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THE EFFECT OF THE FIRM'S CAPITAL STRUCTURE ON THE SYSTEMATIC RISK OF COMMON STOCKS

ROBERT S. HAMADA*

I. INTRODUCTION

ONLY RECENTLY has there been an interest in relating the issues historically associated with corporation finance to those historically associated with investment and portfolio analyses. In fact, rigorous theoretical attempts in this direction were made only since the capital asset pricing model of Sharpe [13], Lintner [6], and Mossin [11], itself an extension of the Markowitz [7] portfolio theory. This study is one of the first empirical works consciously attempting to show and test the relationships between the two fields. In addition, differences in the observed systematic or nondiversifiable risk of common stocks, β, have never really been analyzed before by investigating some of the underlying differences in the firms.

In the capital asset pricing model, it was demonstrated that the efficient set of portfolios to any individual investor will always be some combination of lending at the risk-free rate and the "market portfolio," or borrowing at the risk-free rate and the "market portfolio." At the same time, the Modigliani and Miller (MM) propositions [9, 10] on the effect of corporate leverage are well known to the students of corporation finance. In order for their propositions to hold, personal leverage is required to be a perfect substitute for corporate leverage. If this is true, then corporate borrowing could substitute for personal borrowing in the capital asset pricing model as well.

Both in the pricing model and the MM theory, borrowing, from whatever source, while maintaining a fixed amount of equity, increases the risk to the investor. Therefore, in the mean-standard deviation version of the capital asset pricing model, the covariance of the asset's rate of return with the market portfolio's rate of return (which measures the nondiversifiable risk of the asset—the proxy β will be used to measure this) should be greater for the stock of a firm with a higher debt-equity ratio than for the stock of another firm in the same risk-class with a lower debt-equity ratio.[1]

This study, then, has a number of purposes. First, we shall attempt to link empirically corporation finance issues with portfolio and security analyses through the effect of a firm's leverage on the systematic risk of its common

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1. This very quick summary of the theoretical relationship between what is known as corporation finance and the modern investment and portfolio analyses centered around the capital asset pricing model is more thoroughly presented in [5], along with the necessary assumptions required for this relationship.

stock. Then, we shall attempt to test the MM theory, or at least provide another piece of evidence on this long-standing controversial issue. This test will not rely on an explicit valuation model, such as the MM study of the electric utility industry [8] and the Brown study of the railroad industry [2]. A procedure using systematic risk measures (β s) has been worked out in this paper for this purpose.

If the MM theory is validated by this procedure, then the final purpose of this study is to demonstrate a method for estimating the cost of capital of individual firms to be used by them for scale-changing or nondiversifying investment projects. The primary component of any firm's cost of capital is the capitalization rate for the firm if the firm had no debt and preferred stock in its capital structure. Since most firms do have fixed commitment obligations, this capitalization rate (we shall call it $E(R_A)$; MM denote it $\rho\tau$) is unobservable. But if the MM theory and the capital asset pricing model are correct, then it is possible to estimate $E(R_A)$ from the systematic risk approach for individual firms, even if these firms are members of a one-firm risk-class.[2]

With this statement of the purposes for this study, we shall, in Section II, discuss the alternative general procedures that are possible for estimating the effect of leverage on systematic risk and select the most feasible ones. The results are presented in Section III. And finally, tests of the MM versus the traditional theories of corporation finance are presented in Section IV.

II. Some Possible Procedures and the Selected Estimating Relationships

There are at least four general procedures that can be used to estimate the effect of the firm's capital structure on the systematic risk of common stocks. The first is the MM valuation model approach. By estimating ρ^τ with an explicit valuation model as they have for the electric utility industry, it is possible to relate this ρ^τ with the use of the capital asset pricing model to a nonleveraged systematic risk measure, ${}_A\beta$. Then the difference between the observed common stock's systematic risk (which we shall denote ${}_B\beta$) and ${}_A\beta$ would be due solely to leverage. But the difficulties of this approach for all firms are many.

The MM valuation model approach requires the specification, in advance, of risk-classes. All firms in a risk-class are then assumed to have the same ρ^τ—the capitalization rate for an all-common equity firm. Unfortunately, there must be enough firms in a risk-class so that a cross-section analysis will yield statistically significant coefficients. There may not be many more risk-classes (with enough observations) now that the electric utility and railroad industries have been studied. In addition, the MM approach requires estimating expected asset earnings and estimating the capitalized growth potential implicit in stock prices. If it is possible to consider growth and expected earnings without having

2. It is, in fact, this last purpose of making applicable and practical some of the implications of the capital asset pricing model for corporation finance issues that provided the initial motivation for this paper. In this context, if one is familiar with the fair rate of return literature for regulated utilities, for example, an industry where debt is so prevalent, adjusting correctly for leverage is not frequently done and can be very critical.

to specify their exact magnitude at a specific point in time, considerable difficulty and possible measurement errors will be avoided.

The second approach is to run a regression between the observed systematic risk of a stock and a number of accounting and leverage variables in an attempt to explain this observed systematic risk. Unfortunately, without a theory, we do not know which variables to include and which variables to exclude and whether the relationship is linear, multiplicative, exponential, curvilinear, etc. Therefore, this method will also not be used.

A third approach is to measure the systematic risk before and after a new debt issue. The difference can then be attributed to the debt issue directly. An attractive feature of this procedure is that a good estimate of the market value of the incremental debt issue can be obtained. A number of disadvantages, unfortunately, are associated with this direct approach. The difference in the systematic risk may be due not only to the additional debt, but also to the reason the debt was issued. It may be used to finance a new investment project, in which case the project's characteristics will also be reflected in the new systematic risk measure. In addition, the new debt issue may have been anticipated by the market if the firm had some long-run target leverage ratio which this issue will help maintain; conversely, the market may not fully consider the new debt issue if it believes the increase in leverage is only temporary. For these reasons, this seemingly attractive procedure will not be employed.

The last approach, which will be used in this study, is to assume the validity of the MM theory from the outset. Then the observed rate of return of a stock can be adjusted to what *it would have been* over the same time period had the firm no debt and preferred stock in its capital structure. The difference between the observed systematic risk, ${}_B\beta$, and the systematic risk for this adjusted rate of return time series, ${}_A\beta$, can be attributed to leverage, if the MM theory is correct. The final step, then, is to test the MM theory.

To discuss this more specifically, consider the following relationship for the dollar return to the common shareholder from period $t-1$ to t:

$$(X - I)_t(1 - \tau)_t - p_t + \Delta G_t = d_t + cg_t \tag{1}$$

where X_t represents earnings before taxes, interest, and preferred dividends and is assumed to be unaffected by fixed commitment obligations; I_t represents interest and other fixed charges paid during the period; τ is the corporation income tax rate; p_t is the preferred dividends paid; ΔG_t represents the change in capitalized growth over the period; and d_t and cg_t are common shareholder dividends and capital gains during the period, respectively.

Equation (1) relates the corporation finance types of variables with the market holding period return important to the investors. The first term on the left-hand-side of (1) is profits after taxes and after interest which is the earnings the common and preferred shareholders receive on their investment for the period. Subtracting out p_t leaves us with the earnings the common shareholder would receive from currently-held assets.

To this must be added any change in capitalized growth since we are trying to explain the common shareholder's market holding period dollar return. ΔG_t

must be added for growth firms to the current period's profits from existing assets since capitalized growth opportunities of the firm—future earnings from new assets over and above the firm's cost of capital which are already reflected in the stock price at (t − 1)—should change over the period and would accrue to the common shareholder. Assuming shareholders at the start of the period estimated these growth opportunities on average correctly, the expected value of ΔG_t would not be zero, but should be positive. For example, consider growth opportunities five years from now which yield more than the going rate of return and are reflected in today's stock price. These growth opportunities will become one year closer to fruition at time t than at time t − 1 so that their present value would become larger. ΔG_t then represents this increase in the present value of these future opportunities simply because it is now four years away rather than five.[3]

Since the systematic risk of a common stock is:

$$_B\beta = \frac{\text{cov}\,(R_{B_t}, R_{M_t})}{\sigma^2(R_{M_t})} \tag{2}$$

where R_{B_t} is the common shareholder's rate of return and R_{M_t} is the rate of return on the market portfolio, then substitution of (1) into (2) yields:

$$_B\beta = \frac{\text{cov}\left[\dfrac{(X-I)(1-\tau)_t - p_t + \Delta G_t}{S_{B_{t-1}}}, R_{M_t}\right]}{\sigma^2(R_{M_t})} \tag{2a}$$

where $S_{B_{t-1}}$ denotes the market value of the common stock at the beginning of the period.

The systematic risk for the same firm over the same period *if* there were no debt and preferred stock in its capital structure is:

$$_A\beta = \frac{\text{cov}(R_{A_t}, R_{M_t})}{\sigma^2(R_{M_t})}$$

$$= \frac{\text{cov}\left[\dfrac{X(1-\tau)_t + \Delta G_t}{S_{A_{t-1}}}, R_{M_t}\right]}{\sigma^2(R_{M_t})} \tag{3}$$

where R_{A_t} and $S_{A_{t-1}}$ represent the rate of return and the market value, respectively, to the common shareholder if the firm had no debt and preferred stock. From (3), we can obtain:

$$_A\beta S_{A_{t-1}} = \frac{\text{cov}\,[X(1-\tau)_t + \Delta G_t, R_{M_t}]}{\sigma^2(R_{M_t})} \tag{3a}$$

3. Continual awareness of the difficulties of estimating capitalized growth, or changes in growth, especially in conjunction with leverage considerations, for purposes such as valuation or cost of capital is a characteristic common to students of corporation finance. This is the reason for the emphasis on growth in this paper and for presenting a method to neutralize for differences in growth when comparing rates of return.

Next, by expanding and rearranging (2a), we have:

$$ {}_{B}\beta S_{B_{t-1}} = \frac{\operatorname{cov}\left[X(1-\tau)_t + \Delta G_t, R_{M_t}\right]}{\sigma^2(R_{M_t})} - \frac{\operatorname{cov}\left[I(1-\tau)_t, R_{M_t}\right]}{\sigma^2(R_{M_t})} - \frac{\operatorname{cov}(p_t, R_{M_t})}{\sigma^2(R_{M_t})} \tag{2b} $$

If we assume as an empirical approximation that interest and preferred dividends have negligible covariance with the market, at least relative to the (pure equity) common stock's covariance, then substitution of the LHS of (3a) into the RHS of (2b) yields:[4]

$$ {}_{B}\beta S_{B_{t-1}} = {}_{A}\beta S_{A_{t-1}} \tag{4} $$

or

$$ {}_{A}\beta = \left(\frac{S_B}{S_A}\right)_{t-1} {}_{B}\beta \tag{4a} $$

Because $S_{A_{t-1}}$, the market value of common stock *if* the firm had no debt and preferred stock, is not observable since most firms do have debt and/or preferred stock, a theory is required in order to measure what this quantity *would have been* at $t-1$. The MM theory [10] will be employed for this purpose, that is:

$$ S_{A_{t-1}} = (V - \tau D)_{t-1}. \tag{5} $$

Equation (5) indicates that if the Federal government tax subsidy for debt financing, τD, where D is the market value of debt, is subtracted from the observed market value of the firm, V_{t-1} (where V_{t-1} is the sum of S_B, D and the observed market value of preferred), then the market value of an unleveraged firm is obtained. Underlying (5) is the assumption that the firm is near its target leverage ratio so that no more or no less debt subsidy is capitalized already into the observed stock price. The conditions under which this MM relationship hold are discussed carefully in [4].

It is at this point that problems in obtaining satisfactory estimates of ${}_{A}\beta$ develop, since (4) theoretically holds only for the next period. As a practical matter, the accepted, and seemingly acceptable, method of obtaining estimates of a stock's systematic risk, ${}_{B}\beta$, is to run a least squares regression between a stock's and market portfolio's *historical* rates of return. Using past data for ${}_{B}\beta$, it is not clear which *period's* ratio of market values to apply in (4a) to estimate the firm's systematic risk, ${}_{A}\beta$. There would be no problem if the market value ratios of debt to equity and preferred stock to equity remained relatively stable over the past for each firm, but a cursory look at these data reveals that this is not true for the large majority of firms in our sample. Should we use the market value ratio required in (4a) that was observed at the start of our regression period, at the end of our regression period, or some kind of average over the period? In addition, since these different observed ratios will give us different estimates for ${}_{A}\beta$, it is not clear, without some criterion, how we should select from among the various estimates.

4. This general method of arriving at (4) was suggested by the comments of William Sharpe, one of the discussants of this paper at the annual meeting. A much more cumbersome and less general derivation of (4) was in the earlier version.

It is for this purpose—to obtain a standard—that a more cumbersome and more data demanding approach to obtain estimates of ${}_A\beta$ is suggested. Given the large fluctuations in market leverage ratios, intuitively it would appear that the firm's risk is more stable than the common stock's risk. In that event, a leverage-free rate of return time series for each firm should be derived and the market model applied to this time series directly. In this manner, the beta coefficient would give us a *direct* estimate of ${}_A\beta$ which can then be used as a criterion to determine if any of the market value ratios discussed above can be applied to (4a) successfully.

For this purpose, the "would-have-been" rate of return for the common stock if the firm had no debt and preferred is:

$$R_{A_t} = \frac{X_t(1-\tau)_t + \Delta G_t}{S_{A_{t-1}}}. \tag{6}$$

The numerator of (6) can be rearranged to be:

$$X_t(1-\tau)_t + \Delta G_t \equiv [(X-I)_t(1-\tau)_t - p_t + \Delta G_t] + p_t + I_t(1-\tau)_t.$$

Substituting (1):

$$X_t(1-\tau)_t + \Delta G_t = [d_t + cg_t] + p_t + I_t(1-\tau)_t.$$

Therefore, (6) can be written as:

$$R_{A_t} = \frac{d_t + cg_t + p_t + I_t(1-\tau)_t}{S_{A_{t-1}}}. \tag{7}$$

Since $S_{A_{t-1}}$ is unobservable for the firms with leverage, the MM theory, equation (5), will be employed; then:

$$R_{A_t} = \frac{d_t + cg_t + p_t + I_t(1-\tau)_t}{(V-\tau D)_{t-1}}. \tag{8}$$

The observed rate of return on the common stock is, of course:

$$R_{B_t} = \frac{(X-I)_t(1-\tau)_t - p_t + \Delta G_t}{S_{B_{t-1}}} = \frac{d_t + cg_t}{S_{B_{t-1}}}. \tag{9}$$

Equation (8) is the rate of return to the common shareholder of the same firm and over the same period of time as (9). However, in (8) there are the underlying assumptions that the firm never had any debt and preferred stock and that the MM theory is correct; (9) incorporates the exact amount of debt and preferred stock that the firm actually did have over this time period and no leverage assumption is being made. Both (8) and (9) are now in forms where they can be measured with available data. One can note that it is unnecessary to estimate the change in growth, or earnings from current assets, since these should be captured in the market holding period return, $d_t + cg_t$.

Using CRSP data for (9) and both CRSP and Compustat data for the components of (8), a time series of yearly R_{A_t} and R_{B_t} for t = 1948-1967 were derived for 304 different firms. These 304 firms represent an exhaustive sample of the firms with complete data on both tapes for all the years.

A number of "market model" [1, 12] variants were then applied to these data. For each of the 304 firms, the following regressions were run:

$$R_{Ait} = {}_A\alpha_i + {}_A\beta_i R_{M_t} + {}_A\epsilon_{it} \tag{10a}$$

$$R_{Bit} = {}_B\alpha_i + {}_B\beta_i R_{M_t} + {}_B\epsilon_{it} \tag{10b}$$

$$\ln(1 + R_{Ait}) = {}_{AC}\alpha_i + {}_{AC}\beta_i \ln(1 + R_{M_t}) + {}_{AC}\epsilon_{it} \tag{10c}$$

$$\ln(1 + R_{Bit}) = {}_{BC}\alpha_i + {}_{BC}\beta_i \ln(1 + R_{M_t}) + {}_{BC}\epsilon_{it} \tag{10d}$$

$$i = 1, 2, \ldots, 304$$
$$t = 1948\text{-}1967$$

where R_{M_t} is the observed NYSE arithmetic stock market rate of return with dividends reinvested, α_i and β_i are constants for each firm-regression, and the usual conditions are assumed for the properties of the disturbance terms, ϵ_{it}. Equations (10c) and (10d) are the continuously-compounded rate of return versions of (10a) and (10b), respectively.[5]

III. The Results

An abbreviated table of the regression results for each of the four variants, equations (10a)-(10d), summarized across the 304 firms is shown in Table 1.

The first column designated "mean" is the average of the statistic (indicated by the rows) over all 304 firms. Therefore, the mean ${}_A\hat{\alpha}$ of 0.0221 is the intercept term of equation (10a) averaged over 304 different firm-regressions. The second and third columns give the deviation measures indicated, of the 304 point estimates of, say, ${}_A\hat{\alpha}$. The mean standard error of estimate in the last column is the average over 304 firms of the individual standard errors of estimate.

The major conclusion drawn from Table 1 is the following mean β comparisons:

$${}_B\hat{\beta} > {}_A\hat{\beta}, \text{ i.e., } 0.9190 > 0.7030$$
$${}_{BC}\hat{\beta} > {}_{AC}\hat{\beta}, \text{ i.e., } 0.9183 > 0.7263.$$

The directional results of these betas, assuming the validity of the MM theory, are not imperceptible and clearly are not negligible differences from the investor's point of view. This is obtained in spite of all the measurement and data problems associated with estimating a time series of the RHS of (8) for

5. Because the R_{M_t} used in equations (10) is defined as the observed stock market return, and since adjusting for capital structure is the major purpose of this exercise, it was decided that the same four regressions should be replicated on a leverage-adjusted stock market rate of return. The major reason for this additional adjustment is the belief that the rates of return over time and their relationship with the market are more stable when we can abstract from all changes in leverage and get at the underlying risk of all firms.

For the 221 firms (out of the total 304) whose fiscal years coincide with the calendar year, average values for the components of the RHS of (8) were obtained for each year so that R_{M_t} could be adjusted in the same way as for the individual firms—a yearly time series of stock market rates of return, if all the firms on the NYSE had no debt and no preferred in their capital structure, was derived. The results, when using this adjusted market portfolio rate of return time series, were not very different from the results of equations (10), and so will not be reported here separately.

TABLE 1
SUMMARY RESULTS OVER 304 FIRMS OF EQUATIONS (10a)-(10d)

	Mean	Mean Absolute Deviation*	Standard Deviation	Mean Standard Error of Estimate
${}_{A}\hat{\alpha}$	0.0221	0.0431	0.0537	0.0558
${}_{A}\hat{\beta}$	0.7030	0.2660	0.3485	0.2130
${}_{A}\hat{R}^2$	0.3799	0.1577	0.1896	
${}_{A}\hat{\rho}$	0.0314			
${}_{B}\hat{\alpha}$	0.0187	0.0571	0.0714	0.0720
${}_{B}\hat{\beta}$	0.9190	0.3550	0.4478	0.2746
${}_{B}\hat{R}^2$	0.3864	0.1578	0.1905	
${}_{B}\hat{\rho}$	0.0281			
${}_{AC}\hat{\alpha}$	0.0058	0.0427	0.0535	0.0461
${}_{AC}\hat{\beta}$	0.7263	0.2700	0.3442	0.2081
${}_{AC}\hat{R}^2$	0.3933	0.1586	0.1909	
${}_{AC}\hat{\rho}$	0.0268			
${}_{BC}\hat{\alpha}$	−0.0052	0.0580	0.0729	0.0574
${}_{BC}\hat{\beta}$	0.9183	0.3426	0.4216	0.2591
${}_{BC}\hat{R}^2$	0.4012	0.1602	0.1922	
${}_{BC}\hat{\rho}$	0.0262			

* Defined as: $\dfrac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} |x_i - \bar{x}|}{N}$, where $N = 304$. $\hat{\rho}$ = first order serial correlation coefficient.

each firm. One of the reasons for the "traditional" theory position on leverage is precisely this point—that small and reasonable amounts of leverage cannot be discerned by the market. In fact, if the MM theory is correct, leverage has explained as much as, roughly, 21 to 24 per cent of the value of the mean β.

We can also note that if the covariance between the asset and market rates of return, as well as the market variance, was constant over time, then the systematic risk from the market model is related to the expected rate of return by the capital asset pricing model. That is:

$$E(R_{A_t}) = R_{F_t} + {}_{A}\beta[E(R_{M_t}) - R_{F_t}] \tag{11a}$$

$$E(R_{B_t}) = R_{F_t} + {}_{B}\beta[E(R_{M_t}) - R_{F_t}] \tag{11b}$$

Equation (11a) indicates the relationship between the expected rate of return for the common stock shareholder of a debt-free and preferred-free firm, to the systematic risk, ${}_{A}\beta$, as obtained in regressions (10a) or (10c). The LHS of (11a) is the important $\rho\tau$ for the MM cost of capital. The MM theory [9, 10] also predicts that shareholder expected yield must be higher (for the same real firm) when the firm has debt than when it does not. Financial risk is greater, therefore, shareholders require more expected return. Thus, $E(R_{B_t})$ must be greater than $E(R_{A_t})$. In order for this MM prediction to be true, from (11a) and (11b) it can be observed that ${}_{B}\beta$ must be greater than ${}_{A}\beta$, which is what we obtained.

Using the results underlying Table 1, namely the firm and stock betas, as the

criterion for selecting among the possible observed market value ratios that can be used, if any, for (4), the following cross-section regressions were run:

$$({}_B\beta)_i = a_1 + b_1 \left(\frac{S_A}{S_B} {}_A\beta \right)_i + u_{1i} \qquad i = 1, 2, \ldots, 102 \qquad (12a)$$

$$({}_{BC}\beta)_i = a_2 + b_2 \left(\frac{S_A}{S_B} {}_{AC}\beta \right)_i + u_{2i} \qquad i = 1, 2, \ldots, 102 \qquad (12b)$$

$$({}_A\beta)_i = a_3 + b_3 \left(\frac{S_B}{S_A} {}_B\beta \right)_i + u_{3i} \qquad i = 1, 2, \ldots, 102 \qquad (13a)$$

$$({}_{AC}\beta)_i = a_4 + b_4 \left(\frac{S_B}{S_A} {}_{BC}\beta \right)_i + u_{4i} \qquad i = 1, 2, \ldots, 102 \qquad (13b)$$

Because the preferred stock market values were not as reliable as debt, only the 102 firms (out of 304) that did not have preferred in any of the years were used. The test for the adequacy of this alternative approach, equation (4), to adjust the systematic risk of common stocks for the underlying firm's capital structure, is whether the intercept term, a, is equal to zero, and the slope coefficient, b, is equal to one in the above regressions (as well as, of course, a high R^2)—these requirements are implied by (4). The results of this test would also indicate whether future "market model" studies that only use common stock rates of return without adjusting, or even noting, for the firm's debt-equity ratio will be adequate. The total firm's systematic risk may be stable (as long as the firm stays in the same risk-class), whereas the common stock's systematic risk may not be stable merely because of unanticipated capital structure changes—the data underlying Table 3 indicate that there were very few firms which did not have major changes in their capital structure over the twenty years studied.

The results of these regressions, when using the average S_A and average S_B over the twenty years for each firm, are shown in the first column panel of Table 2. These regressions were then replicated twice, first using the December 31, 1947 values of S_{A_i} and S_{B_i} instead of the twenty-year average for each firm, and then substituting the December 31, 1966 values of S_{A_i} and S_{B_i} for the 1947 values. These results are in the second and third panels of Table 2.[6]

From the first panel of Table 2, it appears that this alternative approach via (4a) for adjusting the systematic risk for the firm's leverage is quite

6. The point should be made that we are not merely regressing a variable on itself in (12) and (13). (12a) and (12b) can be interpreted as correlating the ${}_B\beta_i$ obtained from (10b) and (10d)—the LHS variable in (12a) and (12b)—against the ${}_B\beta_i$ obtained from rearranging (4)—the RHS variable in (12a) and (12b)—to determine whether the use of (4) is as good a means of obtaining ${}_B\beta_i$ as the direct way via the equations (10). We would be regressing a variable on itself only if the ${}_A\beta_i$ were calculated using (4a), and then the ${}_A\beta_i$ thus obtained, inserted into (12a) and (12b).

Instead, we are obtaining ${}_A\beta_i$ using the MM model in *each* of the twenty years so that a leverage-adjusted 20 year time series of R_{A_i} is derived. Of course, if there were no data nor measurement problems, and if the debt-to-equity ratio were perfectly stable over this twenty year period for each firm, then we should obtain perfect correlation in (12a) and (12b), with a = 0 and b = 1, as (4) would be an identity.

