

Methods for financial analysis

- *Financial analysis* takes the perspective of one specific actor or group of actors involved in the project, such as a company or an entrepreneur.
Economic analysis is concerned with the costs and benefits to society as a whole.
- The structure of methods for financial analysis is also valid, with appropriate distinctions, for economic analysis.

- A project produces an output that generates effects over time; for example, a plant has a technical life of several years.
- However, *technical* life may be different from the *economic* life.
- The technical (physical) life of an *asset* is the operational life of the asset under standard design conditions.
- It is influenced by
 - the quality of components and workmanship
 - the utilisation rate
 - the applied maintenance
 - environmental factors.

- The *economic life* of an asset is the time during which it provides, with normal maintenance, the designed functions in an *economically viable* manner.
- It depends both on physical factors and on economic factors such as
 - the perception of value offered
 - competing alternative goods
 - the modification of users' habits.

- Technical life is generally longer than economic life.
- It constitutes the upper limit of the *useful life* that is assigned to an asset and used in the evaluation.
- For example, although the technical life of a building can exceed 50 years, the standards set its service life at 20 years.

Methods without discounting

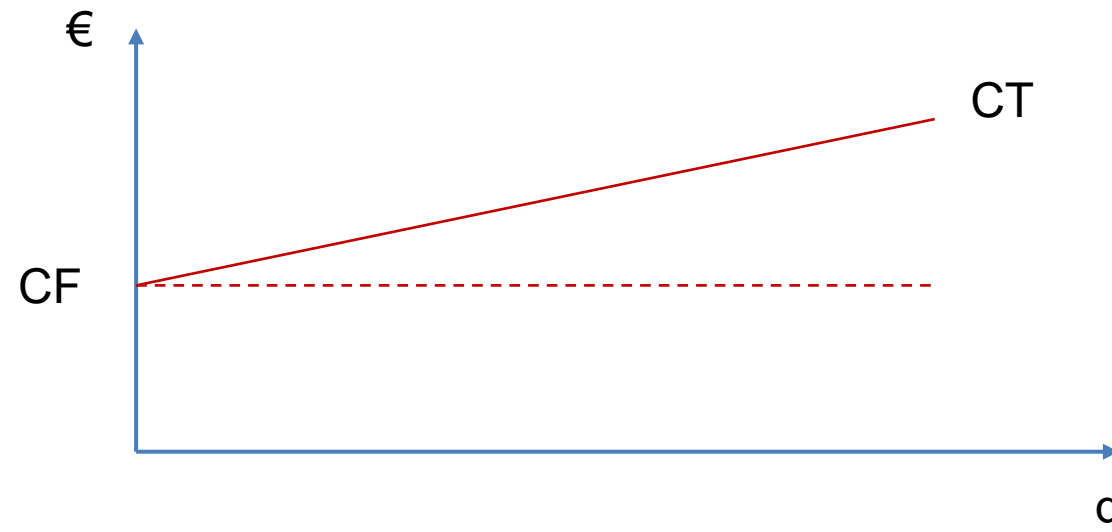
- In these methods, the different value of a unit of cash produced in different periods is not explicitly considered.
- We present two methods:
 - the *break-even point* method
 - the *payback* period method.

