

FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT FOR DECISION MAKERS

NINTH EDITION

Peter Atrill

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FOR DECISION MAKERS**



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Preface

This book has been written for those wishing to achieve a broad understanding of financial management at either undergraduate or postgraduate/post-experience level. It is aimed primarily at students who are studying financial management as part of their course in business, management, accounting, economics, computing, or some other area. The book should also be suitable for those not engaged in formal study but, nevertheless, need to understand financial management to help manage their business.

As there are several excellent books on financial management already published, it is reasonable to ask why another book is needed in this area. Many of the available books are too detailed and demanding to provide a suitable introduction to the subject. They are often around a thousand pages in length and contain mathematical formulae that many find daunting. This book assumes no previous knowledge of financial management (although a basic understanding of financial statements is required) and every attempt has been made to make the writing as accessible as possible. Each topic is introduced carefully and there is a gradual building of knowledge. In addition, mathematical formulae have been kept to a minimum.

The book rests on a solid foundation of theory but the main focus throughout is its practical value. It is assumed that readers are primarily concerned with understanding financial management in order to make better financial decisions. The title of the book reflects this decision-making focus.

The book is written in an 'open learning' style. That is, it tries to involve the reader in a way not traditionally found in textbooks. Throughout each chapter there are activities and self-assessment questions to attempt. The purpose of these is to help check understanding of the points being made and to encourage the reader to think around particular topics. The open learning style has been adopted because, I believe, it is more 'user friendly'. Irrespective of whether the book is being used as part of a taught course or for independent study, the interactive approach employed makes it easier to learn.

As it is likely that most readers will not have studied financial management before, the use of technical jargon has been kept to a minimum. Where technical terminology is unavoidable, I try to provide clear explanations. As a further aid, all key terms are highlighted in the book and then listed at the end of each chapter with a page reference to enable rapid revision of the main concepts. All key terms are listed alphabetically with a short definition in the glossary, which can be found towards the end of the book.

In writing the ninth edition, I have taken account of helpful comments and suggestions made by lecturers, students and other readers. To improve clarity, I have rewritten some sections and have added further diagrams. To improve coverage, I have expanded certain topics including share valuation and behavioural finance, and have added a completely new chapter dealing with the international aspects of financial management. This new chapter, which was co-written with my colleague Eddie McLaney, covers topics such as foreign exchange markets, foreign investments and exchange rate risk. I have also introduced additional activities throughout to enhance the interactive nature of the text. Finally, to help deepen understanding, I have replaced some of the review questions and end-of-chapter exercises with others that are a little more challenging.

I do hope that you will find the book both readable and helpful.

Peter Atrill
April 2019

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Text

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Chapter 1

THE WORLD OF FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT

INTRODUCTION

In this first chapter, we shall look at the role of the finance function within a business and the context within which financial decisions are made. This should help to set the scene for subsequent chapters. We begin by identifying the tasks of the finance function and how they relate to the tasks of managers. We then go on to consider the objectives that a business may pursue.

Modern financial management theory assumes that the primary objective of a business is to maximise the wealth of its shareholders. We shall examine this and other possible objectives for a business to understand why shareholder wealth maximisation is considered the most appropriate. There is always a danger, however, that businesses will adopt too narrow a focus in pursuit of this objective. We shall see that, for a business to survive and prosper over the long term, it must be pursued in a way that takes account of the surrounding environment. This requires managers to behave in an ethical manner and to be sensitive to the interests of the various groups that have a stake in the business.

Simply stating that a business's primary objective is shareholder wealth maximisation will not automatically cause this to happen. There is always a risk that managers will pursue their own interests at the expense of shareholders' interests. This is often referred to as the *agency problem*. We end the chapter by considering how this problem may be managed through regulation and through the active involvement of shareholders.

Learning outcomes

When you have completed this chapter, you should be able to:

- Discuss the role of the finance function within a business.
- Identify and discuss possible objectives for a business and explain the advantages of the shareholder wealth maximisation objective.
- Explain how risk, ethical considerations and the needs of other stakeholders influence the pursuit of shareholder wealth maximisation.
- Describe the agency problem and explain how it may be managed.