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TABLE 2

RESULTS FOR THE EQUATIONS (12a), (12b), (13a), AND (13b)*

	Using 20-Year Average for $\left(\frac{S_A}{S_B}\right)_i$			Using 1947 Value for $\left(\frac{S_A}{S_B}\right)_i$			Using 1966 Value for $\left(\frac{S_A}{S_B}\right)_i$		
	a	b	R^2	a	b	R^2	a	b	R^2
Eq. (12a)	−0.022	1.062	0.962	0.150	0.842	0.781	0.085	0.905	0.849
	(0.021)	(0.021)		(0.048)	(0.045)		(0.041)	(0.038)	
	constant suppressed	1.042 (0.009)	0.962	constant suppressed	0.966 (0.021)	0.781	constant suppressed	0.976 (0.017)	0.849
Eq. (12b)	−0.003	1.016	0.984	0.159	0.816	0.773	0.124	0.843	0.859
	(0.013)	(0.013)		(0.047)	(0.044)		(0.037)	(0.034)	
	constant suppressed	1.014 (0.005)	0.984	constant suppressed	0.952 (0.019)	0.773	constant suppressed	0.947 (0.015)	0.859
	Using 20-Year Average for $\left(\frac{S_B}{S_A}\right)_i$			Using 1947 Value for $\left(\frac{S_B}{S_A}\right)_i$			Using 1966 Value for $\left(\frac{S_B}{S_A}\right)_i$		
	a	b	R^2	a	b	R^2	a	b	R^2
Eq. (13a)	0.030	0.931	0.969	0.112	0.843	0.888	0.080	0.898	0.902
	(0.016)	(0.017)		(0.028)	(0.030)		(0.027)	(0.030)	
	constant suppressed	0.960 (0.007)	0.969	constant suppressed	0.948 (0.015)	0.888	constant suppressed	0.976 (0.014)	0.902
Eq. (13b)	0.007	0.979	0.988	0.119	0.852	0.902	0.063	0.942	0.911
	(0.010)	(0.011)		(0.026)	(0.028)		(0.026)	(0.029)	
	constant suppressed	1.004 (0.012)	0.911	constant suppressed	0.967 (0.013)	0.902	constant suppressed	1.005 (0.012)	0.911

* Standard error in parentheses.

satisfactory (at least with respect to our sample of firms and years) only if long-run averages of S_A and S_B are used. The second and third panels indicate that the equations (8) and (10) procedure is markedly superior when only one year's market value ratio is used as the adjustment factor. The annual debt-to-equity ratio is much too unstable for this latter procedure.

Thus, when forecasting systematic risk is the primary objective—for example, for portfolio decisions or for estimating the firm's cost of capital to apply to prospective projects—a long-run forecasted leverage adjustment is required. Assuming the firm's risk is more stable than the common stock's risk,[7] and if there is some reason to believe that a better forecast of the firm's future leverage can be obtained than using simply a past year's (or an average of past years') leverage, it should be possible to improve the usual extrapolation forecast of a stock's systematic risk by forecasting the total firm's systematic risk first, and then using the independent leverage estimate as an adjustment.

IV. Tests of the MM vs. Traditional Theories of Corporation Finance

To determine if the difference, ${}_B\beta - {}_A\beta$, found in this study is indeed the correct effect of leverage, some confirmation of the MM theory (since it was assumed to be correct up to this point) from the systematic risk approach is needed. Since a direct test by this approach seems impossible, an indirect, inferential test is suggested.

The MM theory [9, 10] predicts that for firms in the same risk-class, the capitalization rate if all the firms were financed with only common equity, $E(R_A)$, would be the same—regardless of the actual amount of debt and preferred each individual firm had. This would imply, from (11a), that if $E(R_A)$ must be the same for all firms in a risk-class, so must ${}_A\beta$. And if these firms had different ratios of fixed commitment obligations to common equity, this difference in financial risk would cause their observed ${}_B\beta$s to be different.

The major competing theory of corporation finance is what is now known as the "traditional theory," which has contrary implications. This theory predicts that the capitalization rate for common equity, $E(R_B)$, (sometimes called the required or expected stock yield, or expected earnings-price ratio) is constant, as debt is increased, up to some critical leverage point (this point being a function of gambler's ruin and bankruptcy costs).[8] The clear implication of this constant, horizontal, equity yield (or their initial downward sloping cost of capital curve) is that changes in market or covariability risk are assumed not to be discernible to the shareholders as debt is increased. Then the traditional theory is saying that the ${}_B\beta$s, a measure of this covariability risk, would be the same for all firms in a given risk-class irregardless of differences in leverage, as long as the critical leverage point is not reached.

Since there will always be unavoidable errors in estimating the β's of indi-

7. A faint, but possible, empirical indication of this point may be obtained from Table 1. The ratio of the mean point estimate to the mean standard error of estimate is less for the firm β than for the stock β in both the discrete and continuously compounded cases.

8. This interpretation of the traditional theory can be found in [9, especially their figure 2, page 275, and their equation (13) and footnote 24 where reference is made to Durand and Graham and Dodd].

TABLE 3

INDUSTRY MARKET VALUE RATIOS OF PREFERRED STOCK (P) AND DEBT (D) TO COMMON STOCK (S)

Industry Number	Industry	Number of Firms		P/S		D/S		$\frac{P+D}{S}$	
20	Food and Kindred Products	30	Mean*	0.22		0.81		1.04	
			ROM**	0.00	1.18	0.00	3.55	0.00	4.13
			ROCR***	0.00	2.52	0.00	8.10	0.00	10.01
28	Chemicals and Allied Products	30	Mean	0.07		0.25		0.33	
			ROM	0.00	0.51	0.00	0.90	0.00	1.20
			ROCR	0.00	1.54	0.00	2.07	0.00	2.92
29	Petroleum and Coal Products	18	Mean	0.06		0.22		0.27	
			ROM	0.00	0.26	0.00	0.55	0.03	0.57
			ROCR	0.00	0.83	0.00	1.54	0.00	2.30
33	Primary Metals	21	Mean	0.14		0.54		0.68	
			ROM	0.00	1.31	0.00	1.95	0.00	3.04
			ROCR	0.00	4.69	0.00	6.20	0.00	7.49
35	Machinery, except Electrical	28	Mean	0.07		0.33		0.40	
			ROM	0.00	0.49	0.00	1.92	0.00	2.32
			ROCR	0.00	1.28	0.00	6.92	0.00	7.62

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TABLE 3 (*Continued*)

Industry Number	Industry	Number of Firms		P/S		D/S		$\frac{P+D}{S}$	
36	Electrical Machinery & Equipment	13	Mean	0.06		0.35		0.41	
			ROM	0.00	0.29	0.00	1.31	0.01	1.33
			ROCR	0.00	1.13	0.00	2.53	0.00	2.53
37	Transportation Equipment	24	Mean	0.08		0.38		0.47	
			ROM	0.00	0.54	0.00	0.93	0.00	1.32
			ROCR	0.00	2.33	0.00	3.76	0.00	6.09
49	Utilities	27	Mean	0.25		1.03		1.28	
			ROM	0.00	0.53	0.49	2.64	0.52	3.12
			ROCR	0.00	3.12	0.12	16.40	0.12	19.52
53	Dep't Stores, Order Houses & Vending Mach. Operators	17	Mean	0.13		0.49		0.62	
			ROM	0.00	0.38	0.01	1.52	0.01	1.87
			ROCR	0.00	1.09	0.00	3.19	0.00	3.66

* "Mean" refers to the average ratio over 20 years and over all firms in the industry.
** "Range of Means" (ROM) refers to the lowest firm's mean (over 20 years) ratio and the highest firm's mean (over 20 years) ratio in the industry.
*** "Range of Company Ranges" (ROCR) refers to the lowest and highest ratio in the industry, regardless of the year.

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vidual firms and in specifying a risk-class, we would not expect to find a set of firms with identical systematic risk. But by specifying reasonable a priori risk-classes, if the individual firms had closer or less scattered ${}_A\beta$s than ${}_B\beta$s, then this would support the MM theory and contradict the traditional theory. If, instead, the ${}_B\beta$s were not discernibly more diverse than the ${}_A\beta$s, and the leverage ratio differed considerably among firms, then this would indicate support for the traditional theory.[9]

In order to test this implication, risk-classes must be first specified. The SEC two-digit industry classification was used for this purpose. Requiring enough firms for statistical reasons in any given industry, nine risk-classes were specified that had at least 13 firms; these nine classes are listed in Table 3 with their various leverage ratios.[10] It is clear from this table that our first requirement is met—that there is a considerable range of leverage ratios among firms in a risk-class and also over the twenty-year period.

Three tests will be performed to distinguish between the MM and traditional theories. The first is simply to calculate the standard deviation of the unbiased β estimates in a risk-class. The second is a chi-square test of the distribution of β's in an industry compared to the distribution of the β's in the total sample. Finally, an analysis of variance test on the estimated variance of the β's between industries, as opposed to within industries, is performed. In all tests, only the point estimate of β (which should be unbiased) for each stock and firm is used.[11]

The first test is reported in Table 4. If we compare the standard deviation of ${}_{AC}\beta$ with the standard deviation of ${}_{BC}\beta$ by industries (or risk-classes), we can note that $\sigma({}_{AC}\beta)$ is less than $\sigma({}_{BC}\beta)$ for eight out of the nine classes. The probability of obtaining this is only 0.0195, given a 50% probability that $\sigma({}_{AC}\beta)$ can be larger or smaller than $\sigma({}_{BC}\beta)$. These results indicate that the systematic risk of the firms in a given risk-class, if they were all financed only with common equity, is much less diverse than their observed stock's systematic risk. This supports the MM theory, at least in contrast to the traditional theory.[12]

9. The traditional theory also implies that $E(R_A)$ is equal to $E(R_B)$ for all firms. Unfortunately, we do not have a functional relationship between these traditional theory capitalization rates and the measured βs of this study. Clearly, since the ${}_A\beta$s were obtained assuming the validity of the MM theory, they would not be applicable for the traditional theory. In fact, no relationship between the ${}_A\beta$ and ${}_B\beta$ for a given firm, or for firms in a given risk-class, can be specified as was done for the capitalization rates.

10. The tenth largest industry had only eight firms. For our purpose of testing the uniformity of firm βs relative to stock βs within a risk-class, the use of the two-digit industry classification as a proxy does not seem as critical as, for instance, its use for the purpose of performing an MM valuation model study [8] wherein the ρ^τ must be pre-specified to be exactly the same for all firms in the industry.

11. Since these βs are estimated in the market model regressions with error, precise testing should incorporate the errors in the β estimation. Unfortunately, to do this is extremely difficult and more importantly, requires the normality assumption for the market model disturbance term. Since there is considerable evidence that is contrary to this required assumption [see 3], our tests will ignore the β measurement error entirely. But ignoring this is partially corrected in our first and third tests since means and variances of these point estimate βs must be calculated, and this procedure will "average out" the individual measurement errors by the factor 1/N.

12. Of course, there could always be another theory, as yet not formulated, which could be even

TABLE 4
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF INDUSTRY β'S

Industry Number	Industry	Number of Firms		${}_A\beta$	${}_B\beta$	${}_{AC}\beta$	${}_{BC}\beta$
20	Food & Kindred Products	30	Mean β	0.515	0.815	0.528	0.806
			σ(β)	0.232	0.448	0.227	0.424
28	Chemicals & Allied Products	30	Mean β	0.747	0.928	0.785	0.946
			σ(β)	0.237	0.391	0.216	0.329
29	Petroleum & Coal Products	18	Mean β	0.633	0.747	0.656	0.756
			σ(β)	0.144	0.188	0.148	0.176
33	Primary Metals	21	Mean β	1.036	1.399	1.106	1.436
			σ(β)	0.223	0.272	0.197	0.268
35	Machinery, except Electrical	28	Mean β	0.878	1.037	0.917	1.068
			σ(β)	0.262	0.240	0.271	0.259
36	Electrical Machinery and Equipment	13	Mean β	0.940	1.234	0.951	1.164
			σ(β)	0.320	0.505	0.283	0.363
37	Transportation Equipment	24	Mean β	0.860	1.062	0.875	1.048
			σ(β)	0.225	0.313	0.225	0.289
49	Utilities	27	Mean β	0.160	0.255	0.166	0.254
			σ(β)	0.086	0.133	0.098	0.147
53	Department Stores, etc.	17	Mean β	0.652	0.901	0.692	0.923
			σ(β)	0.187	0.282	0.198	0.279

Our second test, the chi-square test, requires us to rank our 300 ${}_A\beta$s into ten equal categories, each with 30 ${}_A\beta$s (four miscellaneous firms were taken out randomly). By noting the value of the highest and lowest ${}_A\beta$ for each of the ten categories, a distribution of the number of ${}_A\beta$s in each category, by risk-class, can be obtained. This was then repeated for the other three betas. To test whether the distribution for each of the four β's and for each of the risk-classes follows the expected uniform distribution, a chi-square test was performed.[13]

Even with just casual inspection of these distributions of the betas by risk-class, it is clear that two industries, primary metals and utilities, are so highly skewed that they greatly exaggerate our results.[14] Eliminating these

more strongly supported than the MM theory. If we compare $\sigma({}_A\beta)$ to $\sigma({}_B\beta)$ by risk-classes in Table 4, precisely the same results are obtained as those reported above for the continuously-compounded betas.

13. By risk-classes, seven of the nine chi-square values of ${}_A\beta$ are larger than those of ${}_B\beta$, as are eight out of nine for the continuously-compounded betas. This would occur by chance with probabilities of 0.0898 and 0.0195, respectively, if there were a 50% chance that either the firm or stock chi-square value could be larger. Nevertheless, if we inspect the individual chi-square values by risk-class, we note that most of them are large so that the probabilities of obtaining these values are highly unlikely. For all four βs, the distributions for most of the risk-classes are nonuniform.

14. Primary metals have extremely large betas; utilities have extremely small betas.

two industries, and also two miscellaneous firms so that an even 250 firms are in the sample, new upper and lower values of the β's were obtained for each of the ten class intervals and for each of the four β's.

In Table 5, the chi-square values are presented; for the total of all risk-classes, the probability of obtaining a chi-square value less than 120.63 is over 99.95% (for ${}_{A}\beta$), whereas the probability of obtaining a chi-square value less than 99.75 is between 99.5% and 99.9% (for ${}_{B}\beta$). More sharply contrasting results are obtained when ${}_{AC}\beta$ is compared to ${}_{BC}\beta$. For ${}_{AC}\beta$, the probability of obtaining less than 128.47 is over 99.95%, whereas for ${}_{BC}\beta$, the probability of obtaining less than 78.65 is only 90.0%. By abstracting from financial risk, the underlying systematic risk is much less scattered when grouped into risk-classes than when leverage is assumed not to affect the systematic risk. The null hypothesis that the β's in a risk-class come from the same distribution as all β's is rejected for ${}_{AC}\beta$, but not for ${}_{BC}\beta$ (at the 90% level). Although this, in itself, does not tell us *how* a risk-class differs from the total market, an inspection of the distributions of the betas by risk-class underlying Table 5 does indicate more clustering of the ${}_{AC}\beta$s than the ${}_{BC}\beta$s so that the MM theory is again favored over the traditional theory.

The analysis of variance test is our last comparison of the implications of the two theories. The ratio of the estimated variance between industries to the estimated variance within the industries (the F-statistic) when the seven

TABLE 5
CHI-SQUARE RESULTS FOR ALL β'S AND ALL INDUSTRIES
(EXCEPT UTILITIES AND PRIMARY METALS)

Industry		${}_{A}\beta$	${}_{B}\beta$	${}_{AC}\beta$	${}_{BC}\beta$
Food and Kindred	Chi-Square	18.67	11.33	26.00	9.33
	$P\{\chi^2 < \}$* =	95-97.5%	70-75%	99.5-99.9%	50-60%
Chemicals	Chi-Square	9.33	10.67	12.00	7.33
	$P\{\chi^2 < \}$ =	50-60%	60-70%	75-80%	30-40%
Petroleum	Chi-Square	17.56	25.33	18.67	22.00
	$P\{\chi^2 < \}$ =	95-97.5%	99.5-99.9%	95-97.5%	99-99.5%
Machinery	Chi-Square	19.14	12.00	24.86	9.14
	$P\{\chi^2 < \}$ =	97.5-98%	75-80%	99.5-99.9%	50-60%
Electrical Machinery	Chi-Square	13.92	7.77	12.38	9.31
	$P\{\chi^2 < \}$ =	80-90%	40-50%	80-90%	50-60%
Transportation Equipment	Chi-Square	15.17	16.83	13.50	6.83
	$P\{\chi^2 < \}$ =	90-95%	90-95%	80-90%	30-40%
Dep't Stores	Chi-Square	14.18	3.59	14.18	3.59
	$P\{\chi^2 < \}$ =	80-90%	5-10%	80-90%	5-10%
Miscellaneous	Chi-Square	12.67	12.22	6.89	11.11
	$P\{\chi^2 < \}$ =	80-90%	80-90%	30-40%	70-75%
Total	Chi-Square	120.63	99.75	128.47	78.65
	$P\{\chi^2 < \}$ =	over 99.95%	99.5-99.90%	over 99.95%	90.0%

* Example: $P\{\chi^2 < 18.67\} = 95\text{-}97.5\%$ for 9 degrees of freedom.

industries are considered (again, the two obviously skewed industries, primary metals and utilities, were eliminated) is less for ${}_{B}\beta$ ($F = 3.90$) than for ${}_{A}\beta$ ($F = 9.99$), and less for ${}_{BC}\beta$ ($F = 4.18$) than for ${}_{AC}\beta$ ($F = 10.83$). The probability of obtaining these F-statistics for ${}_{A}\beta$ and ${}_{AC}\beta$ is less than 0.001, but for ${}_{B}\beta$ and ${}_{BC}\beta$ greater than or equal to 0.001. These results are consistent with the results obtained from our two previous tests. The MM theory is more compatible with the data than the traditional theory.[15]

V. Conclusions

This study attempted to tie together some of the notions associated with the field of corporation finance with those associated with security and portfolio analyses. Specifically, if the MM corporate tax leverage propositions are correct, then approximately 21 to 24% of the observed systematic risk of common stocks (when averaged over 304 firms) can be explained merely by the added financial risk taken on by the underlying firm with its use of debt and preferred stock. Corporate leverage does count considerably.

To determine whether the MM theory is correct, a number of tests on a contrasting implication of the MM and "traditional" theories of corporation finance were performed. The data confirmed MM's position, at least vis-à-vis our interpretation of the traditional theory's position. This should provide another piece of evidence on this controversial topic.

Finally, if the MM theory and the capital asset pricing model are correct, and if the adjustments made in equations (8) or (4a) result in accurate measures of the systematic risk of a leverage-free firm, the possibility is greater, without resorting to a fullblown risk-class study of the type MM did for the electric utility industry [8], of estimating the cost of capital for individual firms.

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15. All of our tests, it should be emphasized, although consistent, are only inferential. Aside from assuming that the two-digit SEC industry classification is a good proxy for risk-classes and that the errors in estimating the individual βs can be safely ignored, the tests rely on the two theories exhausting all the reasonable theories on leverage. But there is always the use of another line of reasoning. If the results of the MM electric utility study [8] are correct, and if these results can be generalized to all firms and to all risk-classes, then it can be claimed that the MM theory is universally valid. Then our result in Section III does indicate the correct effect of the firm's capital structure on the systematic risk of common stocks.

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SUEZ Water New York Inc
Return on Common Equity Implied in
the Panel's Proxy Group
and Weighted Average Cost of Capital

[A]	[B]	[C]		[D]		[E]	
Description	Weight (%) (1)	Cost		Weighted Cost (2)		Pre-Tax Weighted Cost	
ROE Applicable to the Panel's Proxy Group Capital Structure							
Debt	51.53%	5.15%	(3)	2.70%		2.70%	
Common Equity	48.47%	8.50%	(4)	4.10%		6.21%	(5)
Weighted Average Cost of Capital				6.80%		8.91%	
	Weight (%) (6)	Cost		Weighted Cost (2)		Pre-Tax Weighted Cost	
ROE Applicable to the Panel's Recommended Capital Structure							
Debt	53.00%	5.15%	(3)	2.73%		2.73%	
Common Equity	47.00%	8.68%	(9)	4.08%	(8)	6.18%	(7)
Weighted Average Cost of Capital				6.81%		8.91%	
Indicated Financial Risk Adjustment		0.18%					

Notes:
(1) Derived from Exhibit___(KXD-9). I have eliminated minority interest and customer deposits from the capital structure and included preferred equity in the total equity ratio since SUEZ Water New York Inc. has no preferred stock.
(2) Column [B] * Column [C].
(3) From page 1 of Schedule 1 of Exhibit___(PMA-1).
(4) From Exhibit___(KXD-3).
(5) Assuming a company-provided effective composite Federal and State income tax rate of 34%, the pre-tax weighted cost of common equity based on the recommended common equity cost rate of 8.50% and average proxy group capital structure is: 8.91%. 8.91% = 4.10%/(1 - 0.34) + 2.70%
(6) NY Panel recommended capital structure.
(7) Pre-tax weighted cost rate of common equity equals the pre-tax overall weighted cost rate (8.91%) minus the weighted cost rate of debt (2.73%). 8.91% - 2.73% = 6.18%.
(8) Pre-tax weighted overall cost of capital multiplied by (1 - effective tax rate). 6.18% x 66% = 4.08%.
(9) Weighted cost of common equity calculated as the pre-tax weighted cost of common equity, 4.08%, divided by the NY Panel's recommended equity ratio, 47.00%. 8.68%% = 4.08% / 47.00%.

SUEZ Water New York, Inc.
Calculation of Indicated Financial Risk Adjustment
Using the Hamada Equation

Line No.		The Panel's Proxy Group Capital Structure (1)	The Panel's Recommended Capital Structure	
1.	Total Debt	51.53 %	53.00 %	
2.	Common Equity	48.47	47.00	
3.	Total	100.00 %	100.00 %	
4.	Beta		0.75	(2)
5.	Un-levered beta		0.44	(3)
6.	Re-Levered beta		0.77	(4)
7.	Market Risk Premium		8.87	(5)
8.	Risk-Free Rate		2.23	(6)
9.	Indicated CAPM based on Average Proxy Group Capital Structu		8.88	(7)
10.	Re-levered CAPM based on NY Panel Recommended Capital St		9.06	(8)
11.	Indicated Financial Risk Adjustment		0.18	(9)

Notes:
(1) Derived from Exhibit___(KXD-9). I have eliminated minority interest and customer deposits from the capital structure and included preferred equity in the total equity ratio since SUEZ Water New York Inc. has no preferred stock.
(2) Proxy Group Beta from Exhibit___(SEP-9).
(3) The un-levered beta is calculated as follows:

$$b_u = \frac{b_l}{[1 + \frac{D}{E}(1 - T)]}$$

$$.44 = \frac{.75}{[1 + \frac{51.53\%}{48.47\%}(1 - 34.00\%)]}$$

Where:
b_l= levered beta
D = Debt Ratio
E = Equity Ratio
T = Corporate Tax Rate

(4) The beta is then re-levered using the Panel's Capital Structure:

$$b_l = b_u[1 + \frac{D}{E}(1 - T)]$$

$$.77 = .44[1 + \frac{53.00\%}{47.00\%}(1 - 34.00\%)]$$

(5) Market Risk Premium from Exhibit___(SEP-9).
(6) Risk-Free Rate from Exhibit___(SEP-9).
(7) Line 4 * Line 7 + Line 8.
(8) Line 6 * Line 7 + Line 8.
(9) Line 10 - Line 9.

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U.S. Utilities Ratings Analysis Now Portrayed In The S&P Corporate Ratings Matrix

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U.S. Utilities Ratings Analysis Now Portrayed In The S&P Corporate Ratings Matrix

The electric, gas, and water utility ratings ranking lists published today by Standard & Poor's U.S. Utilities & Infrastructure Ratings practice are categorized under the business risk/financial risk matrix used by the Corporate Ratings group. This is designed to present our rating conclusions in a clear and standardized manner across all corporate sectors. Incorporating utility ratings into a shared framework to communicate the fundamental credit analysis of a company furthers the goals of transparency and comparability in the ratings process. Table 1 shows the matrix.

