# Accounting basics: inventory, working capital and cash generation

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In this section we will dig into some accounting basics, which are required for a good understanding of the main text in the book. To better understand the link between inventory, working capital and cash generation, we will introduce and explain the three key financial statements of any publicly listed company: the profit and loss statement (P&L), the balance sheet and the statement of cash flows.

### The profit and loss statement (P&L)

Figure 11.4 shows a simplified P&L of an example company. Let's discuss how the different lines 'Sales Revenue' minus the 'Cost of Goods Sold' define the 'Gross Profit'. The 'Cost of Goods Sold' (COGS) includes the 'direct material costs', which is the cost of the raw materials and components going into the finished goods, the 'direct labour cost', which is any cost that can be directly allocated to the production of a specific product, for instance the line operators. The COGS also includes the manufacturing overhead, which can be variable (changing with the volume produced) or fixed (independent of the volume produced). The overhead can include the cost of the process engineering, the planning department etc. Costs that are not linked to the manufacturing of the finished product are grouped into a category called the 'Selling, General and Administrative' costs, or SG&A.

The 'EBITDA' are the 'Earnings Before Interest, Taxes, Depreciation and Amortization'. If a company invests in a new production facility or a new warehouse, the cost of that investment is spread over its lifetime. This means we can do a  $\in 10$  million investment this year, and spread the cost over 20 years, i.e.  $\notin 500$ k per year. This is called a 'Depreciation'. If a company invests time or money in the creation of new products or services (R&D) the cost of that investment can also be spread over the lifetime of the product. The yearly cost is called an 'Amortization'. Notice that a depreciation or an amortization is not a cash out as of year 2. The only cash out is in year 1, when we do the investment.

The P&L traces all the revenues and all costs during a period, typically a quarter, a semester or a year. Subtracting all the costs from the revenues that relate to a given period gives the 'Net Income' or the 'Net Profit'. The 'Earnings Per Share' (EPS) shows the net income per share in the given period.

### The balance sheet

The balance sheet shows all that a company 'owns' at a specific moment in time (typically at the end of a year). What a company owns are called the 'Assets'. They are shown in Figure 11.5. The 'Current Assets' can be converted into cash in the short term, typically less than a year. Important components of the current assets are the 'cash' we have in the bank, the 'Accounts Receivable', which is the money we still need to receive from our customers. The 'Inventory' is also part of the current assets. The 'Fixed Assets' cannot easily be converted into cash. An example are the plants, the properties and the equipment in which we have invested in the past.

The balance sheet also shows the financing of these assets. This is shown in Figure 11.6. When starting a company, the owners will invest a certain amount of money. This is the 'Paid-in Capital'. When the company makes a profit, part of the profit can be returned to the shareholders via a dividend. The shareholders can decide to leave part of the profit in the company as so-called 'Retained Earnings'. So part of the financing of the assets comes from the so called 'Owners Equity' (paid-in capital + retained earnings). A second part of the financing is summarized as 'Liabilities'. 'Current liabilities'

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comp
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of an e>
(P&L)
loss
Profit and
11.4
Figure

Profit and Loss (2020)				Cost the
Sales Revenue	φ	75,600		e.g. pur
Cost of Goods Sold (COGS)	φ	-52,920		•
Gross Profit	φ	22,680	30%	Cost tha
Selling, General and Administrative (SG&A) Expenses	φ	-15,120		★ directly sale, e.g
Earnings Before Interest, Taxes, Depreciation and Amortization (EBITDA)	ψ	7,560	10%	
Depreciation	φ	-3,024		Investr
Amortization	Ψ	I		for insta
Earnings Before Interest, Taxes (EBIT)	φ	4,536	6%	implies of the tr
Taxes and Interest	θ	-2,646		depreciá
Net Income / Net Profit	ψ	1,890	3%	The actu when th
Earnings Per Share (e.g. 1000 shares)	θ	1.89		

Cost that can be directly attributed to the sale, e.g. purchasing cost. Cost that can NOT be directly attributed to the sale, e.g. marketing costs. 'Investments' in e.g. warehouses are 'depreciated' for instance of 20 years. This implies we account for 1/20th of the total cost each year. A depreciation is not a 'cash-out'. The actual cash has been spent when the warehouse was built.