THE FINANCE FUNCTION

Put simply, the finance function within a business exists to help managers to manage. To understand how the finance function can achieve this, we must first be clear about what managers do. One way of describing the role of managers is to classify their activities into the following categories:

- *Strategic management.* This involves developing aims and objectives for a business and then formulating a strategy (long-term plan) to achieve them. Deciding on an appropriate strategy will involve identifying and evaluating the various options available. The option chosen should be the one that offers the greatest potential for achieving the aims and objectives developed.
- *Operations management.* To ensure that things go according to plan, managers must exert day-to-day control over the various business functions. Where events do not conform to earlier plans, appropriate decisions and actions must be taken.
- *Risk management.* The risks faced by a business must be identified and properly managed. These risks, which are many and varied, arise from the nature of business operations and from the way in which the business is financed.

As we can see from Figure 1.1, these three management activities are not separate and distinct. They are interrelated, and overlaps arise between them. When considering a particular strategy, for example, managers must also make a careful assessment of the risks involved and how these risks may be managed. Similarly, when making operational decisions, managers must try to ensure they fit within the strategic (long-term) plan that has been formulated.



Figure 1.1 The role of managers

The finance function is concerned with helping managers in each of the three areas identified. This is achieved by undertaking various key tasks, which are set out in Figure 1.2 and described below.

- *Financial planning.* It is vital for managers to assess the potential impact of proposals on future financial performance and position. They can more readily evaluate the implications of their decisions if they are provided with estimates of financial outcomes. These can often take the form of projected financial statements, such as projected cash flow statements and projected income statements.
- *Investment project appraisal.* Investment in new long-term projects can have a profound effect on the future prospects of a business. By undertaking appraisals of the profitability

and riskiness of investment project proposals, managers can make informed decisions about whether to accept or reject them. These appraisals can also help in prioritising investment projects that have been accepted.

- **Financing decisions.** Investment projects and other business activities have to be financed. The various sources of finance available need to be identified and evaluated: each will have its own characteristics and costs. When evaluating different sources, consideration must be given to the overall financial structure of the business. An appropriate balance must be struck between long- and short-term sources of finance and between the contribution of shareholders (owners) and that of lenders. Not all of the finance required may come from external sources: some may be internally generated. An important source of internally generated finance is profits, and the extent to which these are reinvested within the business, rather than distributed to the owners, requires careful consideration.
- **Capital market operations.** New finance may be raised through the capital markets, which include stock markets and banks. Managers will often seek advice and guidance on how finance can be raised through these markets, how securities (shares and loan capital) are priced, and how the markets are likely to react to proposed investment and financing plans.
- **Financial control.** Once plans are implemented, managers must ensure that things stay on course. Here, regular reporting of information on actual outcomes, such as the profitability of investment projects, levels of working capital and cash flows, can play a vital role. This can help monitor performance and detect when corrective action is needed.