Table 1

Business Risk/Financial Risk

	Financial Risk Profile				
Business Risk Profile	**Minimal**	**Modest**	**Intermediate**	**Aggressive**	**Highly leveraged**
Excellent	AAA	AA	A	BBB	BB
Strong	AA	A	A-	BBB-	BB-
Satisfactory	A	BBB+	BBB	BB+	B+
Weak	BBB	BBB-	BB+	BB-	B
Vulnerable	BB	B+	B+	B	B-

The utilities rating methodology remains unchanged, and the use of the corporate risk matrix has not resulted in any changes to ratings or outlooks. The same five factors that we analyzed to produce a business risk score in the familiar 10-point scale are used in determining whether a utility possesses an "Excellent," "Strong," "Satisfactory," "Weak," or "Vulnerable" business risk profile:

- Regulation,
- Markets,
- Operations,
- Competitiveness, and
- Management.

Regulated utilities and holding companies that are utility-focused virtually always fall in the upper range ("Excellent" or "Strong") of business risk profiles. The defining characteristics of most utilities--a legally defined service territory generally free of significant competition, the provision of an essential or near-essential service, and the presence of regulators that have an abiding interest in supporting a healthy utility financial profile--underpin the business risk profiles of the electric, gas, and water utilities.

As the matrix concisely illustrates, the business risk profile loosely determines the level of financial risk appropriate for any given rating. Financial risk is analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively, mainly with financial ratios and other metrics that are calculated after various analytical adjustments are performed on financial statements prepared under GAAP. Financial risk is assessed for utilities using, in part, the indicative ratio ranges in table 2.

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Table 2

Financial Risk Indicative Ratios - U.S. Utilities

(Fully adjusted, historically demonstrated, and expected to consistently continue)

	Cash flow		Debt leverage
	(FFO/debt) (%)	(FFO/interest) (x)	(Total debt/capital) (%)
Modest	40 - 60	4.0 - 6.0	25 - 40
Intermediate	25 - 45	3.0 - 4.5	35 - 50
Aggressive	10 - 30	2.0 - 3.5	45 - 60
Highly leveraged	Below 15	2.5 or less	Over 50

The indicative ranges for utilities differ somewhat from the guidelines used for their unregulated counterparts because of several factors that distinguish the financial policy and profile of regulated entities. Utilities tend to finance with long-maturity capital and fixed rates. Financial performance is typically more uniform over time, avoiding the volatility of unregulated industrial entities. Also, utilities fare comparatively well in many of the less-quantitative aspects of financial risk. Financial flexibility is generally quite robust, given good access to capital, ample short-term liquidity, and the like. Utilities that exhibit such favorable credit characteristics will often see ratings based on the more accommodative end of the indicative ratio ranges, especially when the company's business risk profile is solidly within its category. Conversely, a utility that follows an atypical financial policy or manages its balance sheet less conservatively, or falls along the lower end of its business risk designation, would have to demonstrate an ability to achieve financial metrics along the more stringent end of the ratio ranges to reach a given rating.

Note that even after we assign a company a business risk and financial risk, the committee does not arrive by rote at a rating based on the matrix. The matrix is a guide--it is not intended to convey precision in the ratings process or reduce the decision to plotting intersections on a graph. Many small positives and negatives that affect credit quality can lead a committee to a different conclusion than what is indicated in the matrix. Most outcomes will fall within one notch on either side of the indicated rating. Larger exceptions for utilities would typically involve the influence of related unregulated entities or extraordinary disruptions in the regulatory environment.

We will use the matrix, the ranking list, and individual company reports to communicate the relative position of a company within its business risk peer group and the other factors that produce the ratings.

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RATINGSDIRECT®

May 27, 2009

Criteria | Corporates | General:

Criteria Methodology: Business Risk/Financial Risk Matrix Expanded

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Criteria Methodology: Business Risk/Financial Risk Matrix Expanded

*(**Editor's Note:** In the previous version of this article published on May 26, certain of the rating outcomes in the table 1 matrix were missated. A corrected version follows.)*

Standard & Poor's Ratings Services is refining its methodology for corporate ratings related to its business risk/financial risk matrix, which we published as part of 2008 Corporate Ratings Criteria on April 15, 2008, on RatingsDirect at www.ratingsdirect.com and Standard & Poor's Web site at www.standardandpoors.com.

This article amends and supersedes the criteria as published in Corporate Ratings Criteria, page 21, and the articles listed in the "Related Articles" section at the end of this report.

This article is part of a broad series of measures announced last year to enhance our governance, analytics, dissemination of information, and investor education initiatives. These initiatives are aimed at augmenting our independence, strengthening the rating process, and increasing our transparency to better serve the global markets.

We introduced the business risk/financial risk matrix four years ago. The relationships depicted in the matrix represent an essential element of our corporate analytical methodology.

We are now expanding the matrix, by adding one category to both business and financial risks (see table 1). As a result, the matrix allows for greater differentiation regarding companies rated lower than investment grade (i.e., 'BB' and below).

Table 1

Business And Financial Risk Profile Matrix

Business Risk Profile	Financial Risk Profile					
	Minimal	**Modest**	**Intermediate**	**Significant**	**Aggressive**	**Highly Leveraged**
Excellent	AAA	AA	A	A-	BBB	--
Strong	AA	A	A-	BBB	BB	BB-
Satisfactory	A-	BBB+	BBB	BB+	BB-	B+
Fair	--	BBB-	BB+	BB	BB-	B
Weak	--	--	BB	BB-	B+	B-
Vulnerable	--	--	--	B+	B	CCC+

These rating outcomes are shown for guidance purposes only. Actual rating should be within one notch of indicated rating outcomes.

The rating outcomes refer to issuer credit ratings. The ratings indicated in each cell of the matrix are the midpoints of a range of likely rating possibilities. This range would ordinarily span one notch above and below the indicated rating.

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Business Risk/Financial Risk Framework

Our corporate analytical methodology organizes the analytical process according to a common framework, and it divides the task into several categories so that all salient issues are considered. The first categories involve fundamental business analysis; the financial analysis categories follow.

Our ratings analysis starts with the assessment of the business and competitive profile of the company. Two companies with identical financial metrics can be rated very differently, to the extent that their business challenges and prospects differ. The categories underlying our business and financial risk assessments are:

Business risk

- Country risk
- Industry risk
- Competitive position
- Profitability/Peer group comparisons

Financial risk

- Accounting
- Financial governance and policies/risk tolerance
- Cash flow adequacy
- Capital structure/asset protection
- Liquidity/short-term factors

We do not have any predetermined weights for these categories. The significance of specific factors varies from situation to situation.

Updated Matrix

We developed the matrix to make explicit the rating outcomes that are typical for various business risk/financial risk combinations. It illustrates the relationship of business and financial risk profiles to the issuer credit rating.

We tend to weight business risk slightly more than financial risk when differentiating among investment-grade ratings. Conversely, we place slightly more weight on financial risk for speculative-grade issuers (see table 1, again). There also is a subtle compounding effect when both business risk and financial risk are aligned at extremes (i.e., excellent/minimal and vulnerable/highly leveraged.)

The new, more granular version of the matrix represents a refinement--not any change in rating criteria or standards--and, consequently, holds no implications for any changes to existing ratings. However, the expanded matrix should enhance the transparency of the analytical process.

Financial Benchmarks

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Table 2

Financial Risk Indicative Ratios (Corporates)

	FFO/Debt (%)	Debt/EBITDA (x)	Debt/Capital (%)
Minimal	greater than 60	less than 1.5	less than 25
Modest	45-60	1.5-2	25-35
Intermediate	30-45	2-3	35-45
Significant	20-30	3-4	45-50
Aggressive	12-20	4-5	50-60
Highly Leveraged	less than 12	greater than 5	greater than 60

How To Use The Matrix--And Its Limitations

The rating matrix indicative outcomes are what we typically observe--but are not meant to be precise indications or guarantees of future rating opinions. Positive and negative nuances in our analysis may lead to a notch higher or lower than the outcomes indicated in the various cells of the matrix.

In certain situations there may be specific, overarching risks that are outside the standard framework, e.g., a liquidity crisis, major litigation, or large acquisition. This often is the case regarding credits at the lowest end of the credit spectrum--i.e., the 'CCC' category and lower. These ratings, by definition, reflect some impending crisis or acute vulnerability, and the balanced approach that underlies the matrix framework just does not lend itself to such situations.

Similarly, some matrix cells are blank because the underlying combinations are highly unusual--and presumably would involve complicated factors and analysis.

The following hypothetical example illustrates how the tables can be used to better understand our rating process (see tables 1 and 2).

We believe that Company ABC has a satisfactory business risk profile, typical of a low investment-grade industrial issuer. If we believed its financial risk were intermediate, the expected rating outcome should be within one notch of 'BBB'. ABC's ratios of cash flow to debt (35%) and debt leverage (total debt to EBITDA of 2.5x) are indeed characteristic of intermediate financial risk.

It might be possible for Company ABC to be upgraded to the 'A' category by, for example, reducing its debt burden to the point that financial risk is viewed as minimal. Funds from operations (FFO) to debt of more than 60% and debt to EBITDA of only 1.5x would, in most cases, indicate minimal.

Conversely, ABC may choose to become more financially aggressive--perhaps it decides to reward shareholders by borrowing to repurchase its stock. It is possible that the company may fall into the 'BB' category if we view its financial risk as significant. FFO to debt of 20% and debt to EBITDA 4x would, in our view, typify the significant financial risk category.

Still, it is essential to realize that the financial benchmarks are guidelines, neither gospel nor guarantees. They can vary in nonstandard cases: For example, if a company's financial measures exhibit very little volatility, benchmarks may be somewhat more relaxed.

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Moreover, our assessment of financial risk is not as simplistic as looking at a few ratios. It encompasses:

- a view of accounting and disclosure practices;
- a view of corporate governance, financial policies, and risk tolerance;
- the degree of capital intensity, flexibility regarding capital expenditures and other cash needs, including acquisitions and shareholder distributions; and
- various aspects of liquidity--including the risk of refinancing near-term maturities.

The matrix addresses a company's standalone credit profile, and does not take account of external influences, which would pertain in the case of government-related entities or subsidiaries that in our view may benefit or suffer from affiliation with a stronger or weaker group. The matrix refers only to local-currency ratings, rather than foreign-currency ratings, which incorporate additional transfer and convertibility risks. Finally, the matrix does not apply to project finance or corporate securitizations.

Related Articles

Industrials' Business Risk/Financial Risk Matrix--A Fundamental Perspective On Corporate Ratings, published April 7, 2005, on RatingsDirect.

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Criteria | Corporates | General:

Methodology: Business Risk/Financial Risk Matrix Expanded

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1. Standard & Poor's Ratings Services is refining its methodology for corporate ratings related to its business risk/financial risk matrix, which we published as part of "2008 Corporate Ratings Criteria" on April 15, 2008. We subsequently updated this matrix in the article "Criteria Methodology: Business Risk/Financial Risk Matrix Expanded," published May 27, 2009. In order to provide greater transparency on the methodology used to evaluate corporate ratings, this article updates table 1 of the May 27, 2009, article to reflect how we analyze companies with an excellent business risk profile and minimal financial risk profile, as well as companies with a vulnerable business risk profile and a highly leveraged financial risk profile. This article amends and supersedes both the 2008 and 2009 articles mentioned above. This article is related to "Principles Of Credit Ratings," published on Feb. 16, 2011.

2. We introduced the business risk/financial risk matrix in 2005. The relationships depicted in the matrix represent an essential element of our corporate analytical methodology (see table 1).

Table 1

Business And Financial Risk Profile Matrix

Business Risk Profile	--Financial Risk Profile--					
	Minimal	**Modest**	**Intermediate**	**Significant**	**Aggressive**	**Highly Leveraged**
Excellent	AAA/AA+	AA	A	A-	BBB	--
Strong	AA	A	A-	BBB	BB	BB-
Satisfactory	A-	BBB+	BBB	BB+	BB-	B+
Fair	--	BBB-	BB+	BB	BB-	B
Weak	--	--	BB	BB-	B+	B-
Vulnerable	--	--	--	B+	B	B- or below

These rating outcomes are shown for guidance purposes only. Actual rating should be within one notch of indicated rating outcomes.

3. The rating outcomes refer to issuer credit ratings. The ratings indicated in each cell of the matrix are the midpoints of a range of likely rating possibilities. This range would ordinarily span one notch above and below the indicated rating.

Business Risk/Financial Risk Framework

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- Industry risk
- Competitive position
- Profitability/Peer group comparisons

Financial risk

- Accounting
- Financial governance and policies/risk tolerance
- Cash flow adequacy
- Capital structure/asset protection
- Liquidity/short-term factors

6. We do not have any predetermined weights for these categories. The significance of specific factors varies from situation to situation.

Updated Matrix

7. We developed the matrix to make explicit the rating outcomes that are typical for various business risk/financial risk combinations. It illustrates the relationship of business and financial risk profiles to the issuer credit rating.

8. We tend to weight business risk slightly more than financial risk when differentiating among investment-grade ratings. Conversely, we place slightly more weight on financial risk for speculative-grade issuers (see table 1, again).

9. This version of the matrix represents a refinement--not any change in rating criteria or standards--and, consequently, no rating changes are expected. However, the expanded matrix should enhance the transparency of the analytical process.

Financial Benchmarks

Table 2

Financial Risk Indicative Ratios (Corporates)

	FFO/Debt (%)	Debt/EBITDA (x)	Debt/Capital (%)
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Intermediate	30-45	2-3	35-45
Significant	20-30	3-4	45-50
Aggressive	12-20	4-5	50-60
Highly Leveraged	less than 12	greater than 5	greater than 60

How To Use The Matrix--And Its Limitations

10. The rating matrix indicative outcomes are what we typically observe--but are not meant to be precise indications or

guarantees of future rating opinions. Positive and negative nuances in our analysis may lead to a notch higher or lower than the outcomes indicated in the various cells of the matrix.

11. In certain situations there may be specific, overarching risks that are outside the standard framework, e.g., a liquidity crisis, major litigation, or large acquisition. This often is the case regarding issuers at the lowest end of the credit spectrum--i.e., the 'CCC' category and lower. These ratings, by definition, reflect some impending crisis or acute vulnerability, and the balanced approach that underlies the matrix framework just does not lend itself to such situations.

12. Similarly, some matrix cells are blank because the underlying combinations are highly unusual--and presumably would involve complicated factors and analysis.

13. The following hypothetical example illustrates how the tables can be used to better understand our rating process (see tables 1 and 2).

14. We believe that Company ABC has a satisfactory business risk profile, typical of a low investment-grade industrial issuer. If we believed its financial risk were intermediate, the expected rating outcome should be within one notch of 'BBB'. ABC's ratios of cash flow to debt (35%) and debt leverage (total debt to EBITDA of 2.5x) are indeed characteristic of intermediate financial risk.

15. It might be possible for Company ABC to be upgraded to the 'A' category by, for example, reducing its debt burden to the point that financial risk is viewed as minimal. Funds from operations (FFO) to debt of more than 60% and debt to EBITDA of only 1.5x would, in most cases, indicate minimal financial risk.

16. Conversely, ABC may choose to become more financially aggressive--perhaps it decides to reward shareholders by borrowing to repurchase its stock. It is possible that the company may fall into the 'BB' category if we view its financial risk as significant. FFO to debt of 20% and debt to EBITDA of 4x would, in our view, typify the significant financial risk category.

17. Still, it is essential to realize that the financial benchmarks are guidelines, neither gospel nor guarantees. They can vary in nonstandard cases: For example, if a company's financial measures exhibit very little volatility, benchmarks may be somewhat more relaxed.

18. Moreover, our assessment of financial risk is not as simplistic as looking at a few ratios. It encompasses:

    - A view of accounting and disclosure practices;
    - A view of corporate governance, financial policies, and risk tolerance;
    - The degree of capital intensity, flexibility regarding capital expenditures and other cash needs, including acquisitions and shareholder distributions; and
    - Various aspects of liquidity--including the risk of refinancing near-term maturities.

19. The matrix addresses a company's standalone credit profile, and does not take account of external influences, which would pertain in the case of government-related entities or subsidiaries that in our view may benefit or suffer from affiliation with a stronger or weaker group. The matrix refers only to local-currency ratings, rather than foreign-currency ratings, which incorporate additional transfer and convertibility risks. Finally, the matrix does not

apply to project finance or corporate securitizations.

Related Criteria And Research

- Principles Of Credit Ratings, Feb. 16, 2011
- Criteria Methodology: Business Risk/Financial Risk Matrix Expanded, May 27, 2009
- 2008 Corporate Ratings Criteria, April 15, 2008

20. These criteria represent the specific application of fundamental principles that define credit risk and ratings opinions. Their use is determined by issuer- or issue-specific attributes as well as Standard & Poor's Ratings Services' assessment of the credit and, if applicable, structural risks for a given issuer or issue rating. Methodology and assumptions may change from time to time as a result of market and economic conditions, issuer- or issue-specific factors, or new empirical evidence that would affect our credit judgment.

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*(**Editor's Note:** We've republished this article on Dec. 16, 2013 to make some adjustments to language. These adjustments have no impact on our ratings or the effective date of the criteria.)*

1. Standard & Poor's Ratings Services is updating its criteria for rating corporate industrial companies and utilities. The criteria organize the analytical process according to a common framework and articulate the steps in developing the stand-alone credit profile (SACP) and issuer credit rating (ICR) for a corporate entity.

2. This article is related to our criteria article "Principles Of Credit Ratings," which we published on Feb. 16, 2011.

SUMMARY OF THE CRITERIA

3. The criteria describe the methodology we use to determine the SACP and ICR for corporate industrial companies and utilities. Our assessment reflects these companies' business risk profiles, their financial risk profiles, and other factors that may modify the SACP outcome (see "General Criteria: Stand-Alone Credit Profiles: One Component Of A Rating," published Oct. 1, 2010, for the definition of SACP). The criteria provide clarity on how we determine an issuer's SACP and ICR and are more specific in detailing the various factors of the analysis. The criteria also provide clear guidance on how we use these factors as part of determining an issuer's ICR. Standard & Poor's intends for these criteria to provide the market with a framework that clarifies our approach to fundamental analysis of corporate credit risks.

4. The business risk profile comprises the risk and return potential for a company in the markets in which it participates, the competitive climate within those markets (its industry risk), the country risks within those markets, and the competitive advantages and disadvantages the company has within those markets (its competitive position). The business risk profile affects the amount of financial risk that a company can bear at a given SACP level and constitutes the foundation for a company's expected economic success. We combine our assessments of industry risk, country risk, and competitive position to determine the assessment for a corporation's business risk profile.

5. The financial risk profile is the outcome of decisions that management makes in the context of its business risk profile and its financial risk tolerances. This includes decisions about the manner in which management seeks funding for the company and how it constructs its balance sheet. It also reflects the relationship of the cash flows the organization can achieve, given its business risk profile, to the company's financial obligations. The criteria use cash flow/leverage analysis to determine a corporate issuer's financial risk profile assessment.

6. We then combine an issuer's business risk profile assessment and its financial risk profile assessment to determine its anchor (see table 3). Additional rating factors can modify the anchor. These are: diversification/portfolio effect, capital structure, financial policy, liquidity, and management and governance. Comparable ratings analysis is the last analytical factor under the criteria to determine the final SACP on a company.

7. These criteria are complemented by industry-specific criteria called Key Credit Factors (KCFs). The KCFs describe the industry risk assessments associated with each sector and may identify sector-specific criteria that supersede certain

sections of these criteria. As an example, the liquidity criteria state that the relevant KCF article may specify different standards than those stated within the liquidity criteria to evaluate companies that are part of exceptionally stable or volatile industries. The KCFs may also define sector-specific criteria for one or more of the factors in the analysis. For example, the analysis of a regulated utility's competitive position is different from the methodology to evaluate the competitive position of an industrial company. The regulated utility KCF will describe the criteria we use to evaluate those companies' competitive positions (see "Key Credit Factors For The Regulated Utility Industry," published Nov. 19, 2013).

SCOPE OF THE CRITERIA

8. This methodology applies to nonfinancial corporate issuer credit ratings globally. Please see "Criteria Guidelines For Recovery Ratings On Global Industrial Issuers' Speculative-Grade Debt," published Aug. 10, 2009, and "2008 Corporate Criteria: Rating Each Issue," published April 15, 2008, for further information on our methodology for determining issue ratings. This methodology does not apply to the following sectors, based on the unique characteristics of these sectors, which require either a different framework of analysis or substantial modifications to one or more factors of analysis: project finance entities, project developers, transportation equipment leasing, auto rentals, commodities trading, investment holding companies and companies that maximize their returns by buying and selling equity holdings over time, Japanese general trading companies, corporate securitizations, nonprofit and cooperative organizations, master limited partnerships, general partnerships of master limited partnerships, and other entities whose cash flows are primarily derived from partially owned equity holdings.

IMPACT ON OUTSTANDING RATINGS

9. We expect about 5% of corporate industrial companies and utilities ratings within the scope of the criteria to change. Of that number, we expect approximately 90% to receive a one-notch change, with the majority of the remainder receiving a two-notch change. We expect the ratio of upgrades to downgrades to be around 3:1.

EFFECTIVE DATE AND TRANSITION

10. These criteria are effective immediately on the date of publication. We intend to complete our review of all affected ratings within the next six months.

METHODOLOGY

A. Corporate Ratings Framework

11. The corporate analytical methodology organizes the analytical process according to a common framework, and it divides the task into several factors so that Standard & Poor's considers all salient issues. First we analyze the company's business risk profile, then evaluate its financial risk profile, then combine those to determine an issuer's

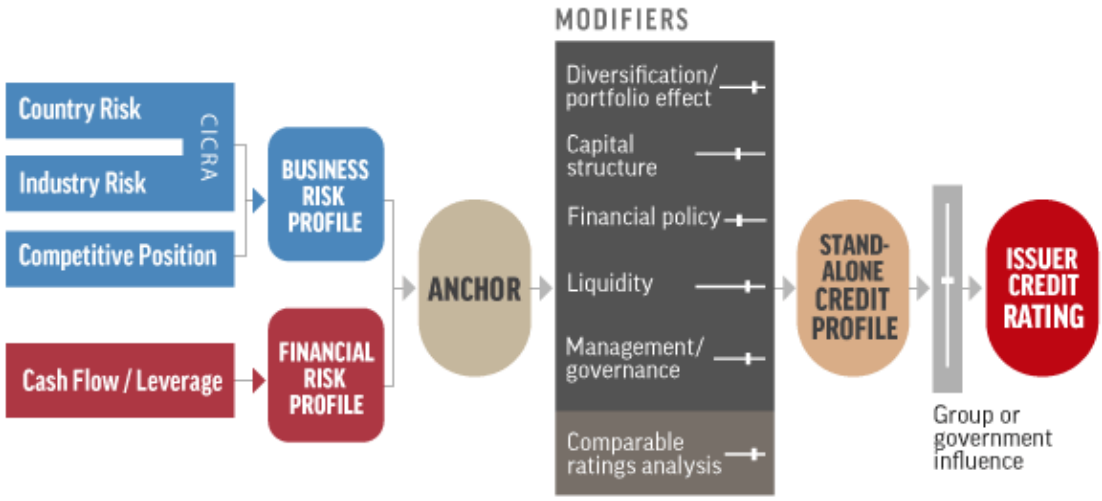
anchor. We then analyze six factors that could potentially modify our anchor conclusion.

12. To determine the assessment for a corporate issuer's business risk profile, the criteria combine our assessments of industry risk, country risk, and competitive position. Cash flow/leverage analysis determines a company's financial risk profile assessment. The analysis then combines the corporate issuer's business risk profile assessment and its financial risk profile assessment to determine its anchor. In general, the analysis weighs the business risk profile more heavily for investment-grade anchors, while the financial risk profile carries more weight for speculative-grade anchors.

13. After we determine the anchor, we use additional factors to modify the anchor. These factors are: diversification/portfolio effect, capital structure, financial policy, liquidity, and management and governance. The assessment of each factor can raise or lower the anchor by one or more notches--or have no effect. These conclusions take the form of assessments and descriptors for each factor that determine the number of notches to apply to the anchor.

14. The last analytical factor the criteria call for is comparable ratings analysis, which may raise or lower the anchor by one notch based on a holistic view of the company's credit characteristics.

Corporate Criteria Framework



15. The three analytic factors within the business risk profile generally are a blend of qualitative assessments and quantitative information. Qualitative assessments distinguish risk factors, such as a company's competitive advantages, that we use to assess its competitive position. Quantitative information includes, for example, historical cyclicality of revenues and profits that we review when assessing industry risk. It can also include the volatility and level of profitability we consider in order to assess a company's competitive position. The assessments for business risk profile

are: 1, excellent; 2, strong; 3, satisfactory; 4, fair; 5, weak; and 6, vulnerable.