Figure 11.5 Explaining the 'asset' side of the balance sheet of an example company

	Balance Sheet (31/12/2	20'	19)			
	Assets			Liabilities and Owner's E	qui	ty
Current consta con ha	Current Assets			Owner's Equity		
converted in money on the short-term.	Cash	€	6,600	Paid-in Capital	€	15,000
	Accounts Receivable —	€	6,200	Retained Earnings	€	800
	Inventories	€	£ 5,000			
'short-term'.	Total Current Assets	€	€ 17,800	Total Owner's Equity	€	15,800
}	Fixed Assets			Liabilities		
Eixed assets are	Property Plant Equipment	€	20,000	Current Liabilities		
more difficult to				Accounts Payable	€	8,000
convert in cash. They are		Γ		Short-Term Bank Loans	€	4,000
		Γ		Long-Term Liabilities		
'long-term' assets.		Γ		Long-Term Bank Loans	€	10,000
-	Total Fixed Assets	€	€ 20,000	Total Liabilities	€	22,000
	Total Assets	€	£ 37,800		€	37,800

Accounts Receivable = Turnover that has been invoiced to the customer, but has not yet been paid. e.g. partners that pay at 30 days or 60 days, e.g. consumers that buy on credit of 30 days.

are due in the short term. The 'Accounts Payable', which is the money still to be paid to suppliers, is part of the 'Current Liabilities'. Any type of shortterm debt will also be part of the 'current liabilities'. Investments in 'fixed assets' (such as, plants, warehouses) are typically financed by long-term loans. These are part of the 'Long-Term Liabilities'.

### EXERCISE

Understanding the profit and loss, balance sheet

Look at the latest financial reports from your company and two other key competitors. From the P&L compare revenue, cost of goods, SG&A, EBITDA, depreciation and amortization, EBIT, net income and earnings per share. What do you learn about your profitability compared to your two key competitors? From the balance sheet compare the following metrics:

current ratio = current assets / current liabilities
debt ratio = total debt / total assets

The current ratio is what we call a 'liquidity measure'. It explains how easily the short term liabilities can be returned from the short term assets like receivables and cash. A ratio below one indicates a lack of liquidity. The debt ratio indicates how much of the total assets is financed by debt (= liabilities) versus equity. Less debt financing, or a so-called 'lower leverage', makes it easier to get extra debt financing.

Figure 11.6 Explaining the liabilities and owners equity side of the balance sheet of an example company

Balance Sheet (31/12	/20	019)					
Assets			Liabilities and Owner's	Εqι	uity		
Current Assets			Owner's Equity				The Owner's Equity consists of
Cash	€	6,600	Paid-in Capital	€	15,000		the cash investments made in
Accounts Receivable	€	6,200	Retained Earnings	€	800	l	the company by the
Inventories	€	5,000				ſ	shareholders + any earnings
Total Current Assets	€	17,800	Total Owner's Equity	€	15,800		that have not been paid as a dividend
Fixed Assets			Liabilities				arridona
Property Plant Equipment	€	20,000	Current Liabilities				Current Liabilities are
	_		Accounts Payable	€	8,000	Ì	payable on the
			Short-Term Bank Loans	€	4,000		snort-term
			Long-Term Liabilities			7	Long-Term Liabilities
			Long-Term Bank Loans	€	10,000	ſ	are payable on the
Total Fixed Assets	€	20,000	Total Liabilities	€	22,000	_	long-term
Total Assets	€	37,800		€	37,800		

Accounts Payable = Costs that have been made and accounted for in the P&L, but that still need to be paid, e.g, we pay our suppliers only after 30 days or 60 days.

### The statement of cash flows

The 'statement of cash flows' explains the difference in the cash position at the end of the previous period and the end of the current period. As explained when discussing the P&L, a depreciation of an investment is not a cash out as of year 2. As a result, when starting from the net profit, we need to add the depreciation (and the amortization) if we want to know the actual cash generation (or consumption). If our accounts receivable have decreased, e.g. from  $\in 6,200$  at the end of the previous period, to  $\in 5,000$  at the end of the current period, we have been able to 'collect'  $\in 1,200$  of cash from our customers. As a result, a decrease in the accounts receivable generates cash. An increase in the accounts receivable will consume cash. Likewise, a reduction in Inventory and an increase in the accounts payable, will generate cash.