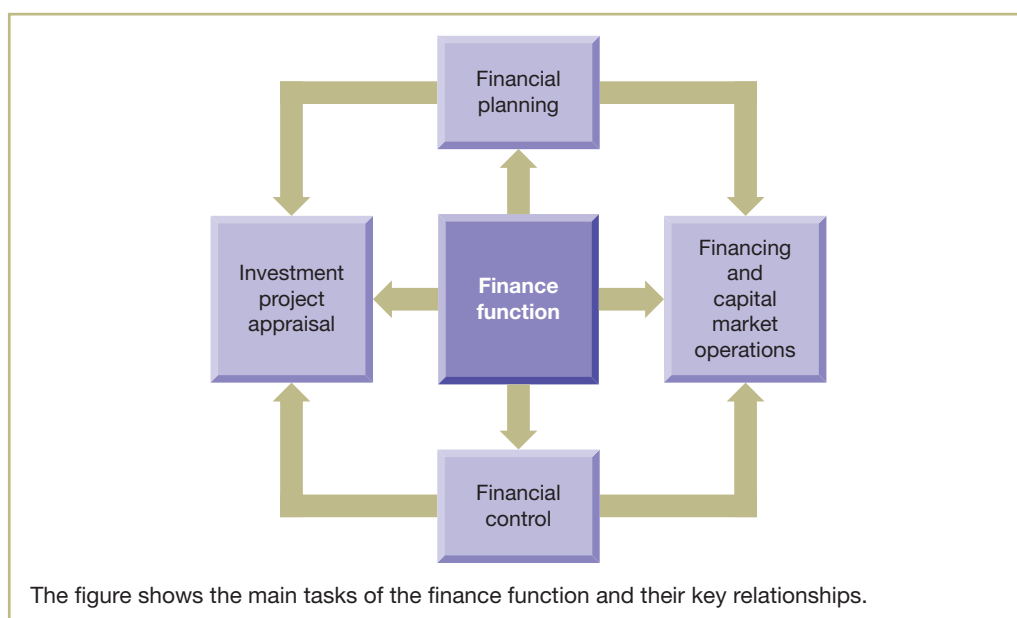


Figure 1.2 The tasks of the finance function

Links between the tasks of managers and those of the finance function, which have just been discussed, are many and varied. Strategic management, for example, may require an input from the finance function on issues relating to financial planning, investment project appraisal, financing and capital market operations. Operations management may require an input on issues relating to financial planning, investment project appraisal, financing and financial control. Risk management may require an input on issues relating to all of the finance function tasks identified above.

STRUCTURE OF THE BOOK

This book considers each of the tasks of the finance function in some detail. In Chapter 2, we begin by examining how financial plans are prepared and the role of projected financial statements in helping managers assess likely future outcomes. We then go on to consider how risks and returns to shareholders are affected by the way in which a business is financed and by the cost structure that it adopts.

In Chapter 3, we consider how financial statements can be analysed and interpreted. We discuss, in some detail, techniques that can be applied to the financial statements to help assess various aspects of financial health. These techniques are also used in short-term financial planning decisions, such as the control of working capital, as well as for long-term financing decisions, such as the issue of shares. We shall, therefore, encounter these techniques again in later chapters.

Chapters 4 and 5 are concerned with the appraisal of investment projects. This is a vitally important area as investment decisions can have far reaching financial consequences. In these two chapters, we examine the main methods employed to assess the viability of investment proposals. We also discuss how risk may be taken into account when evaluating investment projects and how, once implemented, projects may be monitored and controlled.

Chapters 6 to 9 are concerned with various aspects of the financing decision. We begin by identifying the main sources of finance available and the role and efficiency of capital markets. We then go on to examine the cost of each of the main sources of finance and to discuss whether the financing decision has any effect on shareholder wealth. Finally, we consider the decision concerning whether to retain or to distribute profits to shareholders. We identify the key factors to be taken into account when making this decision as well as the issues surrounding the form that any distribution might take.

In Chapter 10, we discuss the importance to a business of managing its working capital effectively. We then go on to examine the key elements of working capital (inventories, receivables, cash and payables) and describe the various techniques available for controlling each element.

In Chapter 11, we consider the main methods available for measuring shareholder wealth and for promoting its creation. We begin by discussing the limitations of conventional methods and then continue by discussing newer, alternative, methods that may be employed. Finally, we consider how managerial rewards may be aligned to the goal of creating shareholder wealth.

In Chapter 12, we examine the rationale for mergers and takeovers. We also consider how they may be financed and who benefits from this form of business activity. The chapter concludes by looking at ways in which shares in a business may be valued. This is relevant for merger and takeover decisions as well as for other purposes. This chapter draws on our understanding of topics covered in earlier chapters such as investment appraisal, financing methods and capital market operations.

Finally, in Chapter 13, we consider the international aspects of financial management. In this modern era, many businesses have an international reach. This goes beyond buying and selling goods and services and will often involve investing and financing activities. Engaging in international operations is accompanied by various financial risks. In this chapter, we identify these risks and discuss how they may be managed.

