

Last time

- Talked about arbitrage
 - Riskless profit
 - Don't need to put in any of your own money
- What's the point?
 - When you have two securities/portfolios/trading strategies that have the same payoffs always, then they must have the same price
 - And if they don't?

1

Real-World "Arbitrage" Strategies

- Relative mispricing and convergence trades
 - index arbitrage
 - fixed-income securities, e.g. on-the-run vs. off-the-run treasuries
- Special situations
 - mergers and acquisitions ("risk arbitrage")
 - devaluations of currency
 - IPOs
 - announcements (e.g. of earnings or macro news)
- NOT ARBITRAGES!!!

2

Equity Valuation

Andre de Souza

3

Outline

- How to measure the value of a firm:
 - Valuation using balance sheet data
 - Fundamental value (Dividend Discount Model (DDM))
- The Gordon Growth Model (GGM)
- Valuation ratios (e.g. P/E ratio)
- Two-stage DDM
- Throughout:
 - We want to find the “fair value”
 - Compare to price

4

Balance Sheets

- What do balance sheets look like?

Assets	Liabilities
Property	Amounts we owe our creditors
Plant	Debt (bonds)
Equipment	Equity (shares)
Cash	
Amounts our debtors owe us	

- By definition, Assets=Liabilities

5

Where do these values come from?

- Assets:
 - Start them at, say, cost
 - Every year deduct some amount, to account for
 - Wear and tear :
 - Asset value being “used up”
 - This is called *depreciation*
- Example
- Initial value put in – total depreciation = *book value of assets*

6

Where do these values come from?

- Book value has little relation to what the asset is worth
 - *Market value*, the price at which it can be sold
- How about liabilities?

7

Where do these values come from?

- Liabilities
 - Debt often booked at value of proceeds from sale
 - Equity is *residual*
 - Balance sheet must balance
 - So $BVE = BV(\text{assets}) - BV(\text{other liabilities}) = \text{Net Worth of firm}$
 - Can we find a market value of equity? How?
 - Does MV need to be near BV?
 - Is the BV a lower bound for the MV?

8

Where do these values come from?

- Liquidation value
 - A lower bound. Why?
- Replacement cost
 - Tobin's $q = \text{Market value} / \text{replacement value}$
 - What happens if Tobin's q is high?

9

Balance Sheet Valuation

- Book Value
- Book Value of Equity
- Market Value
- Liquidation Value
- Replacement Cost

- Next up: Fundamental/Intrinsic Value

10

Random HPRs on shares

- Suppose I buy a share today
- Hold it till next year, collect one dividend, sell.
- Return $= \frac{P_1 + D_1}{P_0} - 1$

- Is this known today? Can I say for certain that I will get this return?
- But I can say how much I expect to make...

11

Expected return

- Expected return $E(r)$
$$= \frac{E(D_1) + E(P_1)}{P_0} - 1 = \frac{E(D_1)}{P_0} + \frac{E(P_1)}{P_0} - 1$$
- Two parts
- Can also be rearranged to give:
$$P_0 = \frac{E(D_1) + E(P_1)}{1 + E(r)}$$

12

Required Return

- Not a new concept
- How much return the “average investor” needs from a stock to hold it
 - To be compensated for its risk
 - So depends on the risk
 - If we believe the CAPM, how do we measure risk?
 - And how do we obtain required return?
 - SML!
 - Just what the CAPM believes is a fair return for that much risk

13

Expected return and required return

- Suppose we believe the CAPM
 - Use it to obtain required returns
- What does “the stock is priced correctly” mean?
 - Alpha=0
 - Use our predictions for D and P to obtain our estimate of expected return,

$$\frac{E(D_1) + E(P_1)}{P_0} - 1$$

- and then compare to required return

14

Another way to make the same point

- Define “Intrinsic Value” or “Fair Value” V_0

$$V_0 = \frac{E(D_1) + E(V_1)}{1 + k}$$

- Where k is required return

- Compare with

$$P_0 = \frac{E(D_1) + E(P_1)}{1 + E(r)}$$

- Suppose $P_1 = V_1$. When is $V_0 > P_0$? When is $V_0 < P_0$?

15

Intrinsic Value: Discounting at k

- Upto now, only discounted at r_f
 - Because we only talked about riskless investments
- When we have risk, can't discount at r_f anymore
- Suppose Stock A and Stock B have expected payment \$100 tomorrow, but B is much much riskier than A.
 - Is the value of both the same?
 - Which value is less?

16

Intrinsic Value: Discounting at k

- If we want to use discounting to measure present values, we'll have to use a lower discount rate for A.
 - That is, penalize the riskier payment more
- How much do I discount at?
 - Use k.
 - Why?

17

Intrinsic Value: Discounting at k

- Suppose a stock C is correctly priced by the CAPM (which we're believing for the moment), and has $E(r)=k=16\%$, ie, the fair payment for the risk of C is 16%
- Suppose A and C have the *same* risk.
 - What does this mean?
- I know that if I invest \$1 in C, I get, on average, \$1.16 next year.
- So if I invest \$1 in A, I should expect to make \$1.16 next year too.

