

Ch. 10 Common Stock Valuation

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- October 25, 2002 William Pugh

Fundamental Analysis

- Usually involves using large amounts of *company financial data*, understanding the nature of the *firm's business, the industry* it operates in (competitors, etc.) and the *economic environment*.
- Usually involves *predicting future earnings or dividends*.
- *May* involve using *valuation models to estimate a present value* for the stock (like we do for bonds).

Equity Valuation Methods

- **Fundamental analysis** usually considers the present value of future cash flows
- Sometimes called "**Intrinsic Value**".
- One-period Model: assume you receive all cash flow after one year. We **assume one annual dividend** although *dividends are usually quarterly*. Assume we have estimated a price target, P_1 for year-end.
- **Then $PV = (D_1 + P_1)/(1+r)$** . Current Price, P_0 , **may or may not equal** intrinsic value, **PV**.

Equity Valuation Methods: DDM

- **Dividend Discount Model**: assume you receive cash flow from dividends forever.
- **$PV = D_1/(1+k) + D_2/(1+k)^2 + \dots + D_n/(1+k)^n + \dots$**
- This method is manageable **only** if we make simplifying assumptions about D.
- **(1) Assume D grows at a constant rate "g"**.
- **D_0 is the most recent dividend (already paid!)**.
- **So $D_0(1+g) = D_1$; $D_0(1+g)^2 = D_2$; etc.**
- **$PV = \sum D_0(1+g)^t/(1+k)^t$ for years 1,2,3,...,∞**

Equity Valuation Methods: DDM

- This can only be solved if it is a **geometric series** and can **summed to a finite PV**.
- **Ex: $1/2 + 1/4 + 1/8 + 1/16 \dots$ and so on, forever** is an infinite series but clearly it sums to a finite value. **Any infinite series that declines by a certain percent each time period is a geometric series and will have a finite sum.**
- For the PV formula to have a sum, **it must not blow up** - this would be where the dividend increases at a rate "g" equal to or faster than we shrink the dividend using its rate if discount "k".

Equity Valuation Methods: DDM

- **So we have $PV = \sum D_0(1+g)^t/(1+k)^t$, $t = 1, \dots, \infty$**
- 1) g must be constant over the period we are evaluating the PV.
- 2) g must be less than k.
- The formula for the **$PV = D_0(1+g)/(k-g)$**
- Consider no growth, then $g=0$ and all dividends are equal **$PV = D(1+0)/(k-0) = D/k$**
- The above special case is sometimes called a **perpetuity** and is also useful in evaluating preferred stock.

Equity Valuation Methods: DDM

- A stock last paid a \$1 dividend and you expect the dividend to grow at a rate “g” indefinitely. You assign the stock a RRR of $k = 9\%$.
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- “g” = -6% 0% 6% 7% 10%
- PV = ? ? ? ? ?
- For $g = 6\%$ $PV = \$1.06 / (.09 - .06) = \35.33

Equity Valuation Methods: DDM

- For the rest:
- “g” = -6% 0% 6% 7% 10%
- PV = \$35.33 ∞
- Note, this model allows for negative growth, an example being a gold mine gradually exhausting its profitable resources.
- Only the 10% does not work (negative value the formula predicts is really *positive infinity*)
- Note how a slight increase in expected growth to 7% affects the PV.

Equity Valuation Methods: RRR

- What determines k (RRR) and g (growth)?
- In the *risk-return chapter* we looked at theories of return: notably the *CAPM with its reliance on β to measure a security’s relative market risk* (filtering out diversifiable company risk).
- However, there is only weak evidence, *if any*, that high β firms reward the risk-taker with higher returns. Even when we incorporate company risk to get *total risk σ (sigma)*, we find little or no relationship.