MODERN FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT

In the early years of its development, financial management was really an offshoot of accounting. Much of the early work was descriptive, and arguments were based on casual observation rather than on any clear theoretical framework. Over the years, however, financial

management became increasingly influenced by economic theories and the reasoning applied to particular issues has become more rigorous and analytical. Indeed, such is the influence of economic theory that modern financial management is often viewed as a branch of applied economics.

Economic theories concerning the efficient allocation of scarce resources have been taken and developed into decision-making tools for management. This development of economic theories for practical business use has usually involved taking account of both the time dimension and the risks associated with management decision making. An investment decision, for example, must look at both the time period over which the investment extends and the degree of risk associated with the investment. This fact has led to financial management being described as the *economics of time and risk*. Certainly, time and risk will be recurring themes throughout this book.

Economic theories have also helped us to understand the importance of **capital markets**, such as stock markets and banks, to a business. Capital markets have a vital role to play in bringing together borrowers and lenders. They also help investors to select the type of investment that best meets their risk requirements and to evaluate the performance of businesses through the prices assigned to their shares.

Real World 1.1 is an extract from an article by Professor Dimson of London Business School. It neatly sums up how time, risk and capital markets are at the centre of modern financial management.

Real World 1.1

Finance on the back of a postage stamp

The leading textbooks in finance are nearly 1,000 pages long. Many students learn by making notes on each topic. They then summarise their notes. Here is one student's summary of his Finance course: Time is money . . . Don't put all your eggs in one basket . . . You can't fool all the people all of the time.

- The idea that time is money refers to the fact that a sum of money received now is worth more than the same sum paid in the future. This gives rise to the principle that future cash flows should be discounted, in order to calculate their present value.
- You can reduce the risk of an investment if you don't put all your eggs in one basket. In other words, a diversified portfolio of investments is less risky than putting all your money in a single asset. Risks that cannot be diversified away should be accepted only if they are offset by a higher expected return.
- The idea that you can't fool all of the people all of the time refers to the efficiency of financial markets. An efficient market is one in which information is widely and cheaply available to everyone and relevant information is therefore incorporated into security prices. Because new information is reflected in prices immediately, investors should expect to receive only a normal rate of return. Possession of information about a company will not enable an investor to outperform. The only way to expect a higher expected return is to be exposed to greater risk.

These three themes of discounted cash flow, risk and diversification, and market efficiency lie at the very heart of most introductory finance courses. Each of these themes will be considered in this book.

Source: Dimson, E. (1995) *Assessing the Rate of Return*, Financial Times Mastering Management series, supplement issue no. 1, p. 13. © Professor E. Dimson 1995, reproduced with permission of the author. All rights reserved.

WHY DO BUSINESSES EXIST?

A key assumption underpinning modern financial management is that businesses exist to create wealth for their shareholders. This has provoked much debate and so is worth exploring in some detail. Shareholders are considered of paramount importance because they effectively own the business and therefore bear the residual risk. During the good times they benefit, but during the bad times they must bear any losses. Furthermore, if the business fails and its remaining assets are distributed, the shareholders' claim against those assets goes to the bottom of the pile. The claims of other 'stakeholders', such as employees, customers, lenders and suppliers, are given legal priority over those of shareholders. These other stakeholders may also have the added advantage of being able to protect themselves against the risk of losses.

Activity 1.1

Can you think of any way in which:

- (a) a lender, and
- (b) a supplier

could take steps to avoid the risk of loss, even though the business with which they are dealing is in financial difficulties and may even fail?

Lenders can insist that the business offers adequate security for any loans that they provide. This may allow assets to be seized to pay off amounts due in the event of a default in interest or loan repayments. Suppliers can insist on being paid in advance for the goods or services provided.