Break-even point method

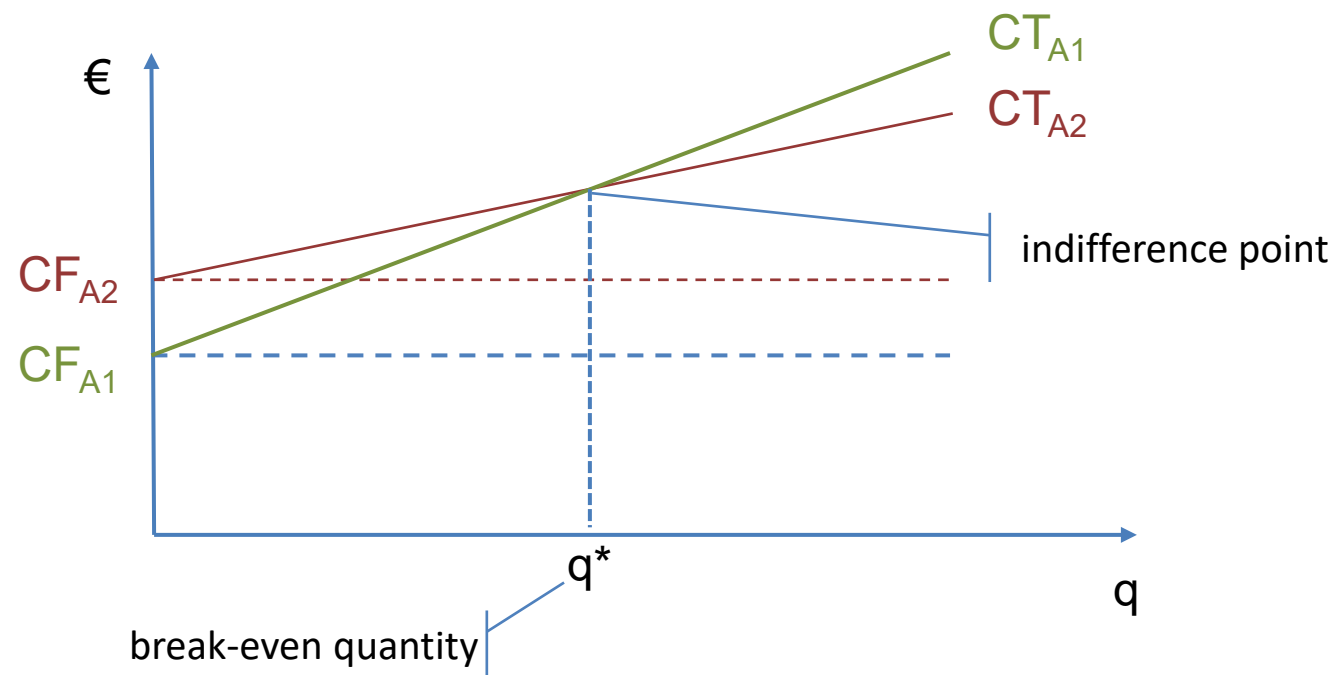
- A production asset has a production capacity Q (e.g. annual).
- Capacity is influenced:
 - by other plants/processes with which the asset is related
 - by the actual operating time of the asset.
- Two cost components can be identified:
 - *fixed costs* (CF), which do not change with the quantity produced
 - *variable costs* (CV), which change with the quantity produced.

- The sum of the two components gives the total costs (CT) for a certain quantity of production (q).
- The production function $CT(q)$ can be assumed to be *linear* within an interval of variation of q:

$$CT(q) = CF + CV \cdot q$$



- Two alternative assets A1 and A2 can be compared when:
 - $CF_{A1} < CF_{A2}$ and $CV_{A1} > CV_{A2}$
 - or vice versa.



- The break-even quantity q^* can be calculated as:

$$CT_{A1}(q^*) = CT_{A2}(q^*)$$

$$CF_{A1} + CV_{A1} \cdot q^* = CF_{A2} + CV_{A2} \cdot q^*$$

$$q^* = \frac{CF_{A2} - CF_{A1}}{CV_{A1} - CV_{A2}}$$

Example (EMot)

- A manufacturing department must replace an electric motor which supplies a power of 18.5kW
- Two options are considered:
 - MIE1, standard IE1 class motor, efficiency $\eta=89.5\%$
 - MIE2, high efficiency IE2 class motor, efficiency $\eta=92\%$.
- The investment costs for the options are:
 - MIE1: 540€
 - MIE2: 710€
- The company adopts a 20% depreciation coefficient.
- The unit cost of electric energy is 0.24€/kWh

Example (EMot)

- Variable cost is a function of the energy used in the hours of operation (per year):

$$CV = c_E \cdot \text{Energy used} = \frac{c_E \cdot P \cdot H}{\eta}$$

- where:
 - c_E is the unit cost of electric energy (€/kWh)
 - P is the supplied power (kW)
 - H is the number of operation hours per year
 - η is the efficiency of the motor.