16. In assessing cash flow/leverage to determine the financial risk profile, the analysis focuses on quantitative measures. The assessments for financial risk profile are: 1, minimal; 2, modest; 3, intermediate; 4, significant; 5, aggressive; and 6, highly leveraged.

17. The ICR results from the combination of the SACP and the support framework, which determines the extent of the difference between the SACP and the ICR, if any, for group or government influence. Extraordinary influence is then captured in the ICR. Please see "Group Rating Methodology," published Nov. 19, 2013, and "Rating Government-Related Entities: Methodology And Assumptions," published Dec. 9, 2010, for our methodology on group and government influence.

18. Ongoing support or negative influence from a government (for government-related entities), or from a group, is factored into the SACP (see "SACP criteria"). While such ongoing support/negative influence does not affect the industry or country risk assessment, it can affect any other factor in business or financial risk. For example, such support or negative influence can affect: national industry analysis, other elements of competitive position, financial risk profile, the liquidity assessment, and comparable ratings analysis.

19. The application of these criteria will result in an SACP that could then be constrained by the relevant sovereign rating and transfer and convertibility (T&C) assessment affecting the entity when determining the ICR. In order for the final ICR to be higher than the applicable sovereign rating or T&C assessment, the entity will have to meet the conditions established in "Ratings Above The Sovereign--Corporate And Government Ratings: Methodology And Assumptions," published Nov. 19, 2013.

1. Determining the business risk profile assessment

20. Under the criteria, the combined assessments for country risk, industry risk, and competitive position determine a company's business risk profile assessment. A company's strengths or weaknesses in the marketplace are vital to its credit assessment. These strengths and weaknesses determine an issuer's capacity to generate cash flows in order to service its obligations in a timely fashion.

21. Industry risk, an integral part of the credit analysis, addresses the relative health and stability of the markets in which a company operates. The range of industry risk assessments is: 1, very low risk; 2, low risk; 3, intermediate risk; 4, moderately high risk; 5, high risk; and 6, very high risk. The treatment of industry risk is in section B.

22. Country risk addresses the economic risk, institutional and governance effectiveness risk, financial system risk, and payment culture or rule of law risk in the countries in which a company operates. The range of country risk assessments is: 1, very low risk; 2, low risk; 3, intermediate risk; 4, moderately high risk; 5, high risk; and 6, very high risk. The treatment of country risk is in section C.

23. The evaluation of an enterprise's competitive position identifies entities that are best positioned to take advantage of key industry drivers or to mitigate associated risks more effectively--and achieve a competitive advantage and a stronger business risk profile than that of entities that lack a strong value proposition or are more vulnerable to industry risks. The range of competitive position assessments is: 1, excellent; 2, strong; 3, satisfactory; 4, fair; 5, weak;

and 6, vulnerable. The full treatment of competitive position is in section D.

24. The combined assessment for country risk and industry risk is known as the issuer's Corporate Industry and Country Risk Assessment (CICRA). Table 1 shows how to determine the combined assessment for country risk and industry risk.

Table 1

Determining The CICRA

	--Country risk assessment--					
Industry risk assessment	**1 (very low risk)**	**2 (low risk)**	**3 (intermediate risk)**	**4 (moderately high risk)**	**5 (high risk)**	**6 (very high risk)**
1 (very low risk)	1	1	1	2	4	5
2 (low risk)	2	2	2	3	4	5
3 (intermediate risk)	3	3	3	3	4	6
4 (moderately high risk)	4	4	4	4	5	6
5 (high risk)	5	5	5	5	5	6
6 (very high risk)	6	6	6	6	6	6

25. The CICRA is combined with a company's competitive position assessment in order to create the issuer's business risk profile assessment. Table 2 shows how we combine these assessments.

Table 2

Determining The Business Risk Profile Assessment

	--CICRA--					
Competitive position assessment	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
1 (excellent)	1	1	1	2	3*	5
2 (strong)	1	2	2	3	4	5
3 (satisfactory)	2	3	3	3	4	6
4 (fair)	3	4	4	4	5	6
5 (weak)	4	5	5	5	5	6
6 (vulnerable)	5	6	6	6	6	6

*See paragraph 26.

26. A small number of companies with a CICRA of 5 may be assigned a business risk profile assessment of 2 if all of the following conditions are met:

- The company's competitive position assessment is 1.
- The company's country risk assessment is no riskier than 3.
- The company produces significantly better-than-average industry profitability, as measured by the level and volatility of profits.
- The company's competitive position within its sector transcends its industry risks due to unique competitive advantages with its customers, strong operating efficiencies not enjoyed by the large majority of the industry, or scale/scope/diversity advantages that are well beyond the large majority of the industry.

27. For issuers with multiple business lines, the business risk profile assessment is based on our assessment of each of the factors--country risk, industry risk, and competitive position--as follows:

- Country risk: We use the weighted average of the country risk assessments for the company across all countries where companies generate more than 5% of sales or EBITDA, or where more than 5% of fixed assets are located.
- Industry risk: We use the weighted average of the industry risk assessments for all business lines representing more than 20% of the company's forecasted earnings, revenues or fixed assets, or other appropriate financial measures if earnings, revenue, or fixed assets do not accurately reflect the exposure to an industry.
- Competitive position: We assess all business lines identified above for the components competitive advantage, scope/scale/diversity, and operating efficiency (see section D). They are then blended using a weighted average of revenues, earnings, or assets to form the preliminary competitive position assessment. The level of profitability and volatility of profitability are then assessed based on the consolidated financials for the enterprise. The preliminary competitive position assessment is then blended with the profitability assessment, as per section D.5, to assess competitive position for the enterprise.

2. Determining the financial risk profile assessment

28. Under the criteria, cash flow/leverage analysis is the foundation for assessing a company's financial risk profile. The range of assessments for a company's cash flow/leverage is 1, minimal; 2, modest; 3, intermediate; 4, significant; 5, aggressive; and 6, highly leveraged. The full treatment of cash flow/leverage analysis is the subject of section E.

3. Merger of financial risk profile and business risk profile assessments

29. An issuer's business risk profile assessment and its financial risk profile assessment are combined to determine its anchor (see table 3). If we view an issuer's capital structure as unsustainable or if its obligations are currently vulnerable to nonpayment, and if the obligor is dependent upon favorable business, financial, and economic conditions to meet its commitments on its obligations, then we will determine the issuer's SACP using "Criteria For Assigning 'CCC+', 'CCC', 'CCC-', And 'CC' Ratings," published Oct. 1, 2012. If the issuer meets the conditions for assigning 'CCC+', 'CCC', 'CCC-', and 'CC' ratings, we will not apply Table 3.

Table 3

Combining The Business And Financial Risk Profiles To Determine The Anchor

	--Financial risk profile--					
Business risk profile	**1 (minimal)**	**2 (modest)**	**3 (intermediate)**	**4 (significant)**	**5 (aggressive)**	**6 (highly leveraged)**
1 (excellent)	aaa/aa+	aa	a+/a	a-	bbb	bbb-/bb+
2 (strong)	aa/aa-	a+/a	a-/bbb+	bbb	bb+	bb
3 (satisfactory)	a/a-	bbb+	bbb/bbb-	bbb-/bb+	bb	b+
4 (fair)	bbb/bbb-	bbb-	bb+	bb	bb-	b
5 (weak)	bb+	bb+	bb	bb-	b+	b/b-
6 (vulnerable)	bb-	bb-	bb-/b+	b+	b	b-

30. When two anchor outcomes are listed for a given combination of business risk profile assessment and financial risk profile assessment, an issuer's anchor is determined as follows:

- When a company's financial risk profile is 4 or stronger (meaning, 1-4), its anchor is based on the comparative strength of its business risk profile. We consider our assessment of the business risk profile for corporate issuers to be points along a possible range. Consequently, each of these assessments that ultimately generate the business risk profile for a specific issuer can be at the upper or lower end of such a range. Issuers with stronger business risk profiles for the range of anchor outcomes will be assigned the higher anchor. Those with a weaker business risk profile for the range of anchor outcomes will be assigned the lower anchor.

- When a company's financial risk profile is 5 or 6, its anchor is based on the comparative strength of its financial risk profile. Issuers with stronger cash flow/leverage ratios for the range of anchor outcomes will be assigned the higher anchor. Issuers with weaker cash flow/leverage ratios for the range of anchor outcomes will be assigned the lower anchor. For example, a company with a business risk profile of (1) excellent and a financial risk profile of (6) highly leveraged would generally be assigned an anchor of 'bb+' if its ratio of debt to EBITDA was 8x or greater and there were no offsetting factors to such a high level of leverage.

4. Building on the anchor

31. The analysis of diversification/portfolio effect, capital structure, financial policy, liquidity, and management and governance may raise or lower a company's anchor. The assessment of each modifier can raise or lower the anchor by one or more notches--or have no effect in some cases (see tables 4 and 5). We express these conclusions using specific assessments and descriptors that determine the number of notches to apply to the anchor. However, this notching in aggregate can't lower an issuer's anchor below 'b-' (see "Criteria For Assigning 'CCC+', 'CCC', 'CCC-', And 'CC' Ratings," published Oct. 1, 2012, for the methodology we use to assign 'CCC' and 'CC' category SACPs and ICRs to issuers).

32. The analysis of the modifier diversification/portfolio effect identifies the benefits of diversification across business lines. The diversification/portfolio effect assessments are 1, significant diversification; 2, moderate diversification; and 3, neutral. The impact of this factor on an issuer's anchor is based on the company's business risk profile assessment and is described in Table 4. Multiple earnings streams (which are evaluated within a firm's business risk profile) that are less-than-perfectly correlated reduce the risk of default of an issuer (see Appendix D). We determine the impact of this factor based on the business risk profile assessment because the benefits of diversification are significantly reduced with poor business prospects. The full treatment of diversification/portfolio effect analysis is the subject of section F.

Table 4

Modifier Step 1: Impact Of Diversification/Portfolio Effect On The Anchor

	--Business risk profile assessment--					
Diversification/portfolio effect	**1 (excellent)**	**2 (strong)**	**3 (satisfactory)**	**4 (fair)**	**5 (weak)**	**6 (vulnerable)**
1 (significant diversification)	+2 notches	+2 notches	+2 notches	+1 notch	+1 notch	0 notches
2 (moderate diversification)	+1 notch	+1 notch	+1 notch	+1 notch	0 notches	0 notches
3 (neutral)	0 notches	0 notches	0 notches	0 notches	0 notches	0 notches

33. After we adjust for the diversification/portfolio effect, we determine the impact of the other modifiers: capital structure, financial policy, liquidity, and management and governance. We apply these four modifiers in the order listed in Table 5. As we go down the list, a modifier may (or may not) change the anchor to a new range (one of the ranges in the four right-hand columns in the table). We'll choose the appropriate value from the new range, or column, to determine the next modifier's effect on the anchor. And so on, until we get to the last modifier on the list—management and governance. For example, let's assume that the anchor, after adjustment for diversification/portfolio effect but before adjusting for the other modifiers, is 'a'. If the capital structure assessment is very negative, the indicated anchor drops two notches, to 'bbb+'. So, to determine the impact of the next modifier—financial policy—we go to the column 'bbb+ to bbb-' and find the appropriate assessment—in this theoretical example, positive. Applying that assessment moves the anchor up one notch, to the 'a- and higher' category. In our example, liquidity is strong, so the impact is zero notches and the anchor remains unchanged. Management and

governance is satisfactory, and thus the anchor remains 'a-' (see chart following table 5).

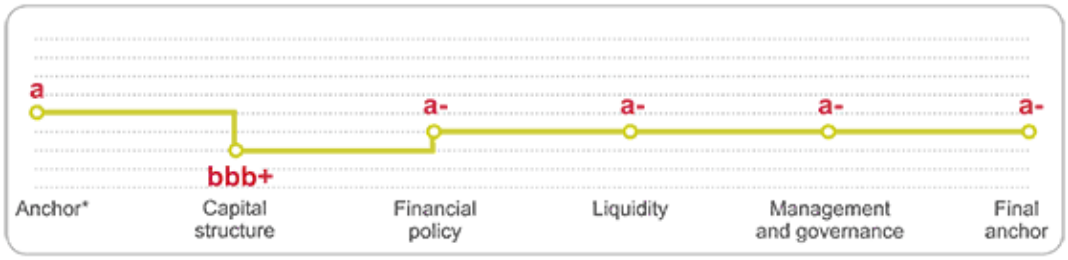
Table 5

Modifier Step 2: Impact Of Remaining Modifier Factors On The Anchor

	--Anchor range--			
	'a-' and higher	**'bbb+' to 'bbb-'**	**'bb+' to 'bb-'**	**'b+' and lower**
Factor/Assessment				
Capital structure (see section G)				
1 (Very positive)	2 notches	2 notches	2 notches	2 notches
2 (Positive)	1 notch	1 notch	1 notch	1 notch
3 (Neutral)	0 notches	0 notches	0 notches	0 notches
4 (Negative)	-1 notch	-1 notch	-1 notch	-1 notch
5 (Very negative)	-2 or more notches	-2 or more notches	-2 or more notches	-2 notches
Financial policy (FP; see section H)				
1 (Positive)	+1 notch if M&G is at least satisfactory	+1 notch if M&G is at least satisfactory	+1 notch if liquidity is at least adequate and M&G is at least satisfactory	+1 notch if liquidity is at least adequate and M&G is at least satisfactory
2 (Neutral)	0 notches	0 notches	0 notches	0 notches
3 (Negative)	-1 to -3 notches(1)	-1 to -3 notches(1)	-1 to -2 notches(1)	-1 notch
4 (FS-4, FS-5, FS-6, FS-6 [minus])	N/A(2)	N/A(2)	N/A(2)	N/A(2)
Liquidity (see section I)				
1 (Exceptional)	0 notches	0 notches	0 notches	+1 notch if FP is positive, neutral, FS-4, or FS-5 (3)
2 (Strong)	0 notches	0 notches	0 notches	+1 notch if FP is positive, neutral, FS-4, or FS-5 (3)
3 (Adequate)	0 notches	0 notches	0 notches	0 notches
4 (Less than adequate [4])	N/A	N/A	-1 notch(5)	0 notches
5 (Weak)	N/A	N/A	N/A	'b-' cap on SACP
Management and governance (M&G; see section J)				
1 (Strong)	0 notches	0 notches	0, +1 notches(6)	0, +1 notches(6)
2 (Satisfactory)	0 notches	0 notches	0 notches	0 notches
3 (Fair)	-1 notch	0 notches	0 notches	0 notches
4 (Weak)	-2 or more notches(7)	-2 or more notches(7)	-1 or more notches(7)	-1 or more notches(7)

(1) Number of notches depends on potential incremental leverage. (2) See "Financial Policy," section H.2. (3) Additional notch applies only if we expect liquidity to remain exceptional or strong. (4) See "Methodology And Assumptions: Liquidity Descriptors For Global Corporate Issuers," published Nov. 19, 2013. SACP is capped at 'bb+.' (5) If issuer SACP is 'bb+' due to cap, there is no further notching. (6) This adjustment is one notch if we have not already captured benefits of strong management and governance in the analysis of the issuer's competitive position. (7) Number of notches depends upon the degree of negative effect to the enterprise's risk profile.

Example: How Remaining Modifiers Can Change The Anchor



*After adjusting for diversification/portfolio effect. See paragraph 33.

34. Our analysis of a firm's capital structure assesses risks in the firm's capital structure that may not arise in the review of its cash flow/leverage. These risks include the currency risk of debt, debt maturity profile, interest rate risk of debt, and an investments subfactor. We assess a corporate issuer's capital structure on a scale of 1, very positive; 2, positive; 3, neutral; 4, negative; and 5, very negative. The full treatment of capital structure is the subject of section G.

35. Financial policy serves to refine the view of a company's risks beyond the conclusions arising from the standard assumptions in the cash flow/leverage, capital structure, and liquidity analyses. Those assumptions do not always reflect or adequately capture the long-term risks of a firm's financial policy. The financial policy assessment is, therefore, a measure of the degree to which owner/managerial decision-making can affect the predictability of a company's financial risk profile. We assess financial policy as 1) positive, 2) neutral, 3) negative, or as being owned by a financial sponsor. We further identify financial sponsor-owned companies as "FS-4", "FS-5", "FS-6", or "FS-6 (minus)." The full treatment of financial policy analysis is the subject of section H.

36. Our assessment of liquidity focuses on the monetary flows--the sources and uses of cash--that are the key indicators of a company's liquidity cushion. The analysis also assesses the potential for a company to breach covenant tests tied to declines in earnings before interest, taxes, depreciation, and amortization (EBITDA). The methodology incorporates a qualitative analysis that addresses such factors as the ability to absorb high-impact, low-probability events, the nature of bank relationships, the level of standing in credit markets, and the degree of prudence of the company's financial risk management. The liquidity assessments are 1, exceptional; 2, strong; 3, adequate; 4, less than adequate; and 5, weak. An SACP is capped at 'bb+' for issuers whose liquidity is less than adequate and 'b-' for issuers whose liquidity is weak, regardless of the assessment of any modifiers or comparable ratings analysis. (For the complete methodology on assessing corporate issuers' liquidity, see "Methodology And Assumptions: Liquidity Descriptors For Global Corporate Issuers," published Nov. 19, 2013.)

37. The analysis of management and governance addresses how management's strategic competence, organizational effectiveness, risk management, and governance practices shape the company's competitiveness in the marketplace, the strength of its financial risk management, and the robustness of its governance. The range of management and governance assessments is: 1, strong; 2, satisfactory; 3, fair; and 4, weak. Typically, investment-grade anchor outcomes reflect strong or satisfactory management and governance, so there is no incremental benefit. Alternatively, a fair or weak assessment of management and governance can lead to a lower anchor. Also, a strong assessment for management and governance for a weaker entity is viewed as a favorable factor, under the criteria, and can have a

positive impact on the final SACP outcome. For the full treatment of management and governance, see "Methodology: Management And Governance Credit Factors For Corporate Entities And Insurers," published Nov. 13, 2012.

5. Comparable ratings analysis

38. The anchor, after adjusting for the modifiers, could change one notch up or down in order to arrive at an issuer's SACP based on our comparable ratings analysis, which is a holistic review of a company's stand-alone credit risk profile, in which we evaluate an issuer's credit characteristics in aggregate. A positive assessment leads to a one-notch improvement, a negative assessment leads to a one-notch reduction, and a neutral assessment indicates no change to the anchor. The application of comparable ratings analysis reflects the need to 'fine-tune' ratings outcomes, even after the use of each of the other modifiers. A positive or negative assessment is therefore likely to be common rather than exceptional.

B. Industry Risk

39. The analysis of industry risk addresses the major factors that Standard & Poor's believes affect the risks that entities face in their respective industries. (See "Methodology: Industry Risk," published Nov. 19, 2013.)

C. Country Risk

40. The analysis of country risk addresses the major factors that Standard & Poor's believes affect the country where entities operate. Country risks, which include economic, institutional and governance effectiveness, financial system, and payment culture/rule of law risks, influence overall credit risks for every rated corporate entity. (See "Country Risk Assessment Methodology And Assumptions," published Nov. 19, 2013.)

1. Assessing country risk for corporate issuers

41. The following paragraphs explain how the criteria determine the country risk assessment for a corporate entity. Once it's determined, we combine the country risk assessment with the issuer's industry risk assessment to calculate the issuer's CICRA (see section A, table 1). The CICRA is one of the factors of the issuer's business risk profile. If an issuer has very low to intermediate exposure to country risk, as represented by a country risk assessment of 1, 2, or 3, country risk is neutral to an issuer's CICRA. But if an issuer has moderately high to very high exposure to country risk, as represented by a country risk assessment of 4, 5, or 6, the issuer's CICRA could be influenced by its country risk assessment.

42. Corporate entities operating within a single country will receive a country risk assessment for that jurisdiction. For entities with exposure to more than one country, the criteria prospectively measure the proportion of exposure to each country based on forecasted EBITDA, revenues, or fixed assets, or other appropriate financial measures if EBITDA, revenue, or fixed assets do not accurately reflect the exposure to that jurisdiction.

43. Arriving at a company's blended country risk assessment involves multiplying its weighted-average exposures for each country by each country's risk assessment and then adding those numbers. For the weighted-average calculation, the criteria consider countries where the company generates more than 5% of its sales or where more than 5% of its fixed assets are located, and all weightings are rounded to the nearest 5% before averaging. We round the assessment to the

nearest integer, so a weighted assessment of 2.2 rounds to 2, and a weighted assessment of 2.6 rounds to 3 (see table 6).

Table 6

Hypothetical Example Of Weighted-Average Country Risk For A Corporate Entity

Country	Weighting (% of business*)	Country risk§	Weighted country risk
Country A	45	1	0.45
Country B	20	2	0.4
Country C	15	1	0.15
Country D	10	4	0.4
Country E	10	2	0.2
Weighted-average country risk assessment (rounded to the nearest whole number)	--	--	2

*Using EBITDA, revenues, fixed assets, or other financial measures as appropriate. §On a scale from 1-6, lowest to highest risk.

44. A weak link approach, which helps us calculate a blended country risk assessment for companies with exposure to more than one country, works as follows: If fixed assets are based in a higher-risk country but products are exported to a lower-risk country, the company's exposure would be to the higher-risk country. Similarly, if fixed assets are based in a lower-risk country but export revenues are generated from a higher-risk country and cannot be easily redirected elsewhere, we measure exposure to the higher-risk country. If a company's supplier is located in a higher-risk country, and its supply needs cannot be easily redirected elsewhere, we measure exposure to the higher-risk country. Conversely, if the supply chain can be re-sourced easily to another country, we would not measure exposure to the higher risk country.

45. Country risk can be mitigated for a company located in a single jurisdiction in the following narrow case. For a company that exports the majority of its products overseas and has no direct exposure to a country's banking system that would affect its funding, debt servicing, liquidity, or ability to transfer payments from or to its key counterparties, we could reduce the country risk assessment by one category (e.g., 5 to 4) to determine the adjusted country risk assessment. This would only apply for countries where we considered the financial system risk subfactor a constraint on the overall country risk assessment for that country. For such a company, other country risks are not mitigated: Economic risk still applies, albeit less of a risk than for a company that sells domestically (potential currency volatility remains a risk for exporters); institutional and governance effectiveness risk still applies (political risk may place assets at risk); and payment culture/rule of law risk still applies (legal risks may place assets and cross-border contracts at risk).

46. Companies will often disclose aggregated information for blocks of countries, rather than disclosing individual country information. If the information we need to estimate exposure for all countries is not available, we use regional risk assessments. Regional risk assessments are calculated as averages of the unadjusted country risk assessments, weighted by gross domestic product of each country in a defined region. The criteria assess regional risk on a 1-6 scale (strongest to weakest). Please see Appendix A, Table 26, which lists the constituent countries of the regions.

47. If an issuer does not disclose its country-level exposure or regional-level exposure, individual country risk exposures or regional exposures will be estimated.

2. Adjusting the country risk assessment for diversity

48. We will adjust the country risk assessment for a company that operates in multiple jurisdictions and demonstrates a high degree of diversity of country risk exposures. As a result of this diversification, the company could have less exposure to country risk than the rounded weighted average of its exposures might indicate. Accordingly, the country risk assessment for a corporate entity could be adjusted if an issuer meets the conditions outlined in paragraph 49.

49. The preliminary country risk assessment is raised by one category to reflect diversity if all of the following four conditions are met:

- If the company's head office, as defined in paragraph 51, is located in a country with a risk assessment stronger than the preliminary country risk assessment;
- If no country, with a country risk assessment equal to or weaker than the company's preliminary country risk assessment, represents or is expected to represent more than 20% of revenues, EBITDA, fixed assets, or other appropriate financial measures;
- If the company is primarily funded at the holding level, or through a finance subsidiary in a similar or stronger country risk environment than the holding company, or if any local funding could be very rapidly substituted at the holding level; and
- If the company's industry risk assessment is '4' or stronger.

50. The country risk assessment for companies that have 75% or more exposure to one jurisdiction cannot be improved and will, in most instances, equal the country risk assessment of that jurisdiction. But the country risk assessment for companies that have 75% or more exposure to one jurisdiction can be weakened if the balance of exposure is to higher risk jurisdictions.

51. We consider the location of a corporate head office relevant to overall risk exposure because it influences the perception of a company and its reputation--and can affect the company's access to capital. We determine the location of the head office on the basis of 'de facto' head office operations rather than just considering the jurisdiction of incorporation or stock market listing for public companies. De facto head office operations refers to the country where executive management and centralized high-level corporate activities occur, including strategic planning and capital raising. If such activities occur in different countries, we take the weakest country risk assessment applicable for the countries in which those activities take place.

D. Competitive Position

52. Competitive position encompasses company-specific factors that can add to, or partly offset, industry risk and country risk--the two other major factors of a company's business risk profile.