Figure 11.7 shows the 'statement of cash flows' for our example company. The net income is  $\in$ 1,890. We have a depreciation of  $\in$ 3,024. Assuming the investment has been done in earlier years, this is not a cash out, so we can add it to the net income. Apparently over this period, our accounts receivable have increased, our Inventory has increased, and our accounts payable have decreased. As a result the cash we generated:  $\in$ 1,890 +  $\in$ 3,024 has been consumed by the increase in the receivables and the inventory and a reduction in the payables. In fact the cash generated is not sufficient. There is a deficit of  $-\in$ 1,586. This deficit will lower the cash we have available in the bank. If we don't have

Statement of Cash Flows (202	D)		The net income or net profit is not equal to the
Net Income	€ 1,890		cash we have generated.
+ Depreciation Expense	€ 3,024		For example, as already explained, a depreciation
+ Decrease in Accounts Receivable	€ -3,000	ך	is not a 'cash-out'. The cash has been spent when
+ Decrease in Inventory	€ –2 <b>,500</b>	┢	the investment was initially done. As such, to
+ Increase in Accounts Payable	€ –1,000		calculate the actual cash generation, we add the
Cash Flow from Operations	€ –1,586		
			If I decrease my inventory (e.g., from €5,000 at the end of 2012 to €4,000 then at the end of 2013 then I generate cash. Likewise, if I decrease my AR (money to receive from customers), or increase my AP (money still to pay to suppliers) I also generate cash

#### Figure 11.7 The statement of cash flows for our example company

enough cash in the bank account, we'll need to extend our loans or ask shareholders to increase the capital to finance this deficit.

There is a saying that companies don't go bankrupt from making a loss. They go bankrupt from a lack of cash. The statement of cash flows is instrumental in understanding which are the cash generating versus the cash consuming factors over a given accounting period.

Figure 11.7 shows the so-called 'cash flow from operations'. We can also generate or consume cash from 'investing activities' and from 'financing activities'. The above mentioned investment in a new production facility or warehouse will typically be explained in the 'cash flow from investments'. This is a second and separate part of the overall statement of cash flows. If we make an investment of  $\in$ 10 million in year 1, it will show the  $\in$ 10 million here. If we depreciate over 20 years, we only show  $\in$ 500k in the P&L. That  $\in$ 500k is not an extra cash-out, so it should be added to the net income in the 'Operations' part of the statement of cash flows.

Roughly speaking the 'free cash flow' (FCF) equals the cash flow from operations minus the 'capital expenditures'. A capital expenditure is any investment in non-financial assets, like a new production facility or warehouse. It is called the 'free' cash flow, as it represents the cash that is available to all security holders, the holders of equity and the holders of debt. It is the cash flow that can be used to pay dividends, and to pay interest.

The exact definition of the 'free cash flow' (FCF) takes the 'interest' out, as interest is money returned to the holders of debt. That makes it a bit more complicated. The resulting definition is as follows:

$$FCF = EBIT \times (1 \text{-tax rate}) + D&A - \Delta WC - CAPEX$$

Where EBIT × (1-tax rate) is also called the net operating profit after tax (NOPAT), the D&A are the depreciation and amortization, the  $\Delta$ WC are the

changes in working capital and the CAPEX are the capital expenditures as just explained.

If we do a big investment, all or part of the investment may be financed by a new loan, or a capital increase by the shareholders. This financing is typically shown in the 'cash flow from financing'. That is the third and last part of the overall 'statement of cash flows'.

Figure 11.8 shows that the statement of cash flows can also be derived from comparing the balance sheet at the end of the previous and the current period. The depreciation shows as a reduction of the fixed assets. To come back to our example, each year we account for  $\notin$ 500k in the P&L. In the balance sheet we reduce the value of the corresponding asset by  $\notin$ 500k each year. The comparison also shows the increase in the receivables and the inventory, the decrease in the payables. The cash deficit of  $-\notin$ 1,586 shows as a reduction of the cash balance from  $\notin$ 600 to  $\notin$ 5,014.

### EXERCISE

Understanding the cash flow statement

Take the latest two financial reports from your company and two key competitors. Try to derive the cash flow statement by comparing the balance sheets of the last two years, as shown in Figure 11.8. Compare your result with the cash flow statement in the financial reports. Try to understand any differences.

Take a step back and review the following questions: which activities have generated cash, which have been consuming cash. Was there a net cash generation or consumption? Review for your company and the two key competitors.

### Working capital

Working capital is defined as the current asset minus the current liabilities. Figure 11.9 shows the working capital for our example company is  $\notin$ 5,800. Throughout the year, our working capital can go up and down as the underlying components go up and down. The working capital represents the capital we need to have smooth operations. You can consider it the oil into our operational engine.

