution

Normal distribution: is completely described by its most likely outcome μ (mean) and σ (standard deviation)

Standard deviation = chance of getting around the average

- 68.26% chance that you get 1 SD around the mean
- 95% chance you get 2 SD below/above the mean



EXAMPLE: exam marks are normally distributed with $\mu = 70\%$ and $\sigma = 10\%$

- (1) What percentage of student marks lie within 1 standard deviation from the mean?
 - 68.26% of student marks lie between 60% and 80%.
- (2) Between what bounds do we have 90% of the marks?
 - 90% of students lie between:
 - o 70% (1.645*10%) AND 70% + (1.645*10%)
 - o Bounds are 53.55% and 86.45%