53. Competitive position takes into account a company's: 1) competitive advantage, 2) scale, scope, and diversity, 3) operating efficiency, and 4) profitability. A company's strengths and weaknesses on the first three components shape its competitiveness in the marketplace and the sustainability or vulnerability of its revenues and profit. Profitability can either confirm our initial assessment of competitive position or modify it, positively or negatively. A stronger-than-industry-average set of competitive position characteristics will strengthen a company's business risk profile. Conversely, a weaker-than-industry-average set of competitive position characteristics will weaken a

company's business risk profile.

54. These criteria describe how we develop a competitive position assessment. They provide guidance on how we assess each component based on a number of subfactors. The criteria define the weighting rules applied to derive a preliminary competitive position assessment. And they outline how this preliminary assessment can be maintained, raised, or lowered based on a company's profitability. Standard & Poor's competitive position analysis is both qualitative and quantitative.

1. The components of competitive position

55. A company's competitive position assessment can be: 1, excellent; 2, strong; 3, satisfactory; 4, fair; 5, weak; or 6, vulnerable.

56. The analysis of competitive position includes a review of:

- Competitive advantage;
- Scale, scope, and diversity;
- Operating efficiency; and
- Profitability.

57. We follow four steps to arrive at the competitive position assessment. First, we separately assess competitive advantage; scale, scope, and diversity; and operating efficiency (excluding any benefits or risks already captured in the issuer's CICRA assessment). Second, we apply weighting factors to these three components to derive a weighted-average assessment that translates into a preliminary competitive position assessment. Third, we assess profitability. Finally, we combine the preliminary competitive position assessment and the profitability assessment to determine the final competitive position assessment. Profitability can confirm, or influence positively or negatively, the competitive position assessment.

58. We assess the relative strength of each of the first three components by reviewing a variety of subfactors (see table 7). When quantitative metrics are relevant and available, we use them to evaluate these subfactors. However, our overall assessment of each component is qualitative. Our evaluation is forward-looking; we use historical data only to the extent that they provide insight into future trends.

59. We evaluate profitability by assessing two subcomponents: level of profitability (measured by historical and projected nominal levels of return on capital, EBITDA margin, and/or sector-specific metrics) and volatility of profitability (measured by historically observed and expected fluctuations in EBITDA, return on capital, EBITDA margin, or sector specific metrics). We assess both subcomponents in the context of the company's industry.

Table 7

Competitive Position Components And Subfactors

Component	Explanation	Subfactors
1. Competitive advantage (see Appendix B, section 1)	The strategic positioning and attractiveness to customers of a company's products or services, and the fragility or sustainability of its business model	• Strategy • Differentiation/uniqueness/product positioning/bundling • Brand reputation and marketing • Product and/or service quality • Barriers to entry and customers' switching costs • Technological advantage and capabilities and vulnerability to/ability to drive technological displacement • Asset base characteristics
2. Scale, scope, and diversity (see Appendix B, section 2)	The concentration or diversification of business activities	• Diversity of products or services • Geographic diversity • Volumes, size of markets and revenues, and market share • Maturity of products or services
3. Operating efficiency (see Appendix B, section 3)	The quality and flexibility of a company's asset base and its cost management and structure	• Cost structure • Manufacturing processes • Working capital management • Technology
4. Profitability		• Level of profitability (historical and projected return on capital, EBITDA margin, and/or sector-relevant measure) • Volatility of profitability

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2. Assessing competitive advantage, scale, scope, and diversity, and operating efficiency

60. We assess competitive advantage; scale, scope, and diversity; and operating efficiency as: 1, strong; 2, strong/adequate; 3, adequate; 4, adequate/weak; or 5, weak. Tables 8, 9, and 10 provide guidance for assessing each component.

61. In assessing the components' relative strength, we place significant emphasis on comparative analysis. Peer comparisons provide context for evaluating the subfactors and the resulting component assessment. We review company-specific characteristics in the context of the company's industry, not just its narrower subsector. (See list of industries and subsectors in Appendix B, table 27.) For example, when evaluating an airline, we will benchmark the assessment against peers in the broader transportation-cyclical industry (including the marine and trucking subsectors), and not just against other airlines. Likewise, we will compare a home furnishing manufacturer with other companies in the consumer durables industry, including makers of appliances or leisure products. We might occasionally extend the comparison to other industries if, for instance, a company's business lines cross several industries, or if there are a limited number of rated peers in an industry, subsector, or region.

62. An assessment of strong means that the company's strengths on that component outweigh its weaknesses, and that the combination of relevant subfactors results in lower-than-average business risk in the industry. An assessment of adequate means that the company's strengths and weaknesses with respect to that component are balanced and that the relevant subfactors add up to average business risk in the industry. A weak assessment means that the company's weaknesses on that component override any strengths and that its subfactors, in total, reveal higher-than-average business risk in the industry.

63. Where a component is not clearly strong or adequate, we may assess it as strong/adequate. A component that is not clearly adequate or weak may end up as adequate/weak.

64. Although we review each subfactor, we don't assess each individually--and we seek to understand how they may reinforce or weaken each other. A component's assessment combines the relative strengths and importance of its subfactors. For any company, one or more subfactors can be unusually important--even factors that aren't common in the industry. Industry KCF articles identify subfactors that are consistently more important, or happen not to be relevant, in a given industry.

65. Not all subfactors may be equally important, and a single one's strength or weakness may outweigh all the others. For example, if notwithstanding a track record of successful product launches and its strong brand equity, a company's strategy doesn't appear adaptable, in our view, to changing competitive dynamics in the industry, we will likely not assess its competitive advantage as strong. Similarly, if its revenues came disproportionately from a narrow product line, we might view this as compounding its risk of exposure to a small geographic market and, thus, assess its scale, scope, and diversity component as weak.

66. From time to time companies will, as a result of shifting industry dynamics or strategies, expand or shrink their product or service lineups, alter their cost structures, encounter new competition, or have to adapt to new regulatory environments. In such instances, we will reevaluate all relevant subfactors (and component assessments).

Table 8

Competitive Advantage Assessment

Qualifier	What it means	Guidance
Strong	• The company has a major competitive advantage due to one or a combination of factors that supports revenue and profit growth, combined with lower-than-average volatility of profits. • There are strong prospects that the company can sustain this advantage over the long term. • This should enable the company to withstand economic downturns and competitive and technological threats better than its competitors can. • Any weaknesses in one or more subfactors are more than offset by strengths in other subfactors that produce sustainable and profitable revenue growth.	• The company's business strategy is highly consistent with, and adaptable to, industry trends and conditions and supports its leadership in the marketplace. • It consistently develops and markets well-differentiated products or services, aligns products with market demand, and enhances the attractiveness or uniqueness of its value proposition through bundling. • Its superior track record of product development, service quality, and customer satisfaction and retention support its ability to maintain or improve its market share. • Its products or services command a clear price premium relative to its competitors' thanks to its brand equity, technological leadership, or quality of service; it is able to sustain this advantage with innovation and effective marketing. • It benefits from barriers to entry from regulation, market characteristics, or intrinsic benefits (such as patents, technology, or customer relationships) that effectively reduce the threat of new competition. • It has demonstrated a commitment and ability to effectively reinvest in its asset base, as evidenced by a continuous pipeline of new products and/or improvement in key capabilities, such as employee retention, customer care, distribution, and supplier relations. These tangible and intangible assets support long term prospects of sustainable and profitable growth.
Adequate	• The company has some competitive advantages, but not so large as to create a superior business model or durable benefit compared to its peers'. • It has some but not all drivers of competitiveness. Certain factors support the business' long-term viability and should result in average profitability and average profit volatility during recessions or periods of increased competition. However, these drivers are partially offset by the company's disadvantages or lack of sustainability of other factors.	• The company's strategy is well adapted to marketplace conditions, but it is not necessarily a leader in setting industry trends. • It exhibits neither superior nor subpar abilities with respect to product or service differentiation and positioning. • Its products command no price premium or advantage relative to competing brands as a result of its brand equity or its technological positioning. • It may enjoy some barriers to entry that provide some defense against competitors but don't overpower them. It faces some risk of product/service displacement or substitution longer term. • Its metrics of product or service quality and customer satisfaction or retention are in line with its industry's average. The company could lose customers to competitors if it makes operational missteps. • Its asset profile does not exhibit particularly superior or inferior characteristics compared to other industry participants. These assets generate consistent revenue and profit growth although long-term prospects are subject to some uncertainty.

Weak	• The company has few, if any, competitive advantages and a number of competitive disadvantages. • Because the company lacks many competitive advantages, its long-term prospects are uncertain, and its profit volatility is likely to be higher than average for its industry. • The company is less likely than its competitors to withstand economic, competitive, or technological threats. • Alternatively, the company has weaknesses in one or more subfactors that could keep its profitability below average and its profit volatility above average during economic downturns or periods of increased competition.	• The company's strategy is inconsistent with, or not well adapted to, marketplace trends and conditions. • There is evidence of little innovation, slowness in developing and marketing new products, an inability to raise prices, and/or ineffective bundling. • Its products generally enjoy no price premium relative to competing brands and it often has to sell its products at a lower price than its peers can command. • It has suffered or is at risk of suffering customer defections due to falling quality and because customers perceive its products or services to be less valuable than those of its competitors. • Its revenues and market shares are vulnerable to aggressive pricing by existing or new competitors or to technological displacement risks over the near to medium term. • Its metrics of product or service quality and customer satisfaction or retention are weaker than the industry average. • Its reinvestment in its business is lower than its peers', its ability to retain operational talent is limited, its distribution network is inefficient, and its revenue could stagnate or decline as result.

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Table 9

Scale, Scope, And Diversity

Qualifier	What it means	Guidance
Strong	• The company's overall scale, scope, and diversity supports stable revenues and profits by rendering it essentially invulnerable to all but the most disruptive combinations of adverse factors, events, or trends. • Its significant advantages in scale, scope, and diversity enable it to withstand economic, regional, competitive, and technological threats better than its competitors can.	• The company's range of products or services is among the most comprehensive in its sector. It derives its revenue and profits from a broader set of products or services than the industry average. • Its products and services enjoy industry-leading market shares relative to other participants in its industry. • It does not rely on a particular customer or small group of customers. If it does, the customer(s) is/are of high credit quality, their demand is highly sustainable, or the company and its customer(s) have significant interdependence. • It does not depend on any particular supplier or related group of suppliers that it could not easily replace. If it does, the supplier(s) is/are of high credit quality, or the company and its supplier(s) have significant interdependence. • It enjoys broader geographic diversity than its peers and doesn't overly depend on a single regional or local market. If it does, the market is local, often for regulatory reasons. The company's production or service centers are diversified across several locations. • It holds a strategic investment that provides positive business diversification.
Adequate	• The company's overall scale, scope, and diversity is comparable to its peers'. • Its ability to withstand economic, competitive, or technological threats is comparable to the ability of others within its sector.	• The company has a broad range of products or services compared with its competitors and doesn't depend on a particular product or service for the majority of its revenues and profits. • Its market share is average compared with that of its competitors. • Its dependence on or concentration of key customers is no higher than the industry average, and the loss of a top customer would be unlikely to pose a high risk to its business stability. • It isn't overly dependent on any supplier or regional group of suppliers that it couldn't easily replace. • It doesn't depend excessively on a single local or regional market, and its geographic footprint of production and revenue compares with that of other industry participants.

Weak	• The company's lack of scale, scope, and diversity compromises the stability and sustainability of its revenues and profits. • The company's vulnerability to, or reliance on, various elements of scale, scope, and diversity leaves it less likely than its competitors to withstand economic, competitive, or technological threats.	• The company's product or service lineup is somewhat limited compared to those of its sector peers. The company derives its profits from a narrow group of products or services, and has not achieved significant market share compared with its peers. • Demand for its products or services is lower than for its competitors', and this trend isn't improving. • It relies heavily on a particular customer or small group of customers, and the characteristics of the customer base do not mitigate this risk. • It depends on a particular supplier or group of suppliers, which it would not be able to easily replace without incurring high switching costs. • It depends disproportionately on a single local or regional economy for selling its goods or services, and the company's industry is global. • Key production assets are concentrated by location, and the company has limited ability to quickly replace them without incurring high costs relative to its profits.

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Table 10

Operating Efficiency Assessment

Qualifier	What it means	Guidance
Strong	• The company maximizes revenues and profits via intelligent use of assets and by minimizing costs and increasing efficiency. • The company's cost structure should enable it to withstand economic downturns better than its peers.	• The company has a lower cost structure than its peers resulting in higher profits or margins even if capacity utilization or demand are well below ideal levels and during down economic and industry cycles. • It has demonstrated its ability to efficiently manage fixed and variable costs in cyclical downturns, and has a history of successful and often ongoing cost reductions programs. • Its capacity utilization is close to optimal at the peak of the industry cycle and outperforms the industry average over the cycle. • It has demonstrated that it can pass along increases in input costs and we expect this will continue. • It has a very high ability to adjust production and labor costs in response to changes in demand without repercussions for product quality, or has demonstrated the ability to operate very profitably in a more costly or less flexible labor environment. • Its suppliers have demonstrated an ability to meet swings in demand without causing bottlenecks or quality issues, and can absorb all but the most severe supply chain disruptions. • It has superior working capital management, as evidenced by a consistently better-than-average "cash conversion cycle" and other working capital metrics, supporting higher cash flow and lower funding costs. • Its investments in technology are likely to increase revenue growth and/or improve its cost structure and operating efficiency.

Adequate	• A combination of cost structure and efficiency should support sustainable profits with average profit volatility relative to the company's peers. Its cost structure is similar to its peers'.	• The company has demonstrated the ability to manage some fixed and most variable costs except during periods of extremely weak demand, and has some history of cutting costs in good and bad times. • Its cost structure permits some profitability even if capacity utilization or customer demand is well below ideal levels. The company can at least break even during most of the industry/demand cycle. • Its cost structure is in line with its peers'. For example, its selling, general, and administrative (SG&A) expense as a percent of revenue is similar to its peers' and is likely to be stable. • It has demonstrated an ability to adjust labor costs in most scenarios without hurting product output and quality, or can operate profitability in a more costly or less flexible labor environment; it has some success passing on input cost increases, although perhaps only partially or with time lag. • Its suppliers have met typical swings in demand without causing widespread bottlenecks or quality issues, and the company has some capacity to withstand limited supply chain disruptions. • It has good working capital management, evidenced by its cash conversion cycle and working capital metrics that are on par with its peers'. • Its investments in technology are likely to help it at least maintain its cost structure and current level of operating efficiency.
Weak	• The company's operating efficiency leaves it with lower profitability than its peers' due to lower asset utilization and/or a higher, less flexible cost structure.	• The company's cost structure permits better-than-marginal profitability only if capacity utilization is at the top of the cycle or during periods of strong demand. The company needs solid and sustained industry conditions to generate fair profitability. • It has limited success or capability of managing fixed costs and even most typically variable costs are fixed in the next two to three years. • It has a limited track record of successful cost reductions, such as reducing labor costs in the face of swings in demand, or it has limited ability to pass along increases in input costs. • Its costs are higher than its peers'. For example, the company's SG&A expense as a percent of revenue is above that of its peers, and likely to remain so. • Its suppliers may face bottlenecks or quality issues in the event of modest swings in demand, or have limited technological capabilities. There is evidence that a limited supply chain disruption would make it difficult for suppliers to meet their commitments to the company. • Its working capital management is weak, as evidenced by working capital metrics that are significantly worse than those of its peers, resulting in lower cash flow and higher funding costs. • It lacks investments in technology, which could hurt is revenue growth and/or result in a higher cost structure and less efficient operations relative to its peers'.

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3. Determining the preliminary competitive position assessment: Competitive position group profile and category weightings

67. After assessing competitive advantage; scale, scope, and diversity; and operating efficiency, we determine a company's preliminary competitive position assessment by ascribing a specific weight to each component. The weightings depend on the company's Competitive Position Group Profile (CPGP).

68. There are six possible CPGPs: 1) services and product focus, 2) product focus/scale driven, 3) capital or asset focus, 4) commodity focus/cost driven, 5) commodity focus/scale driven, and 6) national industry and utilities (see table 11 for definitions and characteristics).

Table 11

Competitive Position Group Profile (CPGP)

	Definition and characteristics	Examples
Services and product focus	Brands, product quality or technology, and service reputation are typically key differentiating factors for competing in the industry. Capital intensity is typically low to moderate, although supporting the brand often requires ongoing reinvestment in the asset base.	Typically, these are companies in consumer-facing light manufacturing or service industries. Examples include branded drug manufacturers, software companies, and packaged food.
Product focus/scale driven	Product and geographic diversity, as well as scale and market position are key differentiating factors. Sophisticated technology and stringent quality controls heighten risk of product concentration. Product preferences or sales relationships are more important than branding or pricing. Cost structure is relatively unimportant.	The sector most applicable is medical device/equipment manufacturers, particularly at the higher end of the technology scale. These companies largely sell through intermediaries, as opposed to directly to the consumer.
Capital or asset focus	Sizable capital investments are generally required to sustain market position in the industry. Brand identification is of limited importance, although product and service quality often remain differentiating factors.	Heavy manufacturing industries typically fall into this category. Examples include telecom infrastructure manufacturers and semiconductor makers.
Commodity focus/cost driven	Cost position and efficiency of production assets are more important than size, scope, and diversification. Brand identification is of limited importance	Typically, these are companies that manufacture products from natural resources that are used as raw materials by other industries. Examples include forest and paper products companies that harvest timber or produce pulp, packaging paper, or wood products.
Commodity focus/scale driven	Pure commodity companies have little product differentiation, and tend to compete on price and availability. Where present, brand recognition or product differences are secondary or of less importance.	Examples range from pure commodity producers and most oil and gas upstream producers, to some producers with modest product or brand differentiation, such as commodity foods.
National industries and utilities	Government policy or control, regulation, and taxation and tariff policies significantly affect the competitive dynamics of the industry (see paragraphs 72-73).	An example is a water-utility company in an emerging market.

69. The nature of competition and key success factors are generally prescribed by industry characteristics, but vary by company. Where service, product quality, or brand equity are important competitive factors, we'll give the competitive advantage component of our overall assessment a higher weighting. Conversely, if the company produces a commodity product, differentiation comes less into play, and we will more heavily weight scale, scope, and diversity as well as operating efficiency (see table 12).

Table 12

Competitive Position Group Profiles (CPGPs) And Category Weightings

Component	--(%)--					
	Services and product focus	**Product focus/scale driven**	**Capital or asset focus**	**Commodity focus/cost driven**	**Commodity focus/scale driven**	**National industries and utilities**
1. Competitive advantage	45	35	30	15	10	60
2. Scale, scope, and diversity	30	50	30	35	55	20
3. Operating efficiency	25	15	40	50	35	20
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Weighted-average assessment*	1.0-5.0	1.0-5.0	1.0-5.0	1.0-5.0	1.0-5.0	1.0-5.0

*1 (strong), 2 (strong/adequate), 3 (adequate), 4 (adequate/weak), 5 (weak).

70. We place each of the defined industries (see Appendix B, table 27) into one of the six CPGPs (see above and Appendix B, table 27). This is merely a starting point for the analysis, since we recognize that some industries are less homogenous than others, and that company-specific strategies do affect the basis of competition.

71. In fact, the criteria allow for flexibility in selecting a company's group profile (with its category weightings). Reasons for selecting a profile different than the one suggested in the guidance table could include:

- The industry is heterogeneous, meaning that the nature of competition differs from one subsector to the next, and possibly even within subsectors. The KCF article for the industry will identify such circumstances.
- A company's strategy could affect the relative importance of its key factors of competition.

72. For example, the standard CPGP for the telecom and cable industry is services and product focus. While this may be an appropriate group profile for carriers and service providers, an infrastructure provider may be better analyzed under the capital or asset focus group profile. Other examples: In the capital goods industry, a construction equipment rental company may be analyzed under the capital or asset focus group profile, owing to the importance of efficiently managing the capital spending cycle in this segment of the industry, whereas a provider of hardware, software, and services for industrial automation might be analyzed under the services and product focus group profile, if we believe it can achieve differentiation in the marketplace based on product performance, technology innovation, and service.

73. In some industries, the effects of government policy, regulation, government control, and taxation and tariff policies can significantly alter the competitive dynamics, depending on the country in which a company operates. That can alter our assessment of a company's competitive advantage; scale, size, and diversity; or operating efficiency. When industries in given countries have risks that differ materially from those captured in our global industry risk profile and assessment (see "Methodology: Industry Risk," published Nov. 19, 2013, section B), we will weight competitive advantage more heavily to capture the effect, positive or negative, on competitive dynamics. The assessment of competitive advantage; scale, size, and diversity; and operating efficiency will reflect advantages or disadvantages based on these national industry risk factors. Table 13 identifies the circumstances under which national industry risk factors are positive or negative.

Table 13

National Industry Risk Factors	
National industry risk factors are positive	• Government policy including regulation, ownership, and taxation is supportive and has a good track record of mitigating risks to the stability of industry margins. • Any government ownership, tariff, and taxation policy supports growth prospects for revenues and profit generation. • There is very little discernible risk of negative policy, regulatory, ownership, or taxation changes that could threaten business stability.
National industry risk factors are negative	• Government policy and regulation has a weak track record of stabilizing margins and reducing industry risks. • Any government ownership, tariff, and taxation policy undermine growth prospects for revenues and profit generation. • There is an increasing risk of negative policy, ownership, and taxation changes that could undermine industry stability.

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74. When national industry risk factors are positive for a company, typically they support revenue growth, profit growth, higher EBITDA margins, and/or lower-than-average volatility of profits. Often, these benefits provide barriers to entry that impede or even bar new market entrants, which should be reflected in the competitive advantage assessment. These benefits may also include risk mitigants that enable a company to withstand economic downturns and competitive and technological threats better in its local markets than its global competitors can. The scale, scope, and diversity assessment might also benefit from these policies if the company is able to withstand economic, regional, competitive, and technological threats better than its global competitors can. Likewise, the company's operating efficiency assessment may improve if, as a result, it is better able than its global competitors to withstand economic downturns, taking into account its cost structure.

75. Conversely, when national industry risk factors are negative for a company, typically they detract from revenue growth and profit growth, shrink EBITDA margins, and/or increase the average volatility of profits. The company may also have less protection against economic downturns and competitive and technological threats within its local markets than its global competitors do. We may also adjust the company's scale, scope, and diversity assessment lower if, as a result of these policies, it is less able to withstand economic, regional, competitive, and technological threats than its global competitors can. Likewise, we may adjust its operating efficiency assessment lower if, as a result of these policies, it is less able to withstand economic downturns, taking into account the company's cost structure.

76. An example of when we might use a national industry risk factor would be for a telecommunications network owner that benefits from a monopoly network position, supported by substantial capital barriers to entry, and as a result is subject to regulated pricing for its services. Accordingly, in contrast to a typical telecommunications company, our analysis of the company's competitive position would focus more heavily on the monopoly nature of its operations, as well as the nature and reliability of the operator's regulatory framework in supporting future revenue and earnings. If we viewed the regulatory framework as being supportive of the group's future earnings stability, and we considered its

monopoly position to be sustainable, we would assess these national industry risk factors as positive in our assessment of the group's competitive position.

77. The weighted average assessment translates into the preliminary competitive position assessment on a scale of 1 to 6, where one is best. Table 14 describes the matrix we use to translate the weighted average assessment of the three components into the preliminary competitive position assessment.

Table 14

Translation Table For Converting Weighted-Average Assessments Into Preliminary Competitive Position Assessments

Weighted average assessment range	Preliminary competitive position assessment
1.00 – 1.50	1
>1.50 – 2.25	2
>2.25 – 3.00	3
>3.00 – 3.75	4
>3.75 – 4.50	5
>4.50 – 5.00	6

4. Assessing profitability

78. We assess profitability on the same scale of 1 to 6 as the competitive position assessment.

79. The profitability assessment consists of two subcomponents: level of profitability and the volatility of profitability, which we assess separately. We use a matrix to combine these into the final profitability assessment.

a) Level of profitability

80. The level of profitability is assessed in the context of the company's industry. We most commonly measure profitability using return on capital (ROC) and EBITDA margins, but we may also use sector-specific ratios. Importantly, as with the other components of competitive position, we review profitability in the context of the industry in which the company operates, not just in its narrower subsector. (See list of industries and subsectors in Appendix B, table 27.)

81. We assess level of profitability on a three-point scale: above average, average, and below average. Industry KCF articles may establish numeric guidance, for instance by stating that an ROC above 12% is considered above average, between 8%-12% is average, and below 8% is below average for the industry, or by differentiating between subsectors in the industry. In the absence of numeric guidance, we compare a company against its peers across the industry.