18

Intrinsic Value: Discounting at k

- The value of \$1.16 expected next year from an investment in any one of these assets is \$1.00 today
- The value of \$1 expected next year from an investment in any one of these assets is ($\$1/1.16$) today
- Similarly for two years, and so on.
- End up with discounting at k

19

Fundamental Value and Market Price

- If market is efficient, market price is equal to the fundamental value ($P=V$), and expected return=required return.
- Supply and Demand, and Competition makes so. (If market price is higher than fundamental value, it is over-valued → people will sell or short sell → price goes down and approaches fundamental value.
If market price is lower than fundamental value, it is under-valued → _____)
- Reminder: fundamental values you got are calculated based on the model you chose and parameters you estimated. If it is different from market price, then two possibilities:

20

Warren Buffett

- “**Intrinsic value** is an all-important concept that offers the only logical approach to evaluating the relative attractiveness of investments and businesses. **Intrinsic value** can be defined simply: It is the discounted value of the cash that can be taken out of a business during its remaining life.”
- Example: Book value and intrinsic value of a college education

21

Dividend Discount Model (DDM)

- Use the fundamental-value equation repeatedly:

$$\begin{aligned} V_0 &= \frac{E(D_1) + E(V_1)}{1+k} \\ &= \frac{E(D_1)}{1+k} + \frac{E(D_2) + E(V_2)}{(1+k)^2} \\ &= \frac{E(D_1)}{1+k} + \frac{E(D_2)}{(1+k)^2} + \frac{E(D_3)}{(1+k)^3} + \frac{E(D_4)}{(1+k)^4} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

- A special case: all dividends are constant (D)

→ $V_0 = \frac{D}{k}$

22

Seems to say we don't care about capital gains

- But remember, we started from

$$V_0 = \frac{E(D_1) + E(V_1)}{1+k}$$

- So capital gains are built-in
- What about non-dividend-paying stocks?
- Side issue: possible to have bubbles
– But these are fragile

23

Gordon Growth Model (GGM)

- In the previous special case, we assume dividends are constant.
- Now, instead, suppose that expected dividends grow at a rate g , that is,

$$\begin{aligned} E(D_1) &= (1+g)D_0, & E(D_2) &= (1+g)E(D_1) \\ & & &= (1+g)^2 D_0, \text{ etc.} \end{aligned}$$

- Use the Dividend-Discount Model:

$$\begin{aligned} V_0 &= \frac{E(D_1)}{1+k} + \frac{E(D_2)}{(1+k)^2} + \frac{E(D_3)}{(1+k)^3} + \dots \\ &= \frac{D_0(1+g)}{1+k} + \frac{D_0(1+g)^2}{(1+k)^2} + \frac{D_0(1+g)^3}{(1+k)^3} + \dots \\ &= \frac{D_0(1+g)}{k-g} = \frac{E(D_1)}{k-g} \end{aligned}$$

24

Formulae for geometric series

$$1) \frac{x}{1+k} + \frac{x}{(1+k)^2} + \frac{x}{(1+k)^3} + \dots$$

$$= \frac{x}{k}$$

$$2) \frac{x(1+g)}{1+k} + \frac{x(1+g)^2}{(1+k)^2} + \frac{x(1+g)^3}{(1+k)^3} + \dots$$

$$= \frac{x(1+g)}{k-g}$$

25

Gordon's Growth Model (GGM)

What determines the fundamental value?

$$V_0 = \frac{D_0(1+g)}{k-g} = \frac{E(D_1)}{k-g}$$



E(D1) (+)

Growth Rate of Dividend (+)



k (or discount factor) (-)

26

Example 1: Texas Instruments

- In early 1999, Texas Instruments (TXN) had
 - Just paid dividends of 0.36 per share
 - From data, you estimate beta as 1.4
 - You estimate growth rate of dividends is 16.1%
 - Risk free rate is 4.75%
 - Market risk premium is 8.5%

Based on these estimates of yours, what was the fundamental value of TXN in early 1999?

Suppose the market price is \$120.5. What are the two possibilities?

27

So now we've done...

- Valuing a company based on
 - Balance sheet data
 - Dividend discount models
- Next up: Valuation ratios

28

Valuation Ratios

- What are they?
 - Just Price/Something
 - What is this Something?
 - Dividends
 - Earnings
 - Book-value
 - Sales
 - (All per share)
- Use to estimate price, given an estimate of the denominator

29

Valuation Ratios

- So the denominator needs to be
 - Observable
 - Related to price somehow
- Hope that the ratio is constant across comparable firms
 - E.g. Same industry

30

Price-Dividend ratio

- (Price)/(Last dividend)
- If we know what the firm's P/D should be, and we know the dividend, we can get the price
- Example: AT & T

31

Price-Dividend ratio: relation to GGM

- Suppose the firm is correctly priced
- Then $P_0 = V_0$
- If we also assume the GGM holds then

$$P_0 = V_0 = \frac{D_0(1+g)}{k-g} = \frac{E(D_1)}{k-g}$$

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

32

Price-Earnings Ratio (P/E)

- Can use past earnings, or E_1 (estimate of *next* year's earnings)
- What are earnings?

