# Measuring and Controlling Assets Employed

- In some business units, the focus is on profit
  - as measured by the difference between revenues and expenses.
- In other business units, profit is compared with the assets employed in earning it.
- We refer to the latter group of responsibility centers as investment centers and,
- in this section, discuss the **measurement problems** involved in such **responsibility centers**.

We then discuss **two methods** of **relating profit** to the **investment base**:

• (1) the percentage *return on investment*, referred to as **ROI**, and

• (2) *economic value added,* called **EVA**.

We describe the advantages and qualifications of using each to measure performance

The purposes of measuring assets employed are

- To provide information
  - that is useful in making sound decisions about assets employed and
- to motivate managers to make these sound decisions that are in the best interests of the company.
- To measure the performance of the business unit as an economic entity

In general, business unit managers have two performance objectives.

- First, they should generate adequate profits from the resources at their disposal.
- Second, they should invest in additional resources only when the investment will produce an adequate return.
  - Conversely, they should disinvest if the expected annual profits of any resource, discounted at the company's required earnings rate, are less than the cash that could be realized from its sale.
- The purpose of relating profits to investments is to motivate business unit managers to accomplish these objectives.

# Example for ROI calculation

EXHIBIT 7.1 Business Unit Financial Statements	EXHIBIT 7.1	<b>Business Unit</b>	<b>Financial Statements</b>
--	-------------	----------------------	-----------------------------

aployed are avalogous to the purposes we		e Sheet 00s)	
Current assets:	Chapt	Current liabilities:	
Cash	\$ 50	Accounts payable	\$ 90
Receivables	150	Other current	110
Total current assets	400	Total current liabilities	200
Fixed assets:			
Cost		Corporate equity	500
Book value	300		
Total assets	\$700	Total equities	\$700
		tatement	
Revenue		Pocusing on propes with	\$1,000
Expenses except depreciation	\$850		\$1,000
Income before taxes	30		900
Capital charge (\$500 * 10%)	A. Roess	the capital that the company	50
Economic value added (EVA)	ergera	the capital that the company \$10 million of capital does no million in a company that h	50
Return on investment = $\frac{$100}{$500}$ = 20%		on Janii yusqimoo s ni norllimi iqukin valimis kavari ashmaq by the differe askir i imboma suli assibbliter 5. In other b	

#### ROI

- Return on investment (ROI) is a ratio.
- The numerator is income, as reported on the income statement.
- The denominator is assets employed.
  - In Exhibit 7.1, the **denominator** is taken as the **corporation's equity** in the business unit.
- This amount corresponds to the sum of noncurrent liabilities plus shareholders' equity
  - in the balance sheet of a separate company.
  - It is mathematically equivalent to total assets less current liabilities, and
  - to noncurrent assets plus working capital.

## **EVA**

- Economic value added (EVA) is a dollar amount, rather than a ratio.
- It is found by subtracting a capital charge from the net operating profit.
- This capital charge is found by multiplying the amount of assets employed by a rate,
  - which is **10 percent** in Exhibit 7.1.

# Measuring Assets Employed

In deciding what **investment base** to **use** to **evaluate** investment center managers, headquarters asks **two questions**:

- First, what practices will induce business unit managers to use their assets most efficiently and to acquire the proper amount and kind of new assets?
  - Presumably, when their **profits** are **related** to **assets** employed, business unit managers **will try** to **improve** their **performance** as **measured** in this way.
- Senior management wants the actions that they take toward this end to be in the best interest of the whole corporation.
- Second, what practices best measure the performance of the unit as an economic entity?

# Cash

- Most companies control cash centrally because central control
  permits use of a smaller cash balance than would be the case if each
  business unit held the cash balances it needed to weather the
  unevenness of its cash inflows and outflows.
- the actual cash balances at the business unit level tend to be much smaller than would be required if the business unit were an independent company.
- Many companies therefore use a formula to calculate the cash to be included in the investment base.
  - For example, General Motors was reported to use 4.5 percent of annual sales;
  - Du Pont was reported to use two months' costs of sales minus depreciation.