82. We calculate profitability ratios generally based on a five-year average, consisting of two years of historical data, our projections for the current year (incorporating any reported year-to-date results and estimates for the remainder of the year), and the next two financial years. There may be situations where we consider longer or shorter historical results or forecasts, depending on such factors as availability of financials, transformational events (such as mergers or acquisitions [M&A]), cyclical distortion (such as peak or bottom of the cycle metrics that we do not deem fully representative of the company's level of profitability), and we take into account improving or deteriorating trends in profitability ratios in our assessment.

b) Volatility of profitability

83. We base the volatility of profitability on the standard error of the regression (SER) for a company's historical EBITDA, EBITDA margins, or return on capital. The KCF articles provide guidance on which measures are most appropriate for a given industry or set of companies. For each of these measures, we divide the standard error by the average of that measure over the time period in order to ensure better comparability across companies.

84. The SER is a statistical measure that is an estimate of the deviation around a 'best fit' linear trend line. We regress the company's EBITDA, EBITDA margins, or return on capital against time. A key advantage of SER over standard deviation or coefficient of variation is that it doesn't view upwardly trending data as inherently more volatile. At the same time, we recognize that SER, like any statistical measure, may understate or overstate expected volatility and thus we will make qualitative adjustments where appropriate (see paragraphs 86-90). Furthermore, we only calculate SER when companies have at least seven years of historical annual data and have not significantly changed their line of business during the timeframe, to ensure that the results are meaningful.

85. As with the level of profitability, we evaluate a company's SER in the context of its industry group. For most industries, we establish a six-point scale with 1 capturing the least volatile companies, i.e., those with the lowest SERs, and 6 identifying companies whose profits are most volatile. We have established industry-specific SER parameters using the most recent seven years of data for companies within each sector. We believe that seven years is generally an adequate number of years to capture a business cycle. (See Appendix B, section 4 for industry-specific SER parameters.) For companies whose business segments cross multiple industries, we evaluate the SER in the context of the organization's most dominant industry--if that industry represents at least two-thirds of the organization's EBITDA, sales, or other relevant metric. If the company is a conglomerate and no dominant industry can be identified, we will evaluate its profit volatility in the context of SER guidelines for all nonfinancial companies.

86. In certain circumstances, the SER derived from historical information may understate--or overstate--expected future volatility, and we may adjust the assessment downward or upward. The scope of possible adjustments depends on certain conditions being met as described below.

87. We might adjust the SER-derived volatility assessment to a worse assessment (i.e., to a higher assessment for greater volatility) by up to two categories if the expected level of volatility isn't apparent in historical numbers, and the company either:

- Has a weighted country risk assessment of 4 or worse, which may, notwithstanding past performance, result in a less stable business environment going forward;
- Operates in a subsector of the industry that may be prone to higher technology or regulation changes, or other potential disruptive risks that have not emerged over the seven year period;
- Is of limited size and scope, which will often result in inherently greater vulnerability to external changes; or
- Has pursued material M&A or internal growth projects that obscure the company's underlying performance trend line. As an example, a company may have consummated an acquisition during the trough of the cycle, masking what would otherwise be a significant decline in performance.

88. The choice of one or two categories depends on the degree of likelihood that the related risks will materialize and our view of the likely severity of these risks.

89. Conversely, we may adjust the SER-derived volatility assessment to a better assessment (i.e., to a lower assessment reflecting lower volatility) by up to two categories if we observe that the conditions historically leading to greater volatility have receded and are misrepresentative. This will be the case when:

- The company grew at a moderately faster, albeit more uneven, pace relative to the industry. Since we measure volatility around a linear trend line, a company growing at a constant percentage of moderate increase (relative to the industry) or an uneven pace (e.g., due to "lumpy" capital spending programs) could receive a relatively unfavorable assessment on an unadjusted basis, which would not be reflective of the company's performance in a steady state. (Alternatively, those companies that grow at a significantly higher-than-average industry rate often do so on unsustainable rates of growth or by taking on high-risk strategies. Companies with these high-risk growth strategies would not receive a better assessment and could be adjusted to a worse assessment;)
- The company's geographic, customer, or product diversification has increased in scope as a result of an acquisition or rapid expansion (e.g. large, long-term contracts wins), leading to more stability in future earnings in our view; or
- The company's business model is undergoing material change that we expect will benefit earnings stability, such as a new regulatory framework or major technology shift that is expected to provide a significant competitive hedge and margin protection over time.

90. The choice of one or two categories depends on the degree of likelihood that the related risks will materialize and our view of the likely severity of these risks.

91. If the company either does not have at least seven years of annual data or has materially changed its business lines or undertaken abnormally high levels of M&A during this time period, then we do not use its SER to assess the volatility of profitability. In these cases, we use a proxy to establish the volatility assessment. If there is a peer company that has, and is expected to continue having, very similar profitability volatility characteristics, we use the SER of that peer entity as a proxy.

92. If no such matching peer exists, or one cannot be identified with enough confidence, we perform an assessment of expected volatility based on the following rules:

- An assessment of 3 if we expect the company's profitability, supported by available historical evidence, will exhibit a volatility pattern in line with, or somewhat less volatile than, the industry average.
- An assessment of 2 based on our confidence, supported by available historical evidence, that the company will exhibit lower volatility in profitability metrics than the industry's average. This could be underpinned by some of the factors listed in paragraph 89, whereas those listed in paragraph 87 would typically not apply.
- An assessment of 4 or 5 based on our expectation that profitability metrics will exhibit somewhat higher (4), or meaningfully higher (5) volatility than the industry, supported by available historical evidence, or because of the applicability of possible adjustment factors listed in paragraph 87.
- Assessments of either 1 or 6 are rarely assigned and can only be achieved based on a combination of data evidence and very high confidence tests. For an assessment of 1, we require strong evidence of minimal volatility in profitability metrics compared with the industry, supported by at least five years of historical information, combined with a very high degree of confidence that this will continue in the future, including no country risk, subsector risk or size considerations that could otherwise warrant a worse assessment as per paragraph 87. For an assessment of 6 we require strong evidence of very high volatility in profitability metrics compared with the industry, supported by at least five years of historical information and very high confidence that this will continue in the future.

93. Next, we combine the level of profitability assessment with the volatility assessment to determine the final profitability

assessment using the matrix in Table 15.

Table 15

Profitability Assessment

	--Volatility of profitability assessment--					
Level of profitability assessment	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
Above average	1	1	2	3	4	5
Average	1	2	3	4	5	6
Below average	2	3	4	5	6	6

5. Combining the preliminary competitive position assessment with profitability

94. The fourth and final step in arriving at a competitive position assessment is to combine the preliminary competitive position assessment with the profitability assessment. We use the combination matrix in Table 16, which shows how the profitability assessment can confirm, strengthen, or weaken (by up to one category) the overall competitive position assessment.

Table 16

Combining The Preliminary Competitive Position Assessment And Profitability Assessment

	--Preliminary competitive position assessment--					
Profitability assessment	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
1	1	2	2	3	4	5
2	1	2	3	3	4	5
3	2	2	3	4	4	5
4	2	3	3	4	5	5
5	2	3	4	4	5	6
6	2	3	4	5	5	6

95. We generally expect companies with a strong preliminary competitive position assessment to exhibit strong and less volatile profitability metrics. Conversely, companies with a relatively weaker preliminary competitive position assessment will generally have weaker and/or more volatile profitability metrics. Our analysis of profitability helps substantiate whether management is translating any perceived competitive advantages, diversity benefits, and cost management measures into higher earnings and more stable return on capital and return on sales ratios than the averages for the industry. When profitability differs markedly from what the preliminary/anchor competitive position assessment would otherwise imply, we adjust the competitive position assessment accordingly.

96. Our method of adjustment is biased toward the preliminary competitive position assessment rather than toward the profitability assessment (e.g., a preliminary competitive assessment of 6 and a profitability assessment of 1 will result in a final assessment of 5).

E. Cash Flow/Leverage

97. The pattern of cash flow generation, current and future, in relation to cash obligations is often the best indicator of a company's financial risk. The criteria assess a variety of credit ratios, predominately cash flow-based, which

complement each other by focusing on the different levels of a company's cash flow waterfall in relation to its obligations (i.e., before and after working capital investment, before and after capital expenditures, before and after dividends), to develop a thorough perspective. Moreover, the criteria identify the ratios that we think are most relevant to measuring a company's credit risk based on its individual characteristics and its business cycle.

98. For the analysis of companies with intermediate or stronger cash flow/leverage assessments (a measure of the relationship between the company's cash flows and its debt obligations as identified in paragraphs 106 and 124), we primarily evaluate cash flows that reflect the considerable flexibility and discretion over outlays that such companies typically possess. For these entities, the starting point in the analysis is cash flows before working capital changes plus capital investments in relation to the size of a company's debt obligations in order to assess the relative ability of a company to repay its debt. These "leverage" or "payback" cash flow ratios are a measure of how much flexibility and capacity the company has to pay its obligations.

99. For entities with significant or weaker cash flow/leverage assessments (as identified in paragraphs 105 and 124), the criteria also call for an evaluation of cash flows in relation to the carrying cost or interest burden of a company's debt. This will help us assess a company's relative and absolute ability to service its debt. These "coverage"- or "debt service"-based cash flow ratios are a measure of a company's ability to pay obligations from cash earnings and the cushion the company possesses through stress periods. These ratios, particularly interest coverage ratios, become more important the further a company is down the credit spectrum.

1. Assessing cash flow/leverage

100. Under the criteria, we assess cash flow/leverage as 1, minimal; 2, modest; 3, intermediate; 4, significant; 5, aggressive; or 6, highly leveraged. To arrive at these assessments, the criteria combine the assessments of a variety of credit ratios, predominately cash flow-based, which complement each other by focusing attention on the different levels of a company's cash flow waterfall in relation to its obligations. For each ratio, there is an indicative cash flow/leverage assessment that corresponds to a specified range of values in one of three given benchmark tables (see tables 17, 18, and 19). We derive the final cash flow/leverage assessment for a company by determining the relevant core ratios, anchoring a preliminary cash flow assessment based on the relevant core ratios, determining the relevant supplemental ratio(s), adjusting the preliminary cash flow assessment according to the relevant supplemental ratio(s), and, finally, modifying the adjusted cash flow/leverage assessment for any material volatility.

2. Core and supplemental ratios

a) Core ratios

101. For each company, we calculate two core credit ratios--funds from operations (FFO) to debt and debt to EBITDA--in accordance with Standard & Poor's ratios and adjustments criteria (see "Corporate Methodology: Ratios And Adjustments," published Nov. 19, 2013). We compare these payback ratios against benchmarks to derive the preliminary cash flow/leverage assessment for a company. These ratios are also useful in determining the relative ranking of the financial risk of companies.

b) Supplemental ratios

102. The criteria also consider one or more supplemental ratios (in addition to the core ratios) to help develop a fuller understanding of a company's financial risk profile and fine-tune our cash flow/leverage analysis. Supplemental ratios

could either confirm or adjust the preliminary cash flow/leverage assessment. The confirmation or adjustment of the preliminary cash flow/leverage assessment will depend on the importance of the supplemental ratios as well as any difference in indicative cash flow/leverage assessment between the core and supplemental ratios as described in section E.3.b.

103. The criteria typically consider five standard supplemental ratios, although the relevant KCF criteria may introduce additional supplemental ratios or focus attention on one or more of the standard supplemental ratios. The standard supplemental ratios include three payback ratios--cash flow from operations (CFO) to debt, free operating cash flow (FOCF) to debt, and discretionary cash flow (DCF) to debt--and two coverage ratios, FFO plus interest to cash interest and EBITDA to interest.

104. The criteria provide guidelines as to the relative importance of certain ratios if a company exhibits characteristics such as high leverage, working capital intensity, capital intensity, or high growth.

105. If the preliminary cash flow/leverage assessment is significant or weaker (see section E.3), then two coverage ratios, FFO plus interest to cash interest and EBITDA to interest, will be given greater importance as supplemental ratios. For the purposes of calculating the coverage ratios, "cash interest" includes only cash interest payments (i.e., interest excludes noncash interest payable on, for example, payment-in-kind [PIK] instruments) and does not include any Standard & Poor's adjusted interest on such items as leases, while "interest" is the income statement figure plus Standard & Poor's adjustments to interest (see "Corporate Methodology: Ratios And Adjustments," published Nov. 19, 2013).

106. If the preliminary cash flow/leverage assessment is intermediate or stronger, the criteria first apply the three standard supplemental ratios of CFO to debt, FOCF to debt, and DCF to debt. When FOCF to debt and DCF to debt indicate a cash flow/leverage assessment that is lower than the other payback-ratio-derived cash flow/leverage assessments, it signals that the company has either larger than average capital spending or other non-operating cash distributions (including dividends). If these differences persist and are consistent with a negative trend in overall ratio levels, which we believe is not temporary, then these supplemental leverage ratios will take on more importance in the analysis.

107. If the supplemental ratios indicate a cash flow/leverage assessment that is different than the preliminary cash flow/leverage assessment, it could suggest an unusual debt service or fixed charge burden, working capital or capital expenditure profile, or unusual financial activity or policies. In such cases, we assess the sustainability or persistence of these differences. For example, if either working capital or capital expenditures are unusually low, leading to better indicated assessments, we examine the sustainability of such lower spending in the context of its impact on the company's longer term competitive position. If there is a deteriorating trend in the company's asset base, we give these supplemental ratios less weight. If either working capital or capital expenditures are unusually high, leading to weaker indicated assessments, we examine the persistence and need for such higher spending. If elevated spending levels are required to maintain a company's competitive position, for example to maintain the company's asset base, we give more weight to these supplemental ratios.

108. For capital-intensive companies, EBITDA and FFO may overstate financial strength, whereas FOCF may be a more accurate reflection of their cash flow in relation to their financial obligations. The criteria generally consider a

capital-intensive company as having ongoing capital spending to sales of greater than 10%, or depreciation to sales of greater than 8%. For these companies, the criteria place more weight on the supplementary ratio of FOCF to debt. Where we place more analytic weight on FOCF to debt, we also seek to estimate the amount of maintenance or full cycle capital required (see Appendix C) under normal conditions (we estimate maintenance or full-cycle capital expenditure required because this is not a reported number). The FOCF figure may be adjusted by adding back estimated discretionary capital expenditures. The adjusted FOCF to debt based on maintenance or full cycle capital expenditures often helps determine how much importance to place on this ratio. If both the FOCF to debt and the adjusted (for estimated discretionary capital spending) FOCF to debt derived assessments are different from the preliminary cash/flow leverage assessment, then these supplemental leverage ratios take on more importance in the analysis.

109. For working-capital-intensive companies, EBITDA and FFO may also overstate financial strength, and CFO may be a more accurate measure of the company's cash flow in relation to its financial risk profile. Under the criteria, if a company has a working capital-to-sales ratio that exceeds 25% or if there are significant seasonal swings in working capital, we generally consider it to be working-capital-intensive. For these companies, the criteria place more emphasis on the supplementary ratio of CFO to debt. Examples of companies that have working-capital-intensive characteristics can be found in the capital goods, metals and mining downstream, or the retail and restaurants industries. The need for working capital in those industries reduces financial flexibility and, therefore, these supplemental leverage ratios take on more importance in the analysis.

110. For all companies, when FOCF to debt or DCF to debt is negative or indicates materially lower cash flow/leverage assessments, the criteria call for an examination of management's capital spending and cash distribution strategies. For high-growth companies, typically the focus is on FFO to debt instead of FOCF to debt because the latter ratio can vary greatly depending on the growth investment the company is undergoing. The criteria generally consider a high-growth company one that exhibits real revenue growth in excess of 8% per year. Real revenue growth excludes price or foreign exchange related growth, under these criteria. In cases where FOCF or DCF is low, there is a greater emphasis on monitoring the sustainability of margins and return on capital and the overall financing mix to assess the likely trend of future debt ratios. In addition, debt service ratio analysis will be important in such situations. For companies with more moderate growth, the focus is typically on FOCF to debt unless the capital spending is short term or is not funded with debt.

111. For companies that have ongoing and well entrenched banking relationships we can reflect these relationships in our cash flow/leverage analysis through the use of the interest coverage ratios as supplemental ratios. These companies generally have historical links and a strong ongoing relationship with their main banks, as well as shareholdings by the main banks, and management influence and interaction between the main banks and the company. Based on their bank relationships, these companies often have lower interest servicing costs than peers, even if the macro economy worsens. In such cases, we generally use the interest coverage ratios as supplemental ratios. This type of banking relationship occurs in Japan, for example, where companies that have the type of bank relationship described in this paragraph tend to have a high socioeconomic influence within their country by way of their revenue size, total debt quantum, number of employees, and the relative importance of the industry.

c) Time horizon and ratio calculation

112. A company's credit ratios may vary, often materially, over time due to economic, competitive, technological, or investment cycles, the life stage of the company, and corporate or strategic actions. Thus, we evaluate credit ratios on a time series basis with a clear forward-looking bias. The length of the time series is dependent on the relative credit risk of the company and other qualitative factors and the weighting of the time series varies according to transformational events. A transformational event is any event that could cause a material change in a company's financial profile, whether caused by changes to the company's capital base, capital structure, earnings, cash flow profile, or financial policies. Transformational events can include mergers, acquisitions, divestitures, management changes, structural changes to the industry or competitive environment, and/or product development and capital programs. This section provides guidance on the timeframe and weightings the criteria apply to calculate the indicative ratios.

113. The criteria generally consider the company's credit ratios for the previous one to two years, current-year forecast, and the two subsequent forecasted financial years. There may be situations where longer--or even shorter--historical results or forecasts are appropriate, depending on such factors as availability of financials, transformational events, or relevance. For example, a utility company with a long-term capital spending program may lend itself to a longer-term forecast, whereas for a company experiencing a near-term liquidity squeeze even a two-year forecast will have limited value. Alternatively, for most commodities-based companies we emphasize credit ratios based on our forward-looking view of market conditions, which may differ materially from the historical period.

114. Historical patterns in cash flow ratios are informative, particularly in understanding past volatility, capital spending, growth, accounting policies, financial policies, and business trends. Our analysis starts with a review of these historical patterns in order to assess future expected credit quality. Historical patterns can also provide an indication of potential future volatility in ratios, including that which results from seasonality or cyclicality. A history of volatility could result in a more conservative assessment of future cash flow generation if we believe cash flow will continue to be volatile.

115. The forecast ratios are based on an expected base-case scenario developed by Standard & Poor's, incorporating current and near-term economic conditions, industry assumptions, and financial policies. The prospective cyclical and longer-term volatility associated with the industry in which the issuer operates is addressed in the industry risk criteria (see section B) and the longer-term directional influence or event risk of financial policies is addressed in our financial policy criteria (see section H).

116. The criteria generally place greater emphasis on forecasted years than historical years in the time series of credit ratios when calculating the indicative credit ratio. For companies where we have five years of ratios as described in section E.3, generally we calculate the indicative ratio by weighting the previous two years, the current year, and the forecasted two years as 10%, 15%, 25%, 25%, and 25%, respectively.

117. This weighting changes, however, to place even greater emphasis on the current and forecast years when:

- The issuer meets the characteristics described in paragraph 113, and either shorter- or longer-term forecasts are applicable. The weights applied will generally be quite forward weighted, particularly if a company is undergoing a transformational event and there is moderate or better cash flow certainty.
- The issuer is forecast to generate negative cash flow available for debt repayment, which we believe could lead to

deteriorating credit metrics. Forecast negative cash flows could be generated from operating activities as well as capital expenditures, share buybacks, dividends, or acquisitions, as we forecast these uses of cash based on the company's track record, market conditions, or financial policy. The weights applied will generally be 30%, 40%, and 30% for the current and two subsequent years, respectively.

- The issuer is in an industry that is prospectively volatile or that has a high degree of cash flow uncertainty. Industries that are prospectively volatile are industries whose competitive risk and growth assessments are either high risk (5) or very high risk (6) or whose overall industry risk assessments are either high risk (5) or very high risk (6). The weights applied will generally be 50% for the current year and 50% for the first subsequent forecast year.

118. When the indicative ratio(s) is borderline (i.e., less than 10% different from the threshold in relative terms) between two assessment thresholds (as described in section E.3 and tables 17, 18, and 19) and the forecast points to a switch in the ratio between categories during the rating timeframe, we will weigh the forecast even more heavily in order to prospectively capture the trend.

119. For companies undergoing a transformational event, the weighting of the time series could vary significantly.

120. For companies undergoing a transformational event and with significant or weaker cash flow/leverage assessments, we place greater weight on near-term risk factors. That's because overemphasis on longer-term (inherently less predictable) issues could lead to some distortion when assessing the risk level of a speculative-grade company. We generally analyze a company using the arithmetic mean of the credit ratios expected according to our forecasts for the current year (or pro forma current year) and the subsequent financial year. A common example of this is when a private equity firm acquires a company using additional debt leverage, which makes historical financial ratios meaningless. In this scenario, we weight or focus the majority of our analysis on the next one or two years of projected credit measures.

3. Determining the cash flow/leverage assessment

a) Identifying the benchmark table

121. Tables 17, 18, and 19 provide benchmark ranges for various cash flow ratios we associate with different cash flow/leverage assessments for standard volatility, medial volatility, and low volatility industries. The tables of benchmark ratios differ for a given ratio and cash flow/leverage assessment along two dimensions: the starting point for the ratio range and the width of the ratio range.

122. If an industry exhibits low volatility, the threshold levels for the applicable ratios to achieve a given cash flow/leverage assessment are less stringent than those in the medial or standard volatility tables, although the range of the ratios is narrower. Conversely, if an industry exhibits medial or standard levels of volatility, the threshold for the applicable ratios to achieve a given cash flow/leverage assessment are elevated, albeit with a wider range of values.

123. The relevant benchmark table for a given company is based on our assessment of the company's associated industry and country risk volatility, or the CICRA (see section A, table 1). The low volatility table (table 19) will generally apply when a company's CICRA is 1, unless otherwise indicated in a sector's KCF criteria. The medial volatility table (table 18) will be used under certain circumstances for companies with a CICRA of 1 or 2. Those circumstances are described in the respective sectors' KCF criteria. The standard volatility table (table 17) serves as the relevant benchmark table for companies with a CICRA of 2 or worse, and we will always use it for companies with a CICRA of 1 or 2 and whose competitive position is assessed 5 or 6. Although infrequent, we will use the low volatility table when

a company's CICRA is 2 for companies that exhibit or are expected to exhibit low levels of volatility. The choice of volatility tables for companies with a CICRA of 2 is addressed in the respective sector's KCF article.

Table 17

Cash Flow/Leverage Analysis Ratios--Standard Volatility

	--Core ratios--		--Supplementary coverage ratios--		--Supplementary payback ratios--		
	FFO/debt (%)	**Debt/EBITDA (x)**	**FFO/cash interest(x)**	**EBITDA/interest (x)**	**CFO/debt (%)**	**FOCF/debt (%)**	**DCF/debt (%)**
Minimal	60+	Less than 1.5	More than 13	More than 15	More than 50	40+	25+
Modest	45-60	1.5-2	9-13	10-15	35-50	25-40	15-25
Intermediate	30-45	2-3	6-9	6-10	25-35	15-25	10-15
Significant	20-30	3-4	4-6	3-6	15-25	10-15	5-10
Aggressive	12-20	4-5	2-4	2-3	10-15	5-10	2-5
Highly leveraged	Less than 12	Greater than 5	Less than 2	Less than 2	Less than 10	Less than 5	Less than 2

Table 18

Cash Flow/Leverage Analysis Ratios--Medial Volatility

	--Core ratios--		--Supplementary coverage ratios--		--Supplementary payback ratios--		
	FFO/debt (%)	**Debt/EBITDA (x)**	**FFO/cash interest (x)**	**EBITDA/interest (x)**	**CFO/debt (%)**	**FOCF/debt (%)**	**DCF/debt (%)**
Minimal	50+	less than 1.75	10.5+	14+	40+	30+	18+
Modest	35-50	1.75-2.5	7.5-10.5	9-14	27.5-40	17.5-30	11-18
Intermediate	23-35	2.5-3.5	5-7.5	5-9	18.5-27.5	9.5-17.5	6.5-11
Significant	13-23	3.5-4.5	3-5	2.75-5	10.5-18.5	5-9.5	2.5-6.5
Aggressive	9-13	4.5-5.5	1.75-3	1.75-2.75	7-10.5	0-5	(11)-2.5
Highly leveraged	Less than 9	Greater than 5.5	Less than 1.75	Less than 1.75	Less than 7	Less than 0	Less than (11)

Table 19

Cash Flow/Leverage Analysis Ratios--Low Volatility

	--Core ratios--		--Supplementary coverage ratios--		--Supplementary payback ratios--		
	FFO/debt (%)	**Debt/EBITDA (x)**	**FFO/cash interest (x)**	**EBITDA/interest (x)**	**CFO/debt (%)**	**FOCF/debt (%)**	**DCF/debt (%)**
Minimal	35+	Less than 2	More than 8	More than 13	More than 30	20+	11+
Modest	23-35	2-3	5-8	7-13	20-30	10-20	7-11
Intermediate	13-23	3-4	3-5	4-7	12-20	4-10	3-7
Significant	9-13	4-5	2-3	2.5-4	8-12	0-4	0-3
Aggressive	6-9	5-6	1.5-2	1.5-2.5	5-8	(10)-0	(20)-0
Highly leveraged	Less than 6	Greater than 6	Less than 1.5	Less than 1.5	Less than 5	Less than (10)	Less than (20)

b) Aggregating the credit ratio assessments

124. To determine the final cash flow/leverage assessment, we make these calculations:
1) First, calculate a time series of standard core and supplemental credit ratios, select the relevant benchmark table, and determine the appropriate time weighting of the credit ratios.