33

Profit and Loss Account/Income Statement

Revenues (or Sales)	\$100
Less: Cost of Goods Sold	\$75
Gross Margin /Gross Profit	\$25
Less: SG &A expenses	\$15
Operating Profit/EBIT	\$10
Less: Interest	\$5
EBT	\$5
Less: Taxes (@40%)	\$2
Earnings after tax/Net Income	\$3

34

P/E Ratios

- *Earnings* are what the income statement calls *net income*
- EPS
- What can I do with earnings?
 - Pay them out (Dividends)
 - Reinvest them
- Example: AT &T
- P/E tells you how much you're going to pay for every dollar of earnings the company generates

35

P/E and GGM

- Suppose I reinvest a fixed proportion "*b*" of my earnings
 - Plowback ratio or reinvestment ratio
- Then how much do I pay out as dividends?
 - $D_0 = (1-b)E_0$
- Hence, if $V_0 = P_0$ and GGM applies then

$$\frac{P_0}{E_0} = \frac{(1+g)(1-b)}{k-g}$$

36

P/E ratios are higher...

- Lower the k :
 - Lower beta
 - Lower r_f
 - Lower market risk premium
- Higher the dividend growth (or earnings growth, g is both)
- Lower the plowback ratio b

37

P/E and GGM

- What happens if $b=0$?
- What happens if $b=1$?

38

Example 2: Texas Instruments

- In early 1999, companies “like” Texas Instruments (TXN) were trading at P/E ratios of 43.5
- Suppose GGM applies
- Suppose $\beta = 1.4$, so $k = 16.65\%$
- The payout ratio was known to be 0.13. What is the retention ratio b ?

What is the market's (implicit) estimate of Texas Instrument's growth rate?

39

Two-Stage DDM

- GGM: assume company grows at same rate forever
- Life-cycle of a company: a company grows exceptionally for a while, but at some point the company matures and its growth slows.
- Suppose that you estimate that a company's growth will reach its "long-run" level of g after, say, 3 years.
- Then, in 3 years its price is $P_3 = \frac{(1+g)D_3}{k-g}$
- Based on estimates of the next 3 years' dividends, the earnings after 4 years, the long-run earnings growth and retention rate, today's value is:

$$P_0 = \frac{E(D_1)}{1+k} + \frac{E(D_2)}{(1+k)^2} + \frac{E(D_3) + E(P_3)}{(1+k)^3}$$

40

Example 3: Texas Instruments

- Suppose in 1999 you estimated
 - TXN's 2000 dividend per share will be 0.360
 - TXN's 2001 dividend per share will be 0.457
 - TXN's 2002 dividend per share will be 0.533
 - TXN's 2003 dividend per share will be 0.650
 - TXN's required return is constant at 16.65% (from Example 1)
 - After 2003, TXN's (dividend) growth rate will be 16.1%
- Using the two-stage DDM, what is the fundamental value in year 1999?

41

Price and NPV

- Future dividends can come from not only existing projects running now (*assets in place*) but also new projects.
- $P_0 = \text{PV}(\text{future dividends})$
 $= \text{PV}(\text{future net cash flows from assets in place}) + \text{NPV}(\text{new projects})$

42

Price and NPV

- NPV(new projects) is also called the NPV(growth opportunities), or PVGO
- Recall how to get NPV of a project:
 - use the CAPM to compute the required return
 - use the required return as discount rate to compute PV
 - NPV=PV-Initial Investment
 - capital budgeting: take positive NPV projects

43

Price and PVGO

- Suppose the only way for a company to increase earnings is to grow its assets
- Suppose the only way a company can grow its assets is to reinvest
 - Could also raise money, but then some part of money goes to other claimants (new shareholders)
- Not reinvesting=>Pays out all earnings
- If $b=0$, $P_0 = \frac{D_1}{k} = \frac{E_1}{k}$
- Difference between this and the actual price is PVGO

44

Optional: The relationship between g and b

- Suppose $b=0$. Think of the firm as a bank account: put in $\$P$ (and leave it there), and it pays you a stream of $\$E$ forever (a perpetuity). Suppose $P=\$100$, $E=\$10$. Every dollar I invest makes me $\$0.1$ per year, which I withdraw
 - Return on Equity (ROE)=10%
- Suppose now $b=0.7$
 - How much are dividends in year 1?
 - How much is reinvested in year 1?

45

Optional: The relationship between g and b

- Year 1: My earnings are \$10, I reinvest \$7.
Dividends are \$3
 - The \$7 now goes into my capital and increases my earnings *every year from year 2 on*
- Year 2: My earnings from the original capital= \$10
- Earnings from the \$7 I invested: $\$7 \times \$0.1 = \$0.7$
- Total earnings = \$10.7
- How much are dividends, how much is reinvested?
- How much did dividends grow?
- Repeat for year 3.

Optional: The relationship between g and b

- $g = \text{ROE} \times b$

Readings

- Today: BKM: 12 CP:13
- Not for evaluation: Subsection 12.5 (But read “Comparing the valuation models”)
- Next class: BKM 9.3-9.4, 9.6, 10.1
CP: 15-18
