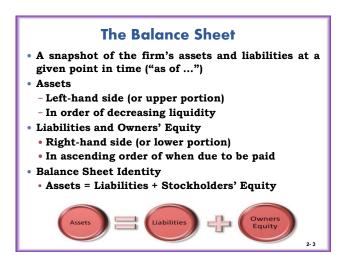
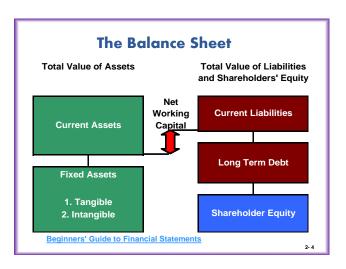
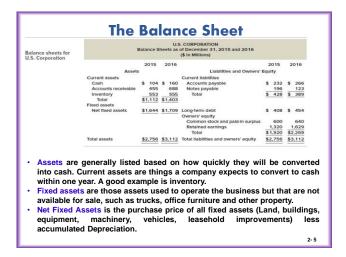
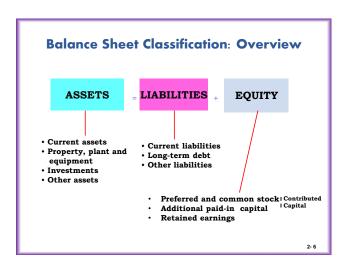


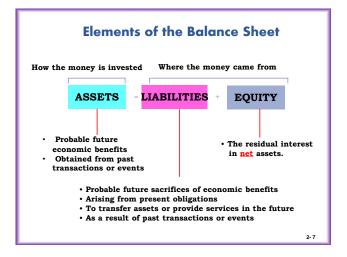
Learning Objectives After studying this chapter, you should be able to: LO1 Differentiate between accounting value (or "book" value) and market value. LO2 Distinguish accounting income from cash flow. LO3 Explain the difference between average and marginal tax rates. LO4 Determine a firm's cash flow from its financial











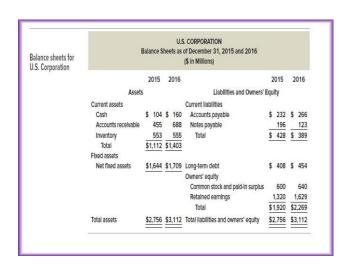
The Balance Sheet Net working capital Current Assets minus Current Liabilities Usually positive for a healthy firm NWC = Current Assets - Current Liabilities Liquidity Speed and ease of conversion to cash without significant loss of value Valuable in avoiding financial distress

Concept of Liquidity

- Ability to convert to cash quickly without a significant loss in value
- Liquid firms are less likely to experience financial distress
- But liquid assets typically earn a lower return
- Trade-off to find balance between liquid and illiquid assets



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Debt versus Equity
Shareholders' Equity = Assets - Liabilities
Versus
Book Value Market Value

The balance sheet provides the book value of the assets, liabilities, and equity.

Market value is the price at which the assets, liabilities, or equity can actually be bought or sold.

- Market value and book value are often very different. Why?
- 2. Which is more important to the decision-making process?

Book versus Market

- Current assets and liabilities generally have book values and market values that are very close. This is not necessarily the case with the other assets, liabilities, and equity of the firm.
- Assets are listed at historical costs less accumulated depreciation – this may bear little resemblance to what they could actually be sold for today
- Liabilities are listed at face value. When interest rates change or the risk of the firm changes, the value of those liabilities change in the market as well. This is especially true for longer-term liabilities.

Book versus Market

- Equity is the ownership interest in the firm. The market value of equity (stock price times number of shares) depends on the future growth prospects of the firm and on the market's estimation of the current value of ALL of the assets of the firm.
- The best estimate of the market value of the firm's assets is market value of liabilities + market value of equity.
- Market values are generally more important for the decision making process because they are more reflective of the cash flows that would occur today.