# Receivables

- Business unit managers can influence the level of receivables indirectly,
  - by their ability to generate sales, and
- directly,
  - by establishing credit terms and approving individual credit accounts and credit limits
- In the interest of simplicity, receivables often are included at the actual end-of-period balances,
- although the average of intraperiod balances is conceptually a better measure of the amount that should be related to profits.

# **Inventories**

- Inventories ordinarily are treated in a manner similar to receivables
- that is, they are often recorded at end-of-period amounts
  - even though intraperiod averages would be preferable conceptually.
- If the company uses LIFO (last in, first out) for financial accounting purposes,
  - a different valuation method usually is used for business unit profit reporting
  - because LIFO inventory balances tend to be unrealistically low in periods of inflation.
- In these circumstances, inventories should be valued at standard or average costs, and these same costs should be used to measure cost of sales on the business unit income statement

# **Inventories**

- If work-in-process inventory is financed by advance payments or by progress payments from the customer,
  - as is typically the case with goods that require a long manufacturing period,
- these payments either are subtracted from the gross inventory amounts or reported as liabilities.

## **Inventories**

- Some companies subtract accounts payable from inventory on the grounds that accounts payable represent financing of part of the inventory by vendors,
  - at zero cost to the business unit.
- The corporate capital required for inventories is only the difference between the gross inventory amount and accounts payable.
- If the business unit can influence the payment period allowed by vendors,
  - then including accounts payable in the calculation encourages the manager to seek the most favorable terms

# Working Capital in General

- The treatment of working capital items varies greatly.
- At one extreme, companies include all current assets in the investment base
  - with no offset for any current liabilities.
- This method is sound from a motivational standpoint if the business units cannot influence accounts payable or other current liabilities.
- It does overstate the amount of corporate capital required to finance the business unit,
  - however, because the current liabilities are a source of capital, often at zero interest cost

# Working Capital in General

- At the other extreme,
- all current liabilities may be deducted from current assets,
  - as was done in calculating the investment base in Exhibit 7.1.
- This **method** provides a **good measure** of the **capital** provided by the corporation, on which it **expects** the **business unit** to **earn** a **return**.
- However, it may imply that business unit managers are responsible for certain current liabilities
- over which they have no control.

# Property, Plant, and Equipment

- In financial accounting, fixed assets are initially recorded at their acquisition cost, and
- this cost is written off over the asset's useful life through depreciation.
- Most companies use a similar approach in measuring profitability of the business unit's asset base.
- This **causes** some **serious problems** in using the system for its intended purposes.

#### EXHIBIT 7.3 Incorrect Motivation for Asset Acquisition (\$000)

<b>A</b> .	Economic calculation Investment in machine	<u>102.4</u>		
В.	As reflected on business unit income statement	As in Exhibit 7.1		First Year with Machine
	Revenue	<u>900</u> 100	\$823 	\$1,000  \[ \begin{array}{c} \text{893} \\ \text{107} \\ \text{60} \\ \text{47} \end{array}

Note: Income taxes are not shown separately for simplicity. Assume they are included in the calculation of the cash flow.

<sup>\*3.791</sup> is the present value of \$1 per year for five years at 10 percent.

<sup>†</sup>Capital charge on the new machine is calculated at its beginning book value, which for the first year is \$100 \* 10% = 10. We have used the beginning-of-the-year book value for simplicity. Many companies use the average book value— $(100 + 80) \div 2 = 90$ . The results will be similar.

# Property, Plant, and Equipment

- If **profitability** is measured by **return on investment**, the same **inconsistency exists**,
  - as the last column of Exhibit 7.4 shows.
- Although we know from the present value calculation that the true return is about 11 percent,
- the business unit financial statement reports that it is less than 10 percent in the first year and increases thereafter.
- the average of the five annual percentages shown is 16 percent,
  - which far exceeds what we know to be the true annual return.
- It is **evident** that if **depreciable assets** are included in the investment base at net book value, business unit **profitability** is **misstated**, and
- business unit managers may not be motivated to make correct acquisition decisions.