- Calculate the two standard core credit ratios and the five standard supplemental credit ratios over a five-year time horizon.
- Consult the relevant industry KCF article (if applicable), which may identify additional supplemental ratio(s). The relevant benchmark table for a given company is based on our assessment of the company's associated industry and country risk volatility, or the CICRA.
- Calculate the appropriate weighted average cash flow/leverage ratios. If the company is undergoing a transformational event, then the core and supplemental ratios will typically be calculated based on Standard & Poor's projections for the current and next one or two financial years.

2) Second, we use the core ratios to determine the preliminary cash flow assessment.

- Compare the core ratios (FFO to debt and debt to EBITDA) to the ratio ranges in the relevant benchmark table.
- If the core ratios result in different cash flow/leverage assessments, we will select the relevant core ratio based on which provides the best indicator of a company's future leverage.

3) Third, we review the supplemental ratio(s).

- Determine the importance of standard or KCF supplemental ratios based on company-specific characteristics, namely, leverage, capital intensity, working capital intensity, growth rate, or industry.

4) Fourth, we calculate the adjusted cash flow/leverage assessment.

- If the cash flow/leverage assessment(s) indicated by the important supplemental ratio(s) differs from the preliminary cash flow/leverage assessment, we might adjust the preliminary cash flow/leverage assessment by one category in the direction of the cash flow/leverage assessment indicated by the supplemental ratio(s) to derive the adjusted cash flow/leverage assessment. We will make this adjustment if, in our view, the supplemental ratio provides the best indicator of a company's future leverage.
- If there is more than one important supplemental ratio and they result in different directional deviations from the preliminary cash flow/leverage assessment, we will select one as the relevant supplemental ratio based on which, in our opinion, provides the best indicator of a company's future leverage. We will then make the adjustment outlined above if the selected supplemental ratio differs from the preliminary cash flow/leverage assessment and the selected supplemental ratio provides the best overall indicator of a company's future leverage.

5) Lastly, we determine the final cash flow/leverage assessment based on the volatility adjustment.

- We classify companies as stable for these cash flow criteria if cash flow/leverage ratios are expected to move up by one category during periods of stress based on their business risk profile. The final cash flow/leverage assessment for these companies will not be modified from the adjusted cash flow/leverage assessment.
- We classify companies as volatile for these cash flow criteria if cash flow/leverage ratios are expected to move one or two categories worse during periods of stress based on their business risk profiles. Typically, this is equivalent to EBITDA declining about 30% from its current level. The final cash flow/leverage assessment for these companies will be modified to one category weaker than the adjusted cash flow/leverage assessment; the adjustment will be eliminated if cash flow/leverage ratios, as evaluated, include a moderate to high level of stress already.
- We classify companies as highly volatile for these cash flow criteria if cash flow/leverage ratios are expected to move two or three categories worse during periods of stress, based on their business risk profiles. Typically, this is equivalent to EBITDA declining about 50% from its current level. The final cash flow/leverage assessment for these companies will be modified to two categories weaker than the adjusted cash flow/leverage assessment; the adjustment will be eliminated or reduced to one category if cash flow/leverage ratios, as evaluated, include a moderate to high level of stress already.

125. The volatility adjustment is the mechanism by which we factor a "cushion" of medium-term variance to current financial performance not otherwise captured in either the near-term base-case forecast or the long-term business risk

assessment. We make this adjustment based on the following:

- The expectation of any potential cash flow/leverage ratio movement is both prospective and dependent on the current business or economic conditions.
- Stress scenarios include, but are not limited to, a recessionary economic environment, technology or competitive shifts, loss or renegotiation of major contracts or customers, and key product or input price movements, as typically defined in the company's industry risk profile and competitive position assessment.
- The volatility adjustment is not static and is company specific. At the bottom of an economic cycle or during periods of stressed business conditions, already reflected in the general industry risk or specific competitive risk profile, the prospect of weakening ratios is far less than at the peak of an economic cycle or business conditions.
- The expectation of prospective ratio changes may be formed by observed historical performance over an economic, business, or product cycle by the company or by peers.
- The assessment of which classification to use when evaluating the prospective number of scoring category moves will be guided by how close the current ratios are to the transition point (i.e. "buffer" in the current scoring category) and the corresponding amount of EBITDA movement at each scoring transition.

F. Diversification/Portfolio Effect

126. Under the criteria, diversification/portfolio effect applies to companies that we regard as conglomerates. They are companies that have multiple core business lines that may be operated as separate legal entities. For the purpose of these criteria, a conglomerate would have at least three business lines, each contributing a material source of earnings and cash flow.

127. The criteria aim to measure how diversification or the portfolio effect could improve the anchor of a company with multiple business lines. This approach helps us determine how the credit strength of a corporate entity with a given mix of business lines could improve based on its diversity. The competitive position factor assesses the benefits of diversity within individual lines of business. This factor also assesses how poorly performing businesses within a conglomerate affect the organization's overall business risk profile.

128. Diversification/portfolio effect could modify the anchor depending on how meaningful we think the diversification is, and on the degree of correlation we find in each business line's sensitivity to economic cycles. This assessment will have either a positive or neutral impact on the anchor. We capture any potential factor that weakens a company's diversification, including poor management, in our management and governance assessment.

129. We define a conglomerate as a diversified company that is involved in several industry sectors. Usually the smallest of at least three distinct business segments/lines would contribute at least 10% of either EBITDA or FOCF and the largest would contribute no more than 50% of EBITDA or FOCF, with the long-term aim of increasing shareholder value by generating cash flow. Industrial conglomerates usually hold a controlling stake in their core businesses, have highly identifiable holdings, are deeply involved in the strategy and management of their operating companies, generally do not frequently roll over or reshuffle their holdings by buying and selling companies, and therefore have high long-term exposure to the operating risks of their subsidiaries.

130. In rating a conglomerate, we first assess management's commitment to maintain the diversified portfolio over a

longer-term horizon. These criteria apply only if the company falls within our definition of a conglomerate.

1. Assessing diversification/portfolio effect

131. A conglomerate's diversification/portfolio effect is assessed as 1, significant diversification; 2, moderate diversification; or 3, neutral. An assessment of moderate diversification or significant diversification potentially raises the issuer's anchor. To achieve an assessment of significant diversification, an issuer should have uncorrelated diversified businesses whose breadth is among the most comprehensive of all conglomerates'. This assessment indicates that we expect the conglomerate's earnings volatility to be much lower through an economic cycle than an undiversified company's. To achieve an assessment of moderate diversification, an issuer typically has a range of uncorrelated diversified businesses that provide meaningful benefits of diversification with the expectation of lower earnings volatility through an economic cycle than an undiversified company's.

132. We expect that a conglomerate will also benefit from diversification if its core assets consistently produce positive cash flows over our rating horizon. This supports our assertion that the company diversifies to take advantage of allocating capital among its business lines. To this end, our analysis focuses on a conglomerate's track record of successfully deploying positive discretionary cash flow into new business lines or expanding capital-hungry business lines. We assess companies that we do not expect to achieve these benefits as neutral.

2. Components of correlation and how it is incorporated into our analysis

133. We determine the assessment for this factor based on the number of business lines in separate industries (as described in table 27) and the degree of correlation between these business lines as described in table 20. There is no rating uplift for an issuer with a small number of business lines that are highly correlated. By contrast, a larger number of business lines that are not closely correlated provide the maximum rating uplift.

Table 20

Assessing Diversification/Portfolio Effect

	--Number of business lines--		
Degree of correlation of business lines	**3**	**4**	**5 or more**
High	Neutral	Neutral	Neutral
Medium	Neutral	Moderately diversified	Moderately diversified
Low	Moderately diversified	Significantly diversified	Significantly diversified

134. The degree of correlation of business lines is high if the business lines operate within the same industry, as defined by the industry designations in Appendix B, table 27. The degree of correlation of business lines is medium if the business lines operate within different industries, but operate within the same geographic region (for further guidance on defining geographic regions, see Appendix A, table 26). An issuer has a low degree of correlation across its business lines if these business lines are both a) in different industries and b) either operate in different regions or operate in multiple regions.

135. If we believe that a conglomerate's various industry exposures fail to provide a partial hedge against the consolidated entity's volatility because they are highly correlated through an economic cycle, then we assess the diversification/portfolio effect as neutral.

G. Capital Structure

136. Standard & Poor's uses its capital structure criteria to assess risks in a company's capital structure that may not show up in our standard analysis of cash flow/leverage. These risks may exist as a result of maturity date or currency mismatches between a company's sources of financing and its assets or cash flows. These can be compounded by outside risks, such as volatile interest rates or currency exchange rates.

1. Assessing capital structure

137. Capital structure is a modifier category, which adjusts the initial anchor for a company after any modification due to diversification/portfolio effect. We assess a number of subfactors to determine the capital structure assessment, which can then raise or lower the initial anchor by one or more notches--or have no effect in some cases. We assess capital structure as 1, very positive; 2, positive; 3, neutral; 4, negative; or 5, very negative. In the large majority of cases, we believe that a firm's capital structure will be assessed as neutral. To assess a company's capital structure, we analyze four subfactors:

- Currency risk associated with debt,
- Debt maturity profile (or schedule),
- Interest rate risk associated with debt, and
- Investments.

138. Any of these subfactors can influence a firm's capital structure assessment, although some carry greater weight than others, based on a tiered approach:

- Tier one risk subfactors: Currency risk of debt and debt maturity profile, and
- Tier two risk subfactor: Interest rate risk of debt.

139. The initial capital structure assessment is based on the first three subfactors (see table 21). We may then adjust the preliminary assessment based on our assessment of the fourth subfactor, investments.

Table 21

Preliminary Capital Structure Assessment

Preliminary capital structure assessment	Subfactor assessments
Neutral	No tier one subfactor is negative.
Negative	One tier one subfactor is negative, and the tier two subfactor is neutral.
Very negative	Both tier one subfactors are negative, or one tier one subfactor is negative and the tier two subfactor is negative.

140. Tier one subfactors carry the greatest risks, in our view, and, thus, could have a significant impact on the capital structure assessment. This is because, in our opinion, these factors have a greater likelihood of affecting credit metrics and potentially causing liquidity and refinancing risk. The tier two subfactor is important in and of itself, but typically less so than the tier one subfactors. In our view, in the majority of cases, the tier two subfactor in isolation has a lower likelihood of leading to liquidity and default risk than do tier one subfactors.

141. The fourth subfactor, investments, as defined in paragraph 153, quantifies the impact of a company's investments on

its overall financial risk profile. Although not directly related to a firm's capital structure decisions, certain investments could provide a degree of asset protection and potential financial flexibility if they are monetized. Thus, the fourth subfactor could modify the preliminary capital structure assessment (see table 22). If the subfactor is assessed as neutral, then the preliminary capital structure assessment will stand. If investments is assessed as positive or very positive, we adjust the preliminary capital structure assessment upward (as per table 22) to arrive at the final assessment.

Table 22

Final Capital Structure Assessment

	--Investments subfactor assessment--		
Preliminary capital structure assessment	**Neutral**	**Positive**	**Very positive**
Neutral	Neutral	Positive	Very positive
Negative	Negative	Neutral	Positive
Very negative	Very negative	Negative	Negative

2. Capital structure analysis: Assessing the subfactors

a) Subfactor 1: Currency risk of debt

142. Currency risk arises when a company borrows without hedging in a currency other than the currency in which it generates revenues. Such an unhedged position makes the company potentially vulnerable to fluctuations in the exchange rate between the two currencies, in the absence of mitigating factors. We determine the materiality of any mismatch by identifying situations where adverse exchange-rate movements could weaken cash flow and/or leverage ratios. We do not include currency mismatches under the following scenarios:

- The country where a company generates its cash flows has its currency pegged to the currency in which the company has borrowed, or vice versa (or the currency of cash flows has a strong track record and government policy of stability with the currency of borrowings), examples being the Hong Kong dollar which is pegged to the U.S. dollar, and the Chinese renminbi which is managed in a narrow band to the U.S. dollar (and China's foreign currency reserves are mainly in U.S. dollars). Moreover, we expect such a scenario to continue for the foreseeable future;
- A company has the proven ability, through regulation or contract, to pass through changes in debt servicing costs to its customers; or
- A company has a natural hedge, such as where it may sell its product in a foreign currency and has matched its debt in that same currency.

143. We also recognize that even if an entity generates insufficient same-currency cash flow to meet foreign currency-denominated debt obligations, it could have substantial other currency cash flows it can convert to meet these obligations. Therefore, the relative amount of foreign denominated debt as a proportion of total debt is an important factor in our analysis. If foreign denominated debt, excluding fully hedged debt principal, is 15% or less of total debt, we assess the company as neutral on currency risk of debt. If foreign-denominated debt, excluding fully hedged debt principal, is greater than 15% of total debt, and debt to EBITDA is greater than 3.0x, we evaluate currency risks through further analysis.

144. If an entity's foreign-denominated debt in a particular currency represents more than 15% of total debt, and if its debt to EBITDA ratio is greater than 3.0x, we identify whether a currency-specific interest coverage ratio indicates potential

currency risk. The coverage ratio divides forecasted operating cash flow in each currency by interest payments over the coming 12 months for that same currency. It is often easier to ascertain the geographic breakdown of EBITDA as opposed to operating cash flow. So in situations where we don't have sufficient cash flow information, we may calculate an EBITDA to interest expense coverage ratio in the relevant currencies. If neither cash flow nor EBITDA information is disclosed, we estimate the relevant exposures based on available information.

145. In such an instance, our assessment of this subfactor is negative if we believe any appropriate interest coverage ratio will fall below 1.2x over the next 12 months.

b) Subfactor 2: Debt maturity profile

146. A firm's debt maturity profile shows when its debt needs to be repaid, or refinanced if possible, and helps determine the firm's refinancing risk. Lengthier and more evenly spread out debt maturity schedules reduce refinancing risk, compared with front-ended and compressed ones, since the former give an entity more time to manage business- or financial market-related setbacks.

147. In evaluating debt maturity profiles, we measure the weighted average maturity (WAM) of bank debt and debt securities (including hybrid debt) within a capital structure, and make simplifying assumptions that debt maturing beyond year five matures in year six. WAM = (Maturity1/Total Debt)*tenor1 + (Maturity2/Total Debt)* tenor2 +… (Thereafter/Total Debt)* tenor6

148. In evaluating refinancing risk, we consider risks in addition to those captured under the 12-month to 24-month time-horizons factored in our liquidity criteria (see "Methodology And Assumptions: Liquidity Descriptors For Global Corporate Issuers," published Nov. 19, 2013). While we recognize that investment-grade companies may have more certain future business prospects and greater access to capital than speculative-grade companies, all else being equal, we view a company with a shorter maturity schedule as having greater refinancing risk compared to a company with a longer one. In all cases, we assess a company's debt maturity profile in conjunction with its liquidity and potential funding availability. Thus, a short-dated maturity schedule alone is not a negative if we believe the company can maintain enough liquidity to pay off debt that comes due in the near term.

149. Our assessment of this subfactor is negative if the WAM is two years or less, and the amount of these near-term maturities is material in relation to the issuer's liquidity so that under our base-case forecast, we believe the company's liquidity assessment will become less than adequate or weak over the next two years due to these maturities. In certain cases, we may assess a debt maturity profile as negative regardless of whether or not the company passes the aforementioned test. We expect such instances to be rare, and will include scenarios where we believed a concentration of debt maturities within a five-year time horizon poses meaningful refinancing risk, either due to the size of the maturities in relation to the company's liquidity sources, the company's leverage profile, its operating trends, lender relationships, and/or credit market standings.

c) Subfactor 3: Interest rate risk of debt

150. The interest rate risk of debt subfactor analyzes the company's mix of fixed-rate and floating-rate debt. Generally, a higher proportion of fixed-rate debt leads to greater predictability and stability of interest expense and therefore cash flows. The exception would be companies whose operating cash flows are to some degree correlated with interest rate movements--for example, a regulated utility whose revenues are indexed to inflation--given the typical correlation

between nominal interest rates and inflation.

151. The mix of fixed versus floating-rate debt is usually not a significant risk factor for companies with intermediate or better financial profiles, strong profitability, and high interest coverage. In addition, the interest rate environment at a given point in time will play a role in determining the impact of interest rate movements. Our assessment of this subcategory will be negative if a 25% upward shift (e.g., from 2.0% to 2.5%) or a 100 basis-point upward shift (e.g., 2% to 3%) in the base interest rate of the floating rate debt will result in a breach of interest coverage covenants or interest coverage rating thresholds identified in the cash flow/leverage criteria (see section E.3).

152. Many loan agreements for speculative-grade companies contain a clause requiring a percentage of floating-rate debt to be hedged for a period of two to three years to mitigate this risk. However, in many cases the loan matures after the hedge expires, creating a mismatched hedge. We consider only loans with hedges that match the life of the loan to be--effectively--fixed-rate debt.

d) Subfactor 4: Investments

153. For the purposes of the criteria, investments refer to investments in unconsolidated equity affiliates, other assets where the realizable value isn't currently reflected in the cash flows generated from those assets (e.g. underutilized real-estate property), we do not expect any additional investment or support to be provided to the affiliate, and the investment is not included within Standard & Poor's consolidation scope and so is not incorporated in the company's business and financial risk profile analysis. If equity affiliate companies are consolidated, then the financial benefits and costs of these investments will be captured in our cash flow and leverage analysis. Similarly, where the company's ownership stake does not qualify for consolidation under accounting rules, we may choose to consolidate on a pro rata basis if we believe that the equity affiliates' operating and financing strategy is influenced by the rated entity. If equity investments are strategic and provide the company with a competitive advantage, or benefit a company's scale, scope, and diversity, these factors will be captured in our competitive position criteria and will not be used to assess the subfactor investments as positive. Within the capital structure criteria, we aim to assess nonstrategic financial investments that could provide a degree of asset protection and financial flexibility in the event they are monetized. These investments must be noncore and separable, meaning that a potential divestiture, in our view, has no impact on the company's existing operations.

154. In many instances, the cash flows generated by an equity affiliate, or the proportional share of the associate company's net income, might not accurately reflect the asset's value. This could occur if the equity affiliate is in high growth mode and is currently generating minimal cash flow or net losses. This could also be true of a physical asset, such as real estate. From a valuation standpoint, we recognize the subjective nature of this analysis and the potential for information gaps. As a result, in the absence of a market valuation or a market valuation of comparable companies in the case of minority interests in private entities, we will not ascribe value to these assets.

155. We assess this subfactor as positive or very positive if three key characteristics are met. First, an estimated value can be ascribed to these investments based on the presence of an existing market value for the firm or comparable firms in the same industry. Second, there is strong evidence that the investment can be monetized over an intermediate timeframe--in the case of an equity investment, our opinion of the marketability of the investment would be enhanced by the presence of an existing market value for the firm or comparable firms, as well as our view of market liquidity.

Third, monetization of the investment, assuming proceeds would be used to repay debt, would be material enough to positively move existing cash flow and leverage ratios by at least one category and our view on the company's financial policy, specifically related to financial discipline, supports the assessment that the potential proceeds would be used to pay down debt. This subfactor is assessed as positive if debt repayment from the investment sale has the potential to improve cash flow and leverage ratios by one category. We assess investments as very positive if proceeds upon sale of the investment have the potential to improve cash flow and leverage ratios by two or more categories. If the three characteristics are not met, this subfactor will be assessed as neutral and the preliminary capital structure assessment will stand.

156. We will not assess the investments subfactor as positive or very positive when the anchor is 'b+' or lower unless the three conditions described in paragraph 155 are met, and:

- For issuers with less than adequate or weak liquidity, the company has provided a credible near-term plan to sell the investment.
- For issuers with adequate or better liquidity, we believe that the company, if needed, could sell the investment in a relatively short timeframe.

H. Financial Policy

157. Financial policy refines the view of a company's risks beyond the conclusions arising from the standard assumptions in the cash flow/leverage assessment (see section E). Those assumptions do not always reflect or entirely capture the short-to-medium term event risks or the longer-term risks stemming from a company's financial policy. To the extent movements in one of these factors cannot be confidently predicted within our forward-looking evaluation, we capture that risk within our evaluation of financial policy. The cash flow/leverage assessment will typically factor in operating and cash flows metrics we observed during the past two years and the trends we expect to see for the coming two years based on operating assumptions and predictable financial policy elements, such as ordinary dividend payments or recurring acquisition spending. However, over that period and, generally, over a longer time horizon, the firm's financial policies can change its financial risk profile based on management's or, if applicable, the company's controlling shareholder's (see Appendix E, paragraphs 254-257) appetite for incremental risk or, conversely, plans to reduce leverage. We assess financial policy as 1) positive, 2) neutral, 3) negative, or as being owned by a financial sponsor. We further identify financial sponsor-owned companies as "FS-4", "FS-5", "FS-6", or "FS-6 (minus)" (see section H.2).

1. Assessing financial policy

158. First, we determine if a company is owned by a financial sponsor. Given the intrinsic characteristics and aggressive nature of financial sponsor's strategies (i.e. short- to intermediate-term holding periods and the use of debt or debt-like instruments to maximize shareholder returns), we assign a financial risk profile assessment to a firm controlled by a financial sponsor that reflects the likely impact on leverage due to these strategies and we do not separately analyze management's financial discipline or financial policy framework.

159. If a company is not controlled by a financial sponsor, we evaluate management's financial discipline and financial policy framework. Management's financial discipline measures its tolerance for incremental financial risk or,

conversely, its willingness to maintain the same degree of financial risk or to lower it compared with recent cash flow/leverage metrics and our projected ratios for the next two years. The company's financial policy framework assesses the comprehensiveness, transparency, and sustainability of the entity's financial policies. We do not assess these factors for financial sponsor controlled firms.

160. The financial discipline assessments can have a positive or negative influence on an enterprise's overall financial policy assessment, or can have no net effect. Conversely, the financial policy framework assessment cannot positively influence the overall financial policy assessment. It can constrain the overall financial policy assessment to no greater than neutral.

161. The separate assessments of a company's financial policy framework and financial discipline determine the financial policy adjustment.

162. We assess management's financial discipline as 1, positive; 2, neutral; or 3, negative. We determine the assessment by evaluating the predictability of an entity's expansion plans and shareholder return strategies. We take into account, generally, management's tolerance for material and unexpected negative changes in credit ratios or, instead, its plans to rapidly decrease leverage and keep credit ratios within stated boundaries.

163. A company's financial policy framework assessment is: 1, supportive or 2, non-supportive. We make the determination by assessing the comprehensiveness of a company's financial policy framework and whether financial targets are clearly communicated to a large number of stakeholders, and are well defined, achievable, and sustainable.