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Different Definitions of Value Reviewed

· Intrinsic value

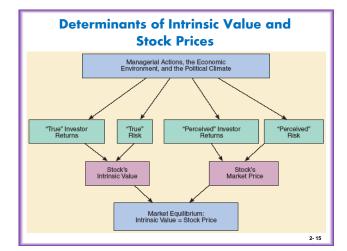
Stock valuation based on an individual's expected free cash flows

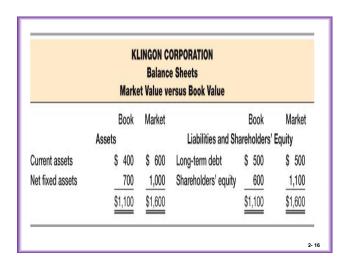
Market value

- · Market price is the value quoted in the market.
- Based on aggregate market's expectations and is set by the marginal investor. It is the marginal investor's intrinsic value.

· Fundamental Value

- This is the intrinsic value an analyst would calculate given complete and accurate information about a company's expected future free cash flows and risk.
- · Also called true intrinsic value.
- Market value may not equal fundamental value over short term, but will tend towards it over the long term.





Income Statement

- The income statement measures performance over a specified period of time (period, quarter, year).
- Report revenues first and then deduct any expenses for the period
- End result = Net Income = "Bottom Line"
 - Dividends paid to shareholders
 - Addition to retained earnings
- Income Statement Equation:
 - Net Income = Revenue Expenses

TABLE 2.2 U.S. CORPORATION 2016 Income Statement Income statement for (\$ in Millions) U.S. Corporation \$1,509 Net sales Cost of goods sold 750 Depreciation \$ 694 Earnings before interest and taxes Interest paid 70 Taxable Income \$ 624 Taxes 212 \$ 412 Net Income Dividends \$103 Addition to retained earnings 309 2- 18

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Noncash Items

- A primary reason that accounting income differs from cash flow is that an income statement contains noncash items.
- The most important of these is depreciation.
- Suppose a firm purchases a fixed asset for \$5,000 and pays in cash. Obviously, the firm has a \$5,000 cash outflow at the time of purchase. However, instead of deducting the \$5,000 as an expense, an accountant might depreciate the asset over a five-year period.
- If the depreciation is straight-line and the asset is written down to zero over that period, then \$5,000/5 = \$1,000 would be deducted each year as an expense.
- The important thing to recognize is that this \$1,000 deduction isn't cash—it's an accounting number. The actual cash outflow occurred when the asset was purchased.

Time and Costs

- It is often useful to think of the future as having two distinct parts: the short run and the long run.
- · The distinction has to do with whether costs are fixed or variable.
- The distinction between fixed and variable costs is important, at times, to the financial manager, but the way costs are reported on the income statement is not a good guide as to which costs are which.
- Accountants tend to classify costs as either product costs or period costs.
- Product costs include such things as raw materials, direct labor expense, and manufacturing overhead. These are reported on the income statement as costs of goods sold, but they include both fixed and variable costs.
- Similarly, period costs are incurred during a particular time period and might be reported as selling, general, and administrative expenses

Earnings and Dividend Per Share

EARNINGS AND DIVIDENDS PER SHARE

Suppose U.S. had 200 million shares outstanding at the end of 2014. Based on the income statement on Slide 18, what was EPS? What were dividends per share?

From the income statement, U.S. had a net income of \$412 million for the year. Total dividends were \$103 million. Since 200 million shares were outstanding, we can calculate earnings per share and dividends per share as follows:

Earnings per share = Net income/ Total shares outstanding

= \$412/200 = \$2,06 per share

Dividends per share = Total dividends/ Total shares outstanding

= \$103/200 = \$.515 per share

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Financial Statements

DEFINITION of 'Generally Accepted Accounting Principles - GAAP' The common set of accounting principles, standards and procedures that companies use to compile their financial statements. GAAP are a combination of authoritative standards (set by policy boards) and simply the commonly accepted ways of recording and reporting accounting information.