Figure 11.9 also shows that our working capital is in fact financed by the 'owners equity' and the 'long-term liabilities'. These do not come for free. We typically have an interest on the 'long-term liabilities'. If we pay five per

Balance Sheet (31/12/2	019)	Ĩ	€ 1,586 cash	ce Sheet (31/12/20	20)			
Assets		Liabilities and Ow +	€ 3,000 receiva	bles		Liabilities and Owner's Equity		
		+	€ 2.500 invento					
Current Assets		Owner's Equity		t Assets		Owner's Equity		
Cash	€ 6,600	Paid-in Capital	€ 15,000	Cash	€ 5,014	Paid-in Capital	φ	15,000
Accounts Receivable	€ 6,200	Retained Earnings	€ 800	Accounts Receivable	€ 9,200	Retained Earnings	φ	2,690
nventories	€ 5,000			Inventories	€ 7,500			
Total Current Assets	€ 17,800	Total Owner's Eq +	.€3.024 deprec	iation urrent f		I Owner's Equity	ψ	17,690
			-	– € 1,000 i	n payables			
-ixed Assets		Liabilities		Fixed Assets		<del>Liabilities</del>		
Property Plant Equipment	€ 20,000	Current Liabilities		Preperty Plant Equipment	€ 16,976	Current Liabilities		
		Accounts Payable	€ 8,000 √			Accounts Payable	φ	7,000
		Short-Term Bank Loan:	s € 4,000			Short-Term Bank Loans	Ψ	4,000
		Long-Term Liabilities				Long-Term Liabilities		
		Long-Term Bank Loans	s € 10,000			Long-Term Bank Loans	Ψ	10,000
Fotal Fixed Assets	€ 20,000	Total Liabilities	€ 22,000	Total Fixed Assets	€ 16,976	Total Liabilities	ψ	21,000
otal Assets	€ 37,800		€ 37,800	Total Assets	€ 38,690		Ψ	38,690

Deriving the statement of cash flows from the balance sheet at the end of the previous and the current period Figure 11.8

		-1		-		ſ
Balance Sheet (31/12/2	01	9)				
Assets			Liabilities and Owner's I	qu	ity	
Current Assets			Owner's Equity			
Cash	€	6,600	Paid-in Capital	€	15,000	-
Accounts Receivable	€	6,200	Retained Earnings	€	800	-
Inventories	€	5,000				€17,800 - €12,000 = €5,800
Total Current Assets	€	17,800	Total Owner's Equity	€	15,800	
Fixed Assets			Liabilities			-
Property Plant Equipment	€	20,000	Current Liabilities			
			Accounts Payable	€	8,000	
			Short-Term Bank Loans	€	4,000	
			Long-Term Liabilities			-
			Long-Term Bank Loans	€	10,000	
Total Fixed Assets	€	20,000	Total Liabilities	€	22,000	
Total Assets	€	37,800		€	37,800	

#### Figure 11.9 Deriving the 'working capital' for our example company

cent to the bank, our shareholders will typically expect a higher return, like a 15 per cent. Without explaining the details, there is a financial metric which is called the 'weighted average cost of capital' or 'WACC'. This WACC weighs the different types of debt and their corresponding return. For manufacturing and retail companies it typically varies between 8–12 per cent.

Figure 11.10 shows that the 'working capital' in our company has increased over the last period, from  $\notin$ 5,800 to  $\notin$ 10,714. Our 'current liabilities' decreased with  $\notin$ 1,000. Our 'current assets' increased with  $\notin$ 3,914.

### Working capital and supply chain

Figure 11.11 shows the primary components of the working capital on which we have an impact from the supply chain:

- Inventory: lowering inventories generates cash.
- Accounts receivable: reducing payment terms to clients or improving collection speed, generates cash.
- Account payable: increasing payment terms to suppliers, also generates cash.