Note that shareholders have a residual claim on the wealth generated by a business, while other stakeholders, such as employees, lenders and suppliers, normally have a fixed claim. In other words, shareholders receive whatever remains after other stakeholders have received the fixed amounts due to them. Having a residual claim means that shareholders have an incentive to increase the size of their claim by ensuring that the business undertakes new and risky ventures. Entrepreneurial activity is therefore encouraged, which can benefit all those connected with the business. Stakeholder groups with a fixed claim on the business do not have the same incentive as that of shareholders. Providing the business can meet their claims, this will normally be enough. (To minimise their risks, they might even prefer the business to avoid new ventures.)

Wealth maximisation

We have just seen that a business is assumed to exist to create wealth for its shareholders. We can be more precise, however, by saying that a business is assumed to pursue the goal of **shareholder wealth maximisation**. Within a market economy, shareholders provide funds to a business in the expectation that they will receive the maximum possible increase in wealth for the level of risk involved. When we use the term 'wealth' in this context, we are referring to the *market value of the ordinary shares*. The market value of these shares will, in turn, reflect the future returns that shareholders are expected to receive *over time* from the shares and the level of risk that must be faced. It is important to emphasise that the assumed goal is not to

maximise shareholders' returns over the short term, but rather to generate the highest possible returns over the long term.

Wealth maximisation or profit maximisation?

Instead of seeking to maximise shareholder wealth, a business may seek to maximise profit. In broad terms, profit represents the surplus generated by a business during a period and so it is tempting to conclude that the maximisation of profit will ultimately lead to the maximisation of shareholder wealth. Unfortunately, things aren't quite so straightforward.

The goal of profit maximisation is rather vague and fails to capture all aspects of shareholder wealth. Various difficulties lay in the path of attempts to implement this goal including:

- *Lack of precision*: the term 'profit' is imprecise and different measures of both profit and profitability exist. They include:
 - operating profit (that is, profit before interest and tax)
 - profit before tax
 - profit after tax
 - profit available to shareholders per ordinary share
 - profit available to shareholders as a percentage of ordinary shareholders' funds invested.

These measures do not always move in lockstep. An injection of new share capital, for example, may increase profit after tax but may lead to a decrease in profit available to shareholders per ordinary share. Different profit measures may, therefore, provide a different narrative of financial performance.

- *Lack of objectivity*: the profit measures mentioned cannot be objectively determined. They are all influenced by the particular accounting policies and estimates employed, such as those relating to depreciation, inventories and bad debts. They are also vulnerable to manipulation by managers wishing to present a particular picture of financial health to investors.
- *Time period*: the period over which profit should be maximised is unclear. This is a serious flaw as conflict can occur between short-term and long-term profit maximisation. It is possible, for example, to maximise short-term profits at the expense of long-term profits.

Activity 1.2

How might the managers of a business increase short-term profits at the expense of long-term profits? Try to think of at least two ways.

Managers may reduce operating expenses, and so increase short-term profits, by:

- reducing research and development expenditure
- cutting staff training and development
- buying lower-quality materials
- reducing marketing expenditure
- cutting quality control mechanisms.

The methods identified, however, may undermine the long-term competitiveness and performance of the business.

- *Risk*: the goal of profit maximisation takes no account of the risks involved. Shareholders, however, are normally very concerned with risk. To protect their investment, they may shy away from high-risk projects even though they have the potential to generate large profits.
- *Opportunity cost*: suppose that managers decide to reinvest current profits in order to boost future profits. This policy may well be consistent with the goal of profit maximisation, but what if the returns on profits reinvested were lower than those that shareholders could achieve from investing in a similar business with similar levels of risk? It would mean that by reinvesting the profits, rather than distributing them, shareholders are being prevented from maximising their wealth.

The weaknesses just mentioned do not apply to the goal of shareholder wealth maximisation. It is more precise and, as we shall see in later chapters, takes account of both risk and the opportunity cost of shareholders' funds.

Do managers really have a choice?