Equity Valuation Methods: RRR

- We *may* be able to construct an objective measure of risk using leverage measures & measure how cyclical sales are, etc.
- However we obtain the β ’s value the **text assumes the CAPM is still the best method** (and in theory it *should* work).
- $k = r_f + \beta(\text{MRP})$ MRP: market risk premium
- $= r_f + \beta(E(r_M) - r_f)$ $E(r_M)$: expected return of the stock market

Equity Valuation Methods: DDM

- We also write $PV = D_1 / (k - g)$
- RRR vs. IRR: write the above as $P_0 = D_1 / (k - g)$, we have a price and wish to estimate an expected rate of return.
- This is like YTM for bonds or IRR for capital budgeting.
- $(k - g) = D_1 / P_0$ $k = D_1 / P_0 + g$
- In this formula we are not solving for $k = \text{RRR}$, rather the IRR. Using k is a common and confusing practice.

Equity Valuation Methods: DDM

- So if we have a RRR in mind and want to estimate an intrinsic value, we use $PV = D_1 / (k - g)$
- If we have a price and wish to estimate an expected rate of return (IRR), we use
- $E(r) = D_1 / P_0 + g$

Multiple-Growth (Two-Stage) DDM

- What if we are able to estimate earnings and dividends over the next two or three years that reflect some one time events, but want to assume constant growth thereafter.
- Very common approach in among analysts.
- Assume **last irregular dividend** (before the one that grew at rate “g” is like D_0 . Assume **two** such dividends, then
- $PV = D_1/(1+k) + D_2/(1+k)^2 + [D_2(1+g)/(k-g)] / (1+k)^2$
- $= D_1/(1+k) + D_2/(1+k)^2 + [P_2] / (1+k)^2$

Two-Stage DDM

- If the first dividend is \$1 and the second is \$2 and growth is 6% thereafter: RRR = 10%
- $PV = D_1/(1+k) + D_2/(1+k)^2 + [D_2(1+g)/(k-g)] / (1+k)^2$
- $= \$1/(1+.10) + \$2/(1+.10)^2$
(continue) $+ [\$2(1+.06)/(.10-.06)] / (1+.10)^2$
- $= \$0.91 + \$2/(1+.10)^2 + [\$53] / (1+.10)^2$
- $= \$0.91 + [\$55] / (1+.10)^2 =$
- $= \$0.91 + \$45.45 = \$46.36$

Price/Earnings Ratios

- The P/Es in the WSJ and other stock quote sources are *ex post*: they are the **current price and the last 4 quarter’s earnings**
- $PE = P_0/E_0$
- The P/Es in the text are anticipated and we use expected earnings for the next four quarters.
- $PE = P_0/E_1 = [D_1/(k-g)] / E_1$
- $= [D_1/E_1] / (k-g)$
- $= \text{PayoutRatio} / (k-g)$

Price/Earnings Ratios

- How does P/E change with growth?
- With risk?
- **Inverting the P/E ratio gives the earnings yield** $= E_1/P_0$,
- The earnings yield has limited use, we cannot discount future earnings as some are usually retained and **thus not part of that year’s cash flow**. Still it is an estimate of shareholder return - especially in the no growth scenario and where the payout ratio is one.

Equity Valuation Methods

- **Bookvalue** of a company (or more usually bookvalue/share) is an **accounting measure of value** and represents the **historical cost** of the assets in place, less depreciation and less liabilities (debt and preferred stock).
- Bookvalue is also called net worth or common equity. Finding bargains through buying stocks with low-price to book ratios is one the possible **anomalies** (exceptions) in **Efficient-markets Theory**.

Equity Valuation Methods

- **Bookvalue can be easily distorted with stock buybacks**: A company selling at three times book (\$30 vs. \$10) uses funds from retained earnings to buy back shares. By accounting rules, they pay \$30 for something worth \$10 and lose \$20 a share purchased. If 10% of stock is repurchased, the firm loses \$2 per share overall and bookvalue drops to \$8 share. Buybacks are considered a good thing for shareholders (if the shares are retired and not handed out to executives - which is too often the case).

Price/Sales Ratio

- *No evidence* that buying stock with low prices relative to sales delivers superior returns.
- *P/S is often largely a function the industry the company is in.* (Retail has low P/S ratios)
- *P/S ignores leverage.*
- That is, according to the DuPont equation *earnings depend on sales but sales depends on assets, which are purchased with debt or equity.*
- Use *EV/S*, where EV is *enterprise value: the per share market price of the stock and the debt.*