# Acquisition of New Equipment

- Suppose a business unit could buy a new machine for \$100,000.
- This machine is estimated to produce cash savings of \$27,000 a year for five years.
- If the company has a **required return** of **10 percent**, the **investment** is **attractive**,
  - as the calculations in section A of Exhibit 7.3 illustrate.
- The proposed investment has a net present value of \$2,400 and, therefore, should be undertaken.
- However, if the machine is purchased and the business unit measures its asset base as shown in Exhibit 7.1, the unit's reported economic value added will decrease, rather than increase, in the first year.

EXHIBIT 7.4 Effect of Acquisition on Reported Annual Profits (\$000)

Year	Book Value at Beginning of Year (a)	Incremental Income* (b)	Capital Charge <sup>†</sup> (c)	EVA (b – c)	ROI b ÷ a
1	100	7	10	-3	7%
2	80	7	8	-1	9
3	60	7	6	1	12
4	40	7	4	3	18
5	20	7	2	5	35

Note: True return = approximately 11 percent.

<sup>\*\$27,000</sup> cash inflow - \$20,000 depreciation = \$7,000.

<sup>†10</sup> percent of beginning book value.

# Property, Plant, and Equipment

- Exhibit 7.4 shows how, in later years, the amount of economic value added will increase as the book value of the machine declines,
  - going from -\$3,000 in year 1 to +\$5,000 in year 5.
- The increase in economic value added each year does not represent real economic change.
- Although there appears to be constantly improving profitability,
- in fact there is no real change in profitability after the year the machine was acquired.

#### **Generalizing** from this example:

• it is evident that business units that have old, almost fully depreciated assets will tend to report larger economic value added than units that have newer assets.

## Gross Book Value

- The **fluctuation** in **economic value added** and **return on investment** from year to year in Exhibit 7.4 can be **avoided** by
- including depreciable assets in the investment base at gross book value rather than at net book value.
- Some companies do this.
- If this were done in this case, the **investment** each year would be \$100,000 (original cost), and
- the additional income would be \$7,000
  - \$27,000 cash inflow \$20,000 depreciation

# Gross Book Value

- The economic value added, however, would decrease by \$3,000 (\$7,000 \$10,000 interest), and
- return on investment would be **7 percent** (\$7,000/\$100,000).
- Both of these numbers indicate that the business unit's profitability has decreased, which, in fact, is not true.

#### **Conclusion:**

 Return on investment calculated on gross book value always understates the true return.

# Disposition of Assets

- If a **new machine** is being **considered** to **replace** an **existing machine** that has some **undepreciated book value**,
- we know that this undepreciated book value is irrelevant in the economic analysis of the proposed purchase
  - except indirectly as it may affect income taxes
- Removing the book value of the old machine can substantially affect the calculation of business unit profitability

# Disposition of Assets

- Gross book value will increase only by the difference
  - between the net book value after year 1 of the new machine and
  - the net book value of the old machine.
- In either case, the relevant amount of additional investment is understated, and
- the economic value added is correspondingly overstated.
- This encourages managers to replace old equipment with new equipment,
  - even when replacement is not economically justified.

# Disposition of Assets

- In sum,
- if assets are included in the investment base at their original cost,
- then the business unit manager is motivated to get rid of them
  - —even if they have some usefulness—
- because the business unit's investment base is reduced by the full cost of the asset.

## Leased Assets

- Suppose the business unit
  - whose financial statements are shown in Exhibit 7.1
- sold its fixed assets for their book value of \$300,000,
- returned the proceeds of the sale to corporate headquarters, and then leased back the assets at a rental rate of \$60,000 per year.
- As Exhibit 7.8 shows, the business unit's income before taxes would decrease
  - because the new rental expense would be higher than the depreciation charge that was eliminated
- Nevertheless, economic valued added would increase because the higher cost would be more than offset by the decrease in the capital charge.