Within a market economy there are strong competitive forces at work to ensure that failure to maximise shareholder wealth will not be tolerated for long. Competition for funds provided by shareholders and competition for managers' jobs should ensure that the interests of the shareholders prevail. If the managers of a business do not provide the expected increase in shareholder wealth, shareholders have the power to replace the existing management team with a new team that is more responsive to their needs. Alternatively, the shareholders may decide to sell their shares in the business (and, perhaps, reinvest in other businesses that provide better returns in relation to the risks involved). The sale of shares in the business is likely to depress the market price of the shares, which management will have to rectify in order to avoid the risk of takeover. This can be done only by pursuing policies that are consistent with the needs of shareholders.

Real World 1.2 below concerns a recent failed takeover bid and its consequent effect on the target business. It neatly illustrates some of the points raised above.

Real World 1.2

A lesson quickly learned

The failed attempt by Kraft Heinz, the US food business to take over Unilever, the Anglo-Dutch business, can be viewed as a case study in what happens when a business loses sight of the importance of maximising shareholder value. Prior to the failed bid, the chief executive of Unilever, Paul Polman, was an outspoken critic of the shareholder value approach. Instead, he demonstrated a concern for environmental, social and corporate governance issues as a means of promoting the interests of all stakeholders.

The takeover bid came as a shock to the Unilever board, despite growing evidence that shareholder returns were disappointing when compared with those of the business's main rivals. Once the bid had been withdrawn, the board recognised that things could not simply carry on as before. It, therefore, announced a 12 per cent increase in dividends as well as a share buyback programme. It doubled planned cost cuts to two billion euros by 2020, to boost profit margins, and announced a strategic review of business operations to find ways 'to accelerate delivery of value for the benefit of our shareholders'. The overall effect of these

initiatives was to cause the share price to rise to the Kraft Heinz bid price, thereby making Unilever a less attractive takeover target to prospective bidders.

Sources: Based on information in Vermaelen T. (2017) Unilever: *Why firms should maximise shareholder value*, <https://knowledge.insead.edu/blog/insead-blog/unilever-why-firms-should-maximise-shareholder-value-5336> 27 February; A.Edgecliffe-Johnson (2018) *Unilever chief admits Kraft Heinz bid forced compromises* ft.com, 27 February; P. Jarvis (2017) *Unilever reviewing options for change after Kraft Heinz bid fails* chicagotribune.com, 22 February.

It should be mentioned that managers are usually encouraged to maximise shareholder wealth through their remuneration arrangements. Financial incentives are normally on offer to help align the interests of the managers with those of the shareholders. These incentives, which are often linked to share price performance, may take the form of bonus payments and awards of shares in the business.

Criticisms of shareholder wealth maximisation

Critics of the shareholder wealth maximisation objective believe that many of the problems of modern business can be laid at its door. It has been argued, for example, that the relentless pursuit of this objective will lead businesses to implement measures such as cost cutting, redundancies and forcing suppliers to lower prices. These measures can be carried to a point where serious conflict can arise between the various stakeholders (shareholders, employees, suppliers and so on) associated with a business. As a result, the business becomes weakened and incapable of exploiting profitable opportunities.

While the kind of behaviour mentioned may well occur, it is difficult to see how it would be consistent with the goal of maximising shareholder wealth.

Activity 1.3

Can you see why?

As mentioned earlier, shareholder wealth maximisation is a long-term goal and the sort of behaviour described would only undermine the achievement of this goal.

A further criticism made is that, by making shareholders the dominant group, other stakeholders will feel like second-class citizens and so will not fully engage with the business. Shareholder wealth maximisation cannot be achieved if other stakeholders are unhappy with their lot. Discontented staff can lead to low productivity and strikes. Discontented suppliers can lead to the business being given lower ordering priority and receiving slower deliveries in the future. In both cases, the wealth of shareholders will be adversely affected. At the very least, this means that the needs of other stakeholders must be considered if shareholder wealth maximisation is to be successfully pursued.

A final criticism is that shareholder wealth maximisation encourages unethical behaviour. In a highly competitive environment, managers are under huge pressure to produce the returns that shareholders require. To achieve these returns, they may be tempted to act in unethical ways.