Example (EMot)

- Annual costs are reported in the table:

	MIE1	MIE2
Depreciation (€)	108.00	142.00
Maintenance (€)	60.00	60.00
Total fixed (€)	168.00	202.00
Variable cost (€/h)	4.96	4.83

- The indifference quantity (hours of operation) is:

$$q^* = \frac{CF_{\text{MIE2}} - CF_{\text{MIE1}}}{CV_{\text{MIE1}} - CV_{\text{MIE2}}} = \frac{202 - 168}{4.96 - 4.83} \cong 252$$

Methods based on cash flows

- The break-even method does not explicitly consider the cash flows of the project.
- The time horizon of analysis comprises several elementary periods (t), e.g. years.
- For each year t , the difference between revenues and (monetary) costs can be obtained, i.e. the *cash flow* (or *cash balance*) for year t of the project (F_t).

- For now, we will consider the components of cash flows at a level of detail sufficient to understand the structure of the methods.
- We will separate the two main cost components
 - investment costs
 - operating costs
- and the revenue component of a project
 - operating revenues.

- Financial structure of a *project* (*project financials*)

Classes	for the year t
Operating revenues	R_t
Cost of sales	Cv_t
Management overheads etc.	Cga_t
Profit before tax	$R_t - Cv_t - Cga_t$
Depreciation	Amm_t
Taxes (Alq rate)	$Alq(R_t - Cv_t - Cga_t - Amm_t)_t$
Cash flow (FC) _t	$(1-Alq)(R_t - Cv_t - Cga_t - Amm_t) + Amm_t$
Investments	I_t
Free cash flow	$FC_t - I_t$

- In several cases we will not consider the “after-tax” cash flows.

Asset life cycle

- We will see several examples of cash flow construction.
- If a project concerns an asset, several components can be identified.
- They can be grouped according to the stages of the asset's life cycle.

- Acquisition
 - pre-acquisition and supply management
 - main facilities and equipment
 - facilities and support equipment
 - support services (e.g. electricity, fluids, etc.)
 - testing
 - operational infrastructure (e.g. logistics)
 - ICT systems
 - data acquisition and processing
 - storage, handling and transport of materials
 - initial staff training
 - *commissioning.*

- Operation
 - net personnel
 - net operating services
 - production and consumption materials
 - energy
 - personnel selection and training
 - operating documentation
 - ICT systems training
 - operation and management of infrastructure related to the asset.

- Maintenance
 - materials for routine maintenance
 - materials for breakdown maintenance
 - adjustments or planned revisions
 - planned expansions
 - maintenance personnel
 - training of maintenance personnel
 - maintenance documentation
 - external services for maintenance
 - spare parts.