# **Leased Assets**

EXHIBIT 7.8 Effect of Leasing Assets

Incor	ne Statem (\$000)	ent		
has a much smaller positive impact on eu	As in E	xhibit 7.1	If Assets	Are Leased
Revenue		\$1000		\$1,000
Expenses other than below	\$850		\$850	
Depreciation		900		
Rental expense		animaen manime	_60	910
Income before taxes		100	anila0	90
Capital charge \$500 * 10%		50		
\$200 * 10%		eniati <mark>e bite e</mark> t		20
EVA		50		

# **Leased Assets**

- Because of this,
- business unit managers are induced
- to lease, rather than own, assets
- whenever the interest charge that is built into the rental cost is less than the capital charge
  - that is applied to the business unit's investment base.

#### This generalization oversimplifies

 because, in the real world, the impact of income taxes must also be taken into account

# Idle Assets

- If a **business unit** has **idle assets** that **can** be used by **other units**, it may be **permitted** to **exclude** them from the **investment base** 
  - if it **classifies** them as **available**.
- The purpose of this permission is to encourage business unit managers to release underutilized assets to units that may have better use for them.
- However, if the fixed assets cannot be used by other units,
- permitting the business unit manager
- to remove them from the investment base could result in dysfunctional actions

# Intangible Assets

- Some companies tend to be R&D intensive
  - e.g., pharmaceutical firms such as Novartis spend huge amounts on developing new products
- others tend to be marketing intensive
  - e.g., consumer products firms such as Unilever spend **huge amounts** on **advertising**
- There are advantages to capitalizing intangible assets such as R&D and marketing and then amortizing them over a selected life.
- This method should change how the business unit manager views these expenditures.
- By accounting for these assets as long-term investments,
  - the **business** unit **manager** will **gain less short-term benefit** from reducing **outlays** on such items.

# **Noncurrent Liabilities**

• Ordinarily, a business unit **receives** its **permanent capital** from the **corporate pool** of **funds**.

- The corporation obtained these funds from
  - debt providers, equity investors, and retained earnings.

• To the business unit, the total amount of these funds is relevant but not the sources from which they were obtained.

# **Noncurrent Liabilities**

- In unusual situations, however, a business unit's financing may be specific to its own situation.
  - For example, a business unit that builds or operates residential housing or office buildings uses a much larger proportion of debt capital than would a typical manufacturing or marketing unit.
- Since this capital is obtained through mortgage loans on the business unit's assets,
- it may be appropriate to account for the borrowed funds separately and to compute an economic value added
  - based on the assets obtained from general corporate sources
  - rather than on total assets

# The Capital Charge

- Corporate headquarters sets the rate used to calculate the capital charge.
- It should be higher than the corporation's rate for debt financing
  - because the funds involved are a mixture of debt and higher-cost equity.
- Usually, the rate is set somewhat below the company's estimated cost of capital
- so that the economic value added of an average business unit will be above zero

# The Capital Charge

- Some companies use a lower rate for working capital than for fixed assets.
- This may represent a judgment that working capital is less risky than fixed assets because the funds are committed for a shorter time period.
- In other cases, the lower rate is a way to compensate for the fact that the company included inventory and receivables in the investment base at their gross amount
  - i.e., without a **deduction** for **accounts payable**
- It recognizes the fact that funds obtained from accounts payable have zero interest cost

## **EVA**

**EVA** is **measured** as follows:

**EVA** = **Net profit** - **Capital charge** 

where

Capital charge = Cost of capital \* Capital employed (1)

**Another way** to state the equation would be:

EVA = Capital employed \* (ROI - Cost of capital) (2)

# The following actions can increase EVA as shown in the equation (2):

- (i) increase in ROI through business process reengineering and productivity gains, without increasing the asset base;
- (ii) divestment of assets, products, and/or businesses whose ROI is less than the cost of capital;
- (iii) aggressive new investments in assets, products, and/or businesses whose ROI exceeds the cost of capital; and
- (iv) increase in sales, profit margins, or capital efficiency (ratio of sales to capital employed), or decrease in cost of capital percentage, without affecting the other variables in equation (2).
- These actions clearly are in the best interests of shareholders