- GAAP Matching Principle:
 - Recognize revenue when it is fully earned
 - Match expenses required to generate revenue to the period of recognition
- Noncash Items
 - Expenses charged against revenue that do not affect cash flow
 - Depreciation = most important

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Financial Statements

- Time and Costs
 - Fixed or variable costs
 - Not obvious on income statement
- Earnings Management
 - Smoothing earnings
 - GAAP leaves "wiggle room"
 - Global standardization of accounting
 - GAAP versus International Financial Reporting Standards

Taxes

- The one thing we can rely on with taxes is that they are always changing!
- We must distinguish between marginal vs. average tax rates - See next slide
 - Other taxes
 - > State
 - Local (City or Town)

Will vary by countries

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Corporate Progressive Taxes

- Marginal Tax Rate: The tax rate you would pay if you had one more taxable dollar
- Average Tax Rate: The tax rate you are paying on all of your taxable income which averages across all of your corporate tax categories

Taxable Income	Tax Rate	TABLE 2.3		
\$ 0- 50,000	15%	Corporate tax rate		
50,001- 75,000	25			
75,001- 100,000	34			
100,001- 335,000	39			
335,001- 10,000,000	34			
10,000,001- 15,000,000	35			
15,000,001- 18,333,333	38			
18,333,334+	35			

Example: Marginal Vs. Average Rates

- Suppose your firm earns \$4 million in taxable income.
 - What is the firm's tax liability?
 - What is the average tax rate?
 - What is the marginal tax rate?
- If you are considering a project that will increase the firm's taxable income by \$1 million, what tax rate should you use in your analysis?

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Tax on \$4 million

Tax Liability on \$4,000,000 Corporate Tax Rate

Corporate Tax Rates					Taxable		Tax	
Taxable Income Levels			Tax Rate	_	Income	Liability		
\$	-	\$	50,000	15%	\$	50,000	\$	7,500
\$	50,001	\$	75,000	25%	\$	25,000	\$	6,250
\$	75,001	\$	100,000	34%	\$	25,000	\$	8,500
\$	100,001	\$	335,000	39%	\$	235,000	\$	91,650
\$	335,001	\$	10,000,000	34%	\$:	3,665,000	\$	1,246,100
\$	10,000,001	\$	15,000,000	35%				
\$	15,000,001	\$	18,333,333	38%				
\$	18,333,334		-	35%				
					\$	4,000,000	\$	1,360,000

Average Rate = 34%

Marginal Rate = 34%

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The Concept of Cash Flow

- Cash flow = one of the most important pieces of information that can be derived from financial statements
- The accounting Statement of Cash Flows does <u>not</u> provide the same information that we are interested in here
- Our focus: how cash is generated from utilizing assets and how it is paid to those who finance the asset purchase.

Cash Flow From Assets

- Cash Flow From Assets (CFFA)
 - = Operating Cash Flow (OCF)
 - Net Capital Spending (NCS)
 - Changes in NWC (ΔNWC)
- Cash Flow From Assets (CFFA)
 - = Cash Flow to Creditors (CF/CR)
 - + Cash Flow to Stockholders (CF/SH)

ost of goods s Depreciation arnings before interest and taxes \$624 212 Net Income \$412 **CFFA** = OCF - NCS - ANWC OCF = EBIT + depreciation - taxes **= \$694 + 65 - 212 = \$547** NCS = ending net FA- beginning net FA + depreciation **= \$1709 - 1644 + 65 = \$130** ANWC = ending NWC - beginning NWC = (\$1403 - 389) - (\$1112 - 428) = \$330 CFFA = 547 - 130 - 330 = \$87 2- 30

Example: U.S. Corporation

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| U.S. Corporation | U.S. Corpor

Cash Flow Summary The cash flow identity Cash flow from assets = Cash flow to creditors (bondholders) + Cash flow to stockholders (owners) Cash flow from assets Cash flow from assets = Operating cash flow Net capital spending Change in net working capital (NWC) Operating cash flow = Earnings before interest and taxes (EBIT) + Depreciation - Taxes Net capital spending = Ending net fixed assets - Beginning net fixed assets + Depreciation Change in NWC= Ending NWC - Beginning NWC Cash flow to creditors (bondholders) Cash flow to creditors = Interest paid - Net new borrowing Cash flow to stockholders (owners) Cash flow to stockholders = Dividends paid - Net new equity raised