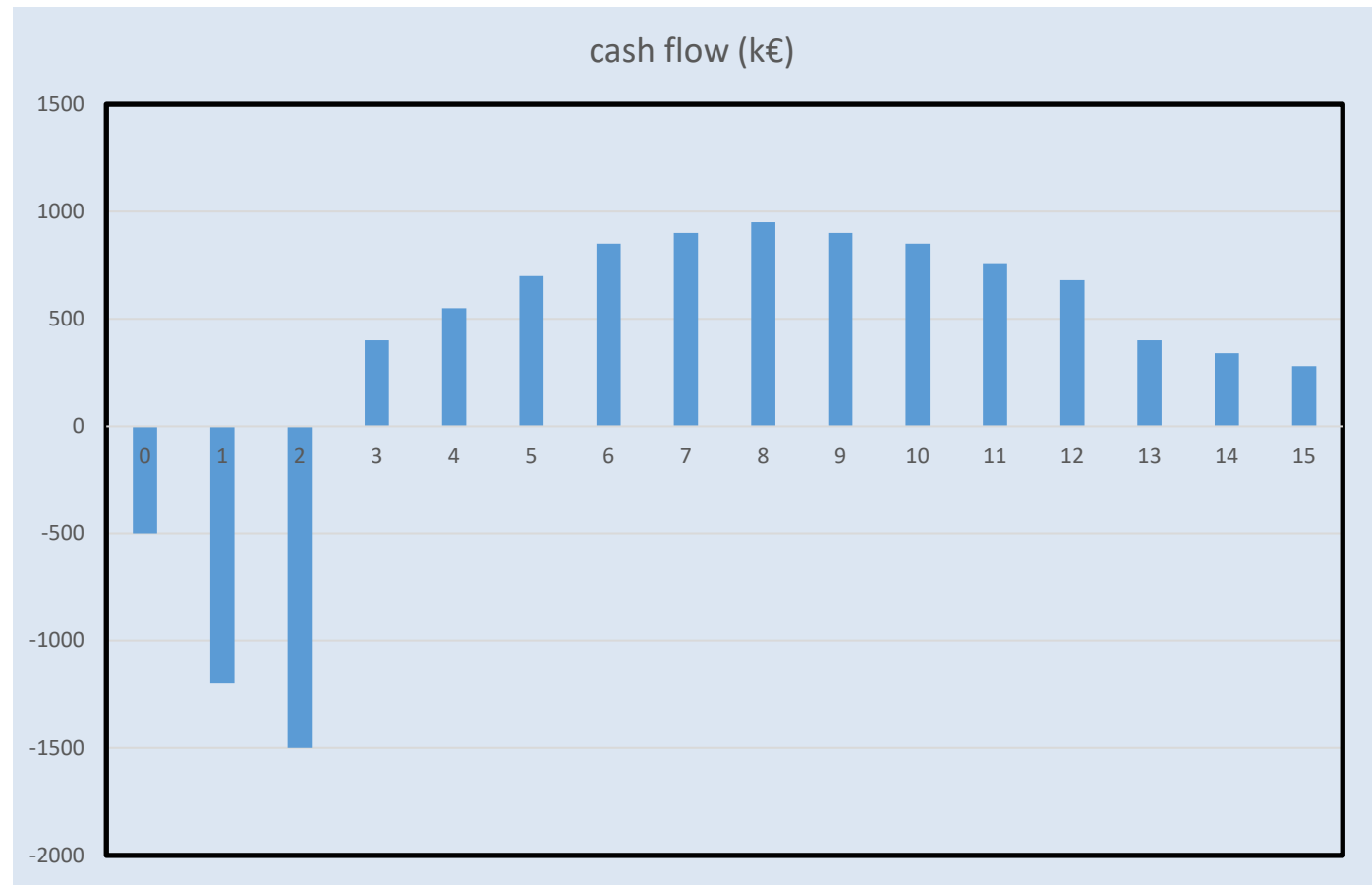
- Support Services
 - operations management
 - *overheads*
 - insurance
 - security
 - human resources management
 - storage infrastructure (warehouses)
 - logistics services and order preparation.

- Decommissioning
 - plant shutdown
 - disassembly and removal of materials
 - recycling and material transfer
 - salvage value
 - divestment.

- Often, costs exceed revenues in the first years because of
 - the investment outlays
 - the start-up phase of the operation.
- If I_t , R_t , C_t are respectively the investment outlay, the operating income and the operating cost at generic time t , flows are (useful life from period 0 to period n):
 - I_t (and $R_t = 0, C_t = 0$) from 0 to t'
 - $C_t > R_t$ from $(t' + 1)$ to t''
 - $R_t > C_t$ from $(t'' + 1)$ to n
- In each year t : $F_t = R_t - C_t$

positive flows
(cash inflows)

negative flows
(cash outflows)



Payback period

- Let I_0 be the initial outlay and Fm the *estimated average value* of the annual cash flow.
- The value I_0 can be broken down into PB periods of equal value Fm :

$$PB = \frac{I_0}{Fm}$$

- PB represents the number of periods required to recover the value of the initial investment.