'Days of Inventory on Hand' (DIOH), 'Inventory Turns', 'Days of Sales Outstanding' (DSO) and 'Days of Payables Outstanding' (DPO) are financial metrics that are commonly used to measure and follow-up these key components of the working capital. They are defined and applied to our example company in Figure 11.12. Notice that for the DSO it is common to

Balance Sheet (31/12/201	(6			Balance Sheet (31/12/2020				
Assets		Liabilities and Owner's Ec	quity	Assets		Liabilities and Owner's Equity		
Current Assets		Owner's Equity		Current Assets		Owner's Equity		
Cash	€ 6,600	Paid-in Capital	€ 15,000	Cash	€ 5,014	Paid-in Capital	φ	15,000
Accounts Receivable	€ 6,200	Retained Earnings	€ 800	Accounts Receivable	€ 9,200	Retained Earnings	Ψ	2,690
Inventories	€ 5,000			Inventories	€ 7,500			
Total Current Assets	€ 17,800	Total Owner's Equity	€ 15,800	Total Current Assets	€ 21,714	Total Owner's Equity	¢	17,690
Fixed Assets		Liabilities		Fixed Assets		Liabilities		
Property Plant Equipment	€ 20,000	Current Liabilities		Property Plant Equipment	€ 16,976	Current Liabilities		
		Accounts Payable	€ 8,000			Accounts Payable	ψ	7,000
		Short-Term Bank Loans	€ 4,000			Short-Term Bank Loans	Ψ	4,000
		Long-Term Liabilities				Long-Term Liabilities		
		Long-Term Bank Loans	€ 10,000			Long-Term Bank/Loans	φ	10,000
Total Fixed Assets	€ 20,000	Total Liabilities	€ 22,000	Total Fixed Assets	€ 16,976	Total Liabilitigs	Ψ	21,000
Total Assets	€ 37,800		€ 37,800	Total Assets	€ 38,690		Э	38,690
€17,800 – ŧ	£12,000 =	= €5,800		€21,714 – €1	11,000 = €	10,714		
			+ +	4,914				

Figure 11.10 'Working capital' increase in our example company

## Figure 11.11 Supply chain components of working capital for our example company

Balance Sheet (31/12	/2	019)					
Assets				Liabilities and Owner's I	Ξqι	uity	
Current Assets	-		t	Owner's Equity			
Cash	€	6,600	1	Paid-in Capital	€	15,000	
Accounts Receivable	€	6,200	Π	Retained Earnings	€	800	
Inventories	€	5,000					Þ
Total Current Assets	€	17,800		Total Owner's Equity	€	15,800	
Fixed Assets			Ħ	Liabilities			
Property Plant Equipment	€	20,000	Π	Current Liabilities	_		i.
			Π	Accounts Payable	€	8,000	
			Ī	Short-Term Bank Loans	€	4,000	ſ.
			٦	Long-Term Liabilities			ľ
			Π	Long-Term Bank Loans	€	10,000	
Total Fixed Assets	€	20,000		Total Liabilities	€	22,000	
Total Assets	€	37,800	t		€	37,800	

Sales, logistics, manufacturing and procurement primarily have impact on:

- Inventory
- Accounts receivable (defined by payment terms for customers and speed of collection)
- Accounts payable (defined by payment terms for customers and respecting due dates)

#### Figure 11.12 DPO, DSO, DIOH and inventory turns for our example company

 $DSO = \frac{\textcircled{0}9,200}{\textcircled{0}75,600 / yr} \cdot 365 \ days / yr = 44 \ days$  $DPO = \frac{\textcircled{0}7,000}{\textcircled{0}52,920 / yr} \cdot 365 \ days / yr = 48 \ days$  $DIOH = \frac{\textcircled{0}7,500}{\textcircled{0}52,920 / yr} \cdot 365 \ days / yr = 52 \ days$  $Inventory \ Turns = \frac{\textcircled{0}52,920 / yr}{\textcircled{0}7,500} = 7 / yr$ 

#### Figure 11.13 Definition of CCC and application to our example company



divide by the net sales, whereas for the DPO, the DIOH and the inventory turns it is common to divide by the cost of goods sold. We see that different companies use different definitions, for instance excluding the labour cost and just looking at the direct material cost when calculating the DPO. We suggest to stick to commonly used standards to make comparisons across companies easier.

Another commonly used metric is the so-called 'cash conversion cycle' or the CCC. Figure 11.13 shows its definition and the application to our example company. The CCC indicates the number of days between disbursing cash to suppliers and collecting cash from customers. It is a direct measurement of the key components of the working capital. Reducing the CCC lowers the working capital and generates cash. Increasing the CCC increases the working capital and consumes cash.

#### EXERCISE

Understanding working capital and the cash conversion cycle

From the latest two financial reports from your company and two key competitors, derive the working capital from the last two years as shown in Figure 11.13. Calculate and compare the cash conversion cycle using Figure 11.12 and Figure 11.13. Who has been generating cash from working capital? Who has consumed cash? Do we understand why and how? Which is a sign of weakness or strength?