## Differences between ROI and EVA

- Assume that the company's required rate of return for investing in fixed assets is 10 percent after taxes, and
- that the companywide cost of money tied up in inventories and receivables is 4 percent after taxes.
- The top section of Exhibit 7.12 shows the ROI calculation.
- Columns (1) through (5) show the amount of investment in assets that each business unit budgeted for the coming year.
- Column (6) is the amount of budgeted profit.
- Column (7) is the budgeted profit divided by the budgeted investment;
  - therefore, this column, shows the ROI objectives for the coming year for each of the business units.

# Differences between ROI and EVA

EXHIBIT 7.12 Difference between ROI and EVA (\$000)

ROI Method							
Business Unit	(1) Cash	(2) Receivables	(3) Inventories	(4) Fixed Assets	(5) Total Investment	(6) Budgeted Profit	(7) ROI Objective (6) ÷ (5)
A DOM	\$10	\$20	\$30	\$60	\$120	\$24.0	20%
100 B	20	20	30	50	120	14.4	12
or Colego	0 15 0	40	40	10	105	10.5	10
D	5	10	20	40	75	3.8	5
E	10	5	10	10	35	(1.8)	(5)

	ASPECULATION SHOP	
FILA	Method	
- 1/4	MATHOR	٧
F 4/4	IVICTION	4

formal a		Current Assets			F	ixed Asse	Vident capital in	
(1) Business Profit Unit Potentia		(2) Amount	(3) Rate	(4) Required Earnings	(5) Amount	(6) Rate	(7) Required Earnings	Budgeted EVA (1) - [(4) + (7)]
Α	24.0	\$60	4%	\$2.4	\$60	10%	\$6.0	\$15.6
В	14.4	70	4	2.8	50	10	5.0	6.6
C	10.5	95	4	3.8	10	10	1.0	5.7
D	3.8	35	4	1.4	40	10	4.0	(1.6)
ri a Erousta	(1.8)	25	4	1.0	10	10	1.0	(3.8)

- Only in Business Unit C is the ROI objective consistent with the companywide cutoff rate, and
- in no unit is the objective consistent with the companywide 4
  percent cost of carrying current assets.
- Business Unit A would decrease either current or fixed assets,
- whereas Units D and E would benefit from investments with a much lower return.

- EVA corrects these inconsistencies.
- The investments,
  - multiplied by the appropriate rates (representing the companywide rates),
     are
- subtracted from the budgeted profit.
- The resulting amount is the budgeted EVA.
- Periodically, the actual EVA is calculated by subtracting from the actual profits the actual investment multiplied by the appropriate rates

If **Business Unit A** earned \$28,000 and employed average current **assets** of \$65,000 and average fixed assets of \$65,000,

its **actual EVA** would be **calculated** as follows:

This is **\$3,300** (\$18,900 - \$15,600) **better** than its **objective**.

- If any business unit earns more than 10 percent on added fixed assets, it will increase its EVA.
- In the cases of C and D, the additional profit will decrease the amount of negative EVA,
  - which amounts to the same thing.
- A similar result occurs for current assets.
- Inventory decision rules will be based on a cost of 4 percent for financial carrying charges.
- In this way the financial decision rules of the business units will be consistent with those of the company

## **EVA** solution

- EVA solves the problem of differing profit objectives for the same asset in different business units and
- the same profit objective for different assets in the same unit.

- For example, assume the capital investment decision rules call for a 10 percent return on general-purpose assets and a 15 percent return on special-purpose assets.
  - Business unit fixed assets can be classified accordingly, and different rates applied when measuring performance.
  - Managers may be reluctant to invest in improved working conditions,
     pollution-control measures, or other social goals
    - if they **perceive** them to be **unprofitable**.