- As F_m increases, PB decreases.
- This approach implies a preference for low PB values.
- It is believed that if PB is short
 - resources can be redeployed more quickly
 - the project is less risky.
- In any case, PB shall be shorter than the economic life of the project.

- If there is a salvage value (SV) at the end of the life of the asset, the capital to be recovered is the net capital:

$$PB = \frac{I_0 - SV}{Fm}$$

- In fact, SV is a cash inflow (if the asset is sold at its SV).
- When comparing an alternative (A_1) to the as-is situation (A_0), the average cash flow is the differential:
 - differential cash inflows with respect to A_0
 - differential cash outflows with respect to A_0 .

- What happens if the operating revenues are the same in both situations?
- Alternative A_1 is expected to yield cost savings such that the related investment is recovered.
- If several alternatives are compared, the one with the shortest PB will be preferred.
- In any case, a “threshold value” for the payback (explicit or implicit) is adopted in the evaluation.

Example (SMT)

- A facility management company (SMT) evaluates a new service for monitoring and analysis of process temperature for industrial companies.
- To this end, SMT should purchase an integrated monitoring system for data acquisition and processing.

Example (SMT)

- SMT estimated a demand of 2400 paid hours of service per year; the unit revenue (net of personnel cost) of 8.00€/h was also estimated.
- The solutions offered by two suppliers (P1 and P2) have the following features:

	P1	P2
System capital cost (€)	42000.00	36000.00
Consumables (€/h)	1.80	2.03
Material costs (€/yr)	4320.00	4860.00
SW licenses (€/yr)	750.00	720.00
Maintenance cost (€/yr)	550.00	430.00
Economic life (years)	8	8
SV (in its eighth year)	8400.00	7200.00

Example (SMT)

- Personnel and other operating costs would not vary with the alternative.
- F_m is the difference between annual revenues and costs.
- The following values of payback are obtained:

	P1	P2
F_m	13580.0	13190.0
PB	2.5	2.2

- Two questions should be addressed:
 - Is a PB > 2 years congruent with the decision maker's expectations?
 - Is the difference between the values obtained significant for the choice?

Example (EMot)

- Suppose that a change from the as-is situation is not compulsory, i.e. the existing motor could be used if it was more convenient.
- The existing electric motor has an efficiency of 88%.
- If the motor operates for 1600 hours/year supplying a power of 18.5kW, the cost of used energy is 8072.7 €/yr.
- Using the new MIE2, the company could reduce energy consumption.

Example (EMot)

New cost of energy (MIE2)	7721.7(€/yr)
Cost saving (per year)	351.0(€/yr)

- Considering the investment cost for the new motor (710€), we can calculate the payback:

$$PB = \frac{I_0}{Fm} = \frac{710}{351} \approx 2.02 \text{ (years)}$$

- This version of the payback considers *constant* average cash flow over the analysis horizon.
- When it is possible to estimate annual costs and revenues and they are variable, the payback can be determined in a more refined manner.
- This method of calculation is preferable when non-negligible variability of cash flows is expected.

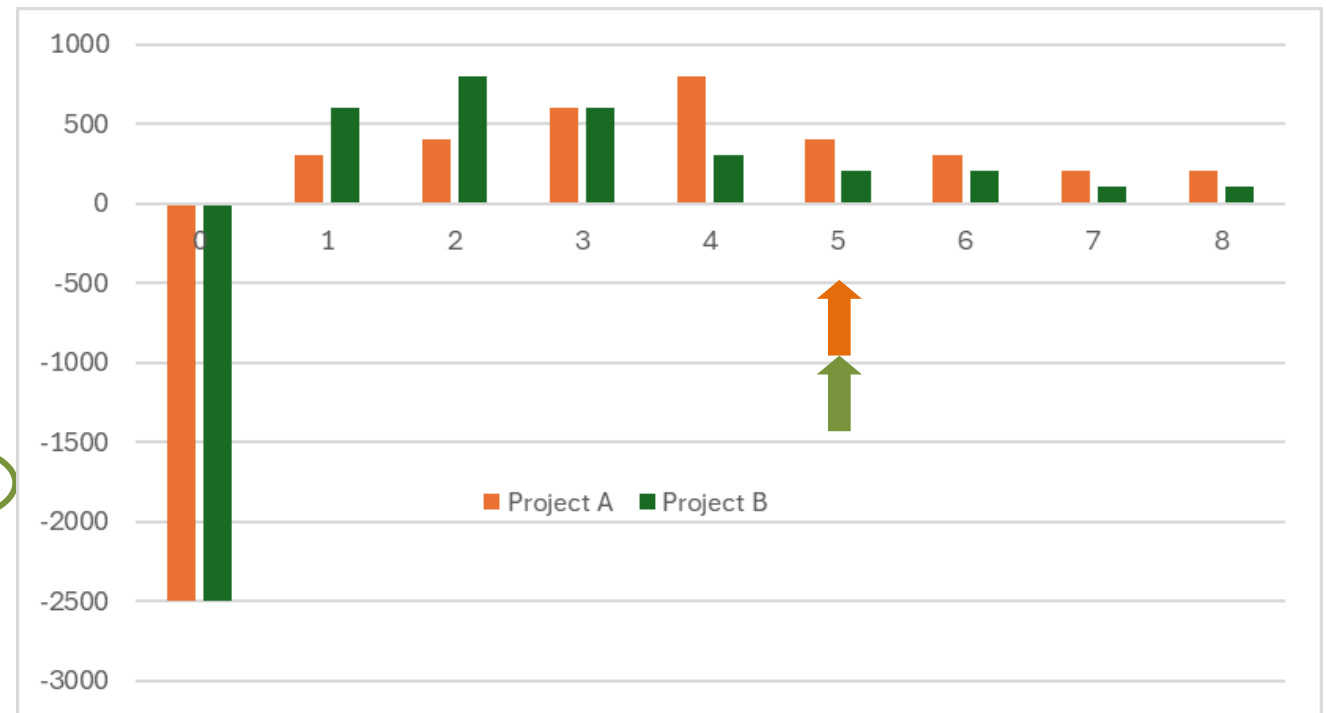
- It is necessary to establish a year from which to evaluate the return on investment.
- The payback corresponds to the expected number of years for the recovering of the investment.
- It is obtained by summing up the cash flows year by year, starting from year 0, until the year in which the cumulative sum becomes greater than or equal to 0.
- Again, the value obtained is compared with a *threshold value* set by the investor and which may depend on the type of project.

- It can be used to compare different alternatives:

	Project A	Project B
Year	cash flow (k€)	cash flow (k€)
0	-1200	-1200
1	200	300
2	300	400
3	400	500
4	300	300
5	300	200
6	400	200
	4 years	3 years

- However, some interesting results deserve attention:

	Project A	Project B
Year	cash flow (k€)	cash flow (k€)
0	-2500	-2500
1	300	600
2	400	800
3	600	600
4	800	300
5	400	200
6	300	200
7	200	100
8	200	100



	Project A	Project B
Year	cash flow (k€)	cash flow (k€)
0	-2500	-2500
1	300	600
2	400	900
3	500	600
4	700	400
5	600	200
6	500	100
7	400	100
8	300	100



Comments

- The *simple* payback period method does not consider the fact that cash flows occur in different years.
- The basic principles of financial transactions state that monetary values occurring at different times cannot be *directly* compared, added or subtracted:

to compare them, they must be referred to the same time.