Table 23

Financial Policy Assessments

Assessment	What it means	Guidance
Positive	Indicates that we expect management's financial policy decisions to have a positive impact on credit ratios over the time horizon, beyond what can be reasonably built in our forecasts on the basis of normalized operating and cash flow assumptions. An example would be when a credible management team commits to dispose of assets or raise equity over the short to medium term in order to reduce leverage. A company with a 1 financial risk profile will not be assigned a positive assessment.	If financial discipline is positive, and the financial policy framework is supportive
Neutral	Indicates that, in our opinion, future credit ratios won't differ materially over the time horizon beyond what we have projected, based on our assessment of management's financial policy, recent track record, and operating forecasts for the company. A neutral financial policy assessment effectively reflects a low probability of "event risk," in our view.	If financial discipline is positive, and the financial policy framework is non-supportive. Or when financial discipline is neutral, regardless of the financial policy framework assessment.
Negative	Indicates our view of a lower degree of predictability in credit ratios, beyond what can be reasonably built in our forecasts, as a result of management's financial discipline (or lack of it). It points to high event risk that management's financial policy decisions may depress credit metrics over the time horizon, compared with what we have already built in our forecasts based on normalized operating and cash flow assumptions.	If financial discipline is negative, regardless of the financial policy framework assessment
Financial Sponsor*	We define a financial sponsor as an entity that follows an aggressive financial strategy in using debt and debt-like instruments to maximize shareholder returns. Typically, these sponsors dispose of assets within a short to intermediate time frame. Accordingly, the financial risk profile we assign to companies that are controlled by financial sponsors ordinarily reflects our presumption of some deterioration in credit quality in the medium term. Financial sponsors include private equity firms, but not infrastructure and asset-management funds, which maintain longer investment horizons.	We define financial sponsor-owned companies as companies that are owned 40% or more by a financial sponsor or a group of three or less financial sponsors and where we consider that the sponsor(s) exercise control of the company solely or together.

*Assessed as FS-4, FS-5, FS-6, or FS-6 (minus).

2. Financial sponsor-controlled companies

164. We define a financial sponsor as an entity that follows an aggressive financial strategy in using debt and debt-like instruments to maximize shareholder returns. Typically, these sponsors dispose of assets within a short-to-intermediate time frame. Financial sponsors include private equity firms, but not infrastructure and asset-management funds, which maintain longer investment horizons.

165. We define financial sponsor-owned companies as companies that are owned 40% or more by a financial sponsor or a group of three or less financial sponsors and where we consider that the sponsor(s) exercise control of the company solely or together.

166. We differentiate between financial sponsors and other types of controlling shareholders and companies that do not have controlling shareholders based on our belief that short-term ownership--such as exists in private equity sponsor-owned companies--generally entails financial policies aimed at achieving rapid returns for shareholders typically through aggressive debt leverage.

167. Financial sponsors often dictate policies regarding risk-taking, financial management, and corporate governance for the companies that they control. There is a common pattern of these investors extracting cash in ways that increase the companies' financial risk by utilizing debt or debt like instruments. Accordingly, the financial risk profile we assign to companies that are controlled by financial sponsors ordinarily reflect our presumption of some deterioration in credit quality or steadily high leverage in the medium term.

168. We assess the influence of financial sponsor ownership as "FS-4", "FS-5", "FS-6", and "FS-6 (minus)" depending on how aggressive we assume the sponsor will be and assign a financial risk profile accordingly (see table 24).

169. Generally, financial sponsor-owned issuers will receive an assessment of "FS-6" or "FS-6 (minus)", leading to a financial risk profile assessment of '6', under the criteria. A "FS-6" assessment indicates that, in our opinion, forecasted credit ratios in the medium term are likely be to be consistent with a '6' financial risk profile, based on our assessment of the financial sponsor's financial policy and track record. A "FS-6 (minus)" will likely be applied to companies that we forecast to have near-term credit ratios consistent with a '6' financial risk profile, but we believe the financial sponsor to be very aggressive and that leverage could increase materially even further from our forecasted levels.

170. In a small minority of cases, a financial sponsor-owned entity could receive an assessment of "FS-5". This assessment will apply only when we project that the company's leverage will be consistent with a '5' (aggressive) financial risk profile (see tables 17, 18, and 19), we perceive that the risk of releveraging is low based on the company's financial policy and our view of the owner's financial risk appetite, and liquidity is at least adequate.

171. In even rarer cases, we could assess the financial policy of a financial sponsor-owned entity as "FS-4". This assessment will apply only when all of the following conditions are met: other shareholders own a material (generally, at least 20%) stake, we expect the sponsor to relinquish control over the intermediate term, we project that leverage is currently consistent with a '4' (significant) financial risk profile (see tables 17, 18, and 19), the company has said it will maintain leverage at or below this level, and liquidity is at least adequate.

Table 24

Financial Risk Profile Implications For Sponsor-Owned Issuers

Assessment	What it Means	Guidance
FS-4	Financial risk profile set at '4'	Issuer must meet all of the following conditions: • Other shareholders must own a material (no less than 20%) stake; • We anticipate that the sponsor will relinquish control over the medium term; • For issuers subject to Table 17 (standard volatility), debt to EBITDA is less than 4x, and we estimate that it will remain less than 4x. For issuers that are subject to Table 18 (medial volatility), debt to EBITDA is below 4.5x and we forecast it to remain below that level. Or for issuers subject to Table 19 (low volatility), debt to EBITDA is less than 5x and our estimation is it will remain below that level; • The company has indicated a financial policy stipulating a level of leverage consistent with a significant or better financial risk profile (that is, debt to EBITDA of less than 4x when applying standard volatility tables, 4.5x when applying medial volatility tables, or less than 5x when applying low volatility tables) and • We assess liquidity to be at least adequate, with adequate covenant headroom.
FS-5	Financial risk profile set at '5'	Issuer must meet all of the following conditions: • For issuers subject to the standard volatility table, debt to EBITDA is less than 5x, and we estimate that it will remain less than 5x. For issuers that are subject to the medial volatility table, debt to EBITDA is below 5.5x and we forecast it to remain below that level. Or for issuers subject to the low volatility table, debt to EBITDA is less than 6x and our estimation is it will remain below that level; • We believe the risk of releveraging beyond 5x (standard volatility issuer), 5.5x (medial volatility issuer), or 6x (low volatility issuer) is low; and • We assess liquidity to be at least adequate, with adequate covenant headroom.
FS-6	Financial risk profile set at '6'	Standard & Poor's debt to EBITDA is greater than 5x (when applying the standard volatility table), greater than 5.5x (when applying the medial volatility table), or greater than 6x (when applying the low volatility table). However, we believe leverage is unlikely to increase meaningfully beyond these levels.
FS-6 (minus)	Financial risk profile set at '6', and anchor reduced by one notch (unless this results in a final rating below 'B-')	In determining the anchor the financial risk profile is a '6', but we believe the track record of the financial sponsor indicates that leverage could increase materially from already high levels.

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3. Companies not controlled by a financial sponsor

172. For companies not controlled by a financial sponsor we evaluate management's financial discipline and financial policy framework to determine the influence on an entity's financial risk profile beyond what is implied by recent credit ratios and our cash flow and leverage forecasts. This influence can be positive, neutral, or negative.

173. We do not distinguish between management and a controlling shareholder that is not a financial sponsor when assessing these subfactors, as the controlling shareholder usually has the final say on financial policy.

a) Financial discipline

174. The financial discipline assessment is based on management's leverage tolerance and the likelihood of event risk. The criteria evaluate management's potential appetite to incur unforeseen, higher financial risk over a prolonged period and the associated impact on credit measures. We also assess management's capacity and commitment to rapidly decrease debt leverage to levels consistent with its credit ratio targets.

175. This assessment therefore seeks to determine whether unforeseen actions by management to increase, maintain, or reduce financial risk are likely to occur during the next two to three years, with either a negative or positive effect, or none at all, on our baseline forecasts for the period.

176. This assessment is based on the leverage tolerance of a company's management, as reflected in its plans or history of acquisitions, shareholder remuneration, and organic growth strategies (see Appendix E, paragraphs 258 to 263).

177. We assess financial discipline as positive, neutral, or negative, based on its potential impact on our forward-looking assessment of a firm's cash flow/leverage, as detailed in table 25. For example, a neutral assessment for leverage tolerance reflects our expectation that management's financial policy will unlikely lead to significant deviation from current and forecasted credit ratios. A negative assessment acknowledges a significant degree of event risk of increased leverage relative to our base-case forecast, resulting from the company's acquisition policy, its shareholder remuneration policy, or its organic growth strategy. A positive assessment indicates that the company is likely to take actions to reduce leverage, but we cannot confidently incorporate these actions into our baseline forward-looking assessment of cash flow/leverage.

178. A positive assessment indicates that management is committed and has the capacity to reduce debt leverage through the rapid implementation of credit enhancing measures, such as asset disposals, rights issues, or reductions in shareholder returns. In addition, management's track record over the past five years shows that it has taken actions to rapidly reduce unforeseen increases in debt leverage and that there have not been any prolonged periods when credit ratios were weaker than our expectations for the rating. Management, even if new, also has a track record of successful execution. Conversely, a negative assessment indicates management's financial policy allows for significant increase in leverage compared with both current levels and our forward-looking forecast under normal operating/financial conditions or does not have observable time limits or stated boundaries. Management has a track record of allowing for significant and prolonged peaks in leverage and there is no commitment or track record of management using mitigating measures to rapidly return to credit ratios consistent with our expectations.

179. As evidence of management's leverage tolerance, we evaluate its track record and plans regarding acquisitions, shareholder remuneration, and organic growth strategies (see Appendix E, paragraphs 258 to 263). Acquisitions could increase the risk that leverage will be higher than our base-case forecast if we view management's strategy as opportunistic or if its financial policy (if it exists) provides significant headroom for debt-financed acquisitions. Shareholder remuneration could also increase the risk of leverage being higher than our base-case forecast if management's shareholder reward policies are not particularly well defined or have no clear limits, management has a tolerance for shareholder returns exceeding operating cash flow, or has a track record of sustained cash returns despite weakening operating performance or credit ratios. Organic growth strategies can also result in leverage higher than our base-case forecast if these plans have no clear focus or investment philosophy, capital spending is fairly unpredictable,

or there is a track record of overspending or unexpected or rapid shifts in plans for new markets or products.

180. We also take into account management's track record and level of commitment to its stated financial policies, to the extent a company has a stated policy. Historical evidence and any deviations from stated policies are key elements in analyzing a company's leverage tolerance. Where material and unexpected deviation in leverage may occur (for example, on the back of operating weakness or acquisitions), we also assess management's plan to restore credit ratios to levels consistent with previous expectations through rapid and proactive non-organic measures. Management's track record to execute its deleveraging plan, its level of commitment, and the scope and timeframe of debt mitigating measures will be key differentiators in assessing a company's financial policy discipline.

Table 25

Assessing Financial Discipline

Descriptor	What it means	Guidance
Positive	Management is likely to take actions that result in leverage that is lower than our base-case forecast, but can't be confidently included in our base-case assumptions. Event risk is low.	Management is committed and has capacity to reduce debt leverage and increase financial headroom through the rapid implementation of credit enhancing measures, in line with its stated financial policy, if any. This relates primarily to management's careful and moderate policy with regard to acquisitions and shareholder remuneration as well as to its organic growth strategy. The assessments are supported by historical evidence over the past five years of not showing any prolonged weakening in the company's credit ratios, or relative to our base-case credit metrics' assumptions. Management, even if new, has a track record of successful execution.
Neutral	Leverage is not expected to deviate materially from our base-case forecast. Event risk is moderate.	Management's financial discipline with regard to acquisitions, shareholder remuneration, as well as its organic growth strategy does not result in significantly different leverage as defined in its stated financial policy framework.
Negative	Leverage could become materially higher than our base-case forecast. Event risk is high.	Management's financial policy framework does not explicitly rule out a significant increase in leverage compared to our base-case assumptions, possibly reflecting a greater event risk with regard to its M&A and shareholder remuneration policy as well as to its organic growth strategy. These points are supported by historical evidence over the past five years of allowing for significant and prolonged peaks in leverage, which remained unmitigated by credit supporting measures by management.

b) Financial policy framework

181. The company's financial policy framework assesses the comprehensiveness, transparency, and sustainability of the entity's financial policies (see Appendix E, paragraphs 264-268). This will help determine whether there is a satisfactory degree of visibility into the issuer's future financial risk profile. Companies that have developed and sustained a comprehensive set of financial policies are more likely to build long-term, sustainable credit quality than those that do not.

182. We will assess a company's financial policy framework as supportive or non-supportive based on evidence that supports the characteristics listed below. In order for an entity to receive a supportive assessment for financial policy framework, there must be sufficient evidence of management's financial policies to back that assessment.

183. A company assessed as supportive will generally exhibit the following characteristics:

- Management has a comprehensive set of financial policies covering key areas of financial risk, including debt leverage and liability management. Financial targets are well defined and quantifiable.
- Management's financial policies are clearly articulated in public forums (such as public listing disclosures and investor presentations) or are disclosed to a limited number of key stakeholders such as main creditors or to the credit rating agencies. The company's adherence to these policies is satisfactory.

- Management's articulated financial policies are considered achievable and sustainable. This assessment takes into consideration historical adherence to articulated policies, existing financial risk profile, capacity to sustain capital structure through nonorganic means, demands of key stakeholders, and the stability of financial policy parameters over time.

184. A company receives a non-supportive assessment if it does not meet all the conditions for a supportive assessment. We expect a non-supportive assessment to be uncommon.

I. Liquidity

185. Our assessment of liquidity focuses on monetary flows--the sources and uses of cash--that are the key indicators of a company's liquidity cushion. The analysis assesses the potential for a company to breach covenant tests related to declines in EBITDA, as well as its ability to absorb high-impact, low-probability events, the nature of the company's bank relationships, its standing in credit markets, and how prudent (or not) we believe its financial risk management to be (see "Methodology And Assumptions: Liquidity Descriptors For Global Corporate Issuers," published Nov. 19, 2013).

J. Management And Governance

186. The analysis of management and governance addresses how management's strategic competence, organizational effectiveness, risk management, and governance practices shape the issuer's competitiveness in the marketplace, the strength of its financial risk management, and the robustness of its governance. Stronger management of important strategic and financial risks may enhance creditworthiness (see "Methodology: Management And Governance Credit Factors For Corporate Entities And Insurers," published Nov. 13, 2012).

K. Comparable Ratings Analysis

187. The comparable ratings analysis is our last step in determining a SACP on a company. This analysis can lead us to raise or lower our anchor, after adjusting for the modifiers, on a company by one notch based on our overall assessment of its credit characteristics for all subfactors considered in arriving at the SACP. This involves taking a holistic review of a company's stand-alone credit risk profile, in which we evaluate an issuer's credit characteristics in aggregate. A positive assessment leads to a one-notch upgrade, a negative assessment leads to a one-notch downgrade, and a neutral assessment indicates no change to the anchor.

188. The application of comparable ratings analysis reflects the need to "fine-tune" ratings outcomes, even after the use of each of the other modifiers. A positive or negative assessment is therefore likely to be common rather than exceptional.

189. We consider our assessments of each of the underlying subfactors to be points within a possible range. Consequently, each of these assessments that ultimately generate the SACP can be at the upper or lower end, or at the mid-point, of such a range:

- A company receives a positive assessment if we believe, in aggregate, its relative ranking across the subfactors typically to be at the higher end of the range;
- A company receives a negative assessment if we believe, in aggregate, its relative ranking across the subfactors typically to be at the lower end of the range;
- A company receives a neutral assessment if we believe, in aggregate, its relative ranking across the subfactors typically to be in line with the middle of the range.

190. The most direct application of the comparable ratings analysis is in the following circumstances:

- Business risk assessment. If we expect a company to sustain a position at the higher or lower end of the ranges for the business risk category assessment, the company could receive a positive or negative assessment, respectively.
- Financial risk assessment and financial metrics. If a company's actual and forecasted metrics are just above (or just below) the financial risk profile range, as indicated in its cash flow/leverage assessment, we could assign a positive or negative assessment.

191. We also consider additional factors not already covered, or existing factors not fully captured, in arriving at the SACP. Such factors will generally reflect less frequently observed credit characteristics, may be unique, or may reflect unpredictability or uncertain risk attributes, both positive and negative.

192. Some examples that we typically expect could lead to a positive or negative assessment using comparable ratings analysis include:

- Short operating track record. For newly formed companies or companies that have experienced transformational events, such as a significant acquisition, a lack of an established track record of operating and financial performance could lead to a negative assessment until such a track record is established.
- Entities in transition. A company in the midst of changes that we anticipate will strengthen or weaken its creditworthiness and that are not already fully captured elsewhere in the criteria could receive a positive or negative assessment. Such a transition could occur following major divestitures or acquisitions, or during a significant overhaul of its strategy, business, or financial structure.
- Industry or macroeconomic trends. When industry or macroeconomic trends indicate a strengthening or weakening of the company's financial condition that is not already fully captured elsewhere in the criteria, the company could receive a positive or negative assessment, respectively.
- Unusual funding structures. A company with exceptional financial resources that the criteria do not capture in the traditional ratio or liquidity analysis, or in capital structure analysis, could receive a positive assessment.
- Contingent risk exposures. How well (or not) a company identifies, manages, and reserves for contingent risk exposures that can arise if guarantees are called, derivative contract break clauses are activated, or substantial lawsuits are lost could lead to a negative assessment.

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- 2008 Corporate Criteria: Rating Each Issue, April 15, 2008

APPENDIXES

A. Country Risk

Table 26

Country And Regional Risk

Region
Western Europe
Southern Europe
Western + Southern Europe
East Europe
Central Europe
Eastern Europe and Central Asia
Middle East
Africa
North America
Central America
Latin America
The Caribbean
Asia-Pacific
Central Asia
East Asia
Australia NZ

Country	Region	GDP weighting (%)
South Africa	Africa	30.2
Egypt	Africa	28.0
Nigeria	Africa	23.5
Morocco	Africa	8.9

Table 26

Country And Regional Risk (cont.)		
Tunisia	Africa	5.4
Senegal	Africa	1.4
Mozambique	Africa	1.4
Zambia	Africa	1.2
Indonesia	Asia-Pacific	27.1
Taiwan	Asia-Pacific	20.1
Thailand	Asia-Pacific	14.4
Malaysia	Asia-Pacific	11.0
Philippines	Asia-Pacific	9.5
Vietnam	Asia-Pacific	7.1
Bangladesh	Asia-Pacific	6.8
Sri Lanka	Asia-Pacific	2.8
Laos	Asia-Pacific	0.4
Papua New Guinea	Asia-Pacific	0.4
Mongolia	Asia-Pacific	0.3
Australia	Australia NZ	88.2
New Zealand	Australia NZ	11.8
Guatemala	Central America	40.5
Costa Rica	Central America	30.2
Panama	Central America	29.3
India	Central Asia	86.5
Pakistan	Central Asia	9.3
Kazakhstan	Central Asia	4.2
Poland	Central Europe	46.3
Czech Republic	Central Europe	16.6
Hungary	Central Europe	11.3
Slovakia	Central Europe	7.7
Bulgaria	Central Europe	6.0
Croatia	Central Europe	4.6
Lithuania	Central Europe	3.8
Latvia	Central Europe	2.1
Estonia	Central Europe	1.6
China	East Asia	64.5
Japan	East Asia	23.6
Korea	East Asia	8.4
Hong Kong	East Asia	1.9
Singapore	East Asia	1.7
Greece	East Europe	77.5
Slovenia	East Europe	16.0
Cyprus	East Europe	6.5
Russia	Eastern Europe and Central Asia	80.4
Ukraine	Eastern Europe and Central Asia	10.8

Table 26

Country And Regional Risk (cont.)		
Belarus	Eastern Europe and Central Asia	4.8
Azerbaijan	Eastern Europe and Central Asia	3.2
Georgia	Eastern Europe and Central Asia	0.9
Brazil	Latin America	35.3
Mexico	Latin America	26.3
Argentina	Latin America	11.1
Colombia	Latin America	7.5
Venezuela	Latin America	6.0
Peru	Latin America	4.9
Chile	Latin America	4.8
Ecuador	Latin America	2.0
Uruguay	Latin America	0.8
El Salvador	Latin America	0.7
Paraguay	Latin America	0.6
Belize	Latin America	0.0
Turkey	Middle East	42.8
Saudi Arabia	Middle East	28.2
Israel	Middle East	9.4
Qatar	Middle East	7.2
Kuwait	Middle East	6.3
Oman	Middle East	3.4
Jordan	Middle East	1.5
Bahrain	Middle East	1.2
United States	North America	91.5
Canada	North America	8.5
Italy	Southern Europe	52.6
Spain	Southern Europe	40.4
Portugal	Southern Europe	7.0
Dominican Republic	The Caribbean	75.4
Jamaica	The Caribbean	19.2
Barbados	The Caribbean	5.4
Germany	Western Europe	28.7
United Kingdom	Western Europe	21.3
France	Western Europe	20.7
Netherlands	Western Europe	6.5
Belgium	Western Europe	3.9
Sweden	Western Europe	3.6
Switzerland	Western Europe	3.3
Austria	Western Europe	3.3
Norway	Western Europe	2.6
Denmark	Western Europe	1.9
Finland	Western Europe	1.8

Table 26

Country And Regional Risk (cont.)		
Ireland	Western Europe	1.8
Luxembourg	Western Europe	0.4
Iceland	Western Europe	0.1
Malta	Western Europe	0.1

B. Competitive Position

Table 27

List Of Industries, Subsectors, And Standard Competitive Position Group Profiles

Industry	Subsector	Competitive position group profile
Transportation cyclical	Airlines	Capital or asset focus
	Marine	Capital or asset focus
	Trucking	Capital or asset focus
Auto OEM	Automobile and truck manufacturers	Capital or asset focus
Metals and mining downstream	Aluminum	Commodity focus/cost driven
	Steel	Commodity focus/cost driven
Metals and mining upstream	Coal and consumable fuels	Commodity focus/cost driven
	Diversified metals and mining	Commodity focus/cost driven
	Gold	Commodity focus/cost driven
	Precious metals and minerals	Commodity focus/cost driven
Homebuilders and developers	Homebuilding	Capital or asset focus
Oil and gas refining and marketing	Oil and gas refining and marketing	Commodity focus/scale driven
Forest and paper products	Forest products	Commodity focus/cost driven
	Paper products	Commodity focus/cost driven
Building Materials	Construction materials	Capital or asset focus
Oil and gas integrated, exploration and production	Integrated oil and gas	Commodity focus/scale driven
	Oil and gas exploration and production	Commodity focus/scale driven
Agribusiness and commodity foods	Agricultural products	Commodity focus/scale driven
Real estate investment trusts (REITs)	Diversified REITs	Real-estate specific*
	Health care REITS	Real-estate specific*
	Industrial REITs	Real-estate specific*
	Office REITs	Real-estate specific*
	Residential REITs	Real-estate specific*
	Retail REITs	Real-estate specific*
	Specialized REITs	Not appplicable**
	Self-storage REITs	Real-estate specific*
	Net lease REITs	Real-estate specific*
	Real estate operating companies	Real-estate specific*
Leisure and sports	Casinos and gaming	Services and product focus
	Hotels, resorts, and cruise lines	Services and product focus

Table 27

List Of Industries, Subsectors, And Standard Competitive Position Group Profiles (cont.)

	Leisure facilities	Services and product focus
Commodity chemicals	Commodity chemicals	Commodity focus/cost driven
	Diversified chemicals	Commodity focus/cost driven
	Fertilizers and agricultural chemicals	Commodity focus/cost driven
Auto suppliers	Auto parts and equipment	Capital or asset focus
	Tires and rubber	Capital or asset focus
	Vehicle-related suppliers	Capital or asset focus
Aerospace and defense	Aerospace and defense	Services and product focus
Technology hardware and semiconductors	Communications equipment	Capital or asset focus
	Computer hardware	Capital or asset focus
	Computer storage and peripherals	Capital or asset focus
	Consumer electronics	Capital or asset focus
	Electronic equipment and instruments	Capital or asset focus
	Electronic components	Capital or asset focus
	Electronic manufacturing services	Capital or asset focus
	Technology distributors	Capital or asset focus
	Office electronics	Capital or asset focus
	Semiconductor equipment	Capital or asset focus
	Semiconductors	Capital or asset focus
Specialty Chemicals	Industrial gases	Capital or asset focus
	Specialty chemicals	Capital or asset focus
Capital Goods	Electrical components and equipment	Capital or asset focus
	Heavy equipment and machinery	Capital or asset focus
	Industrial componentry and consumables	Capital or asset focus
	Construction equipment rental	Capital or asset focus
	Industrial distributors	Services and product focus
Engineering and construction	Construction and engineering	Services and product focus
Railroads and package express	Railroads	Capital or asset focus
	Package express	Services and product focus
	Logistics	Services and product focus
Business and consumer services	Consumer services	Services and product focus
	Distributors	Services and product focus
	Facilities services	Services and product focus
	General support services	Services and product focus
	Professional services	Services and product focus
Midstream energy	Oil and gas storage and transportation	Commodity focus/scale driven
Technology software and services	Internet software and services	Services and product focus
	IT consulting and other services	Services and product focus
	Data processing and outsourced services	Services and product focus
	Application software	Services and product focus
	Systems software	Services and product focus
	Consumer software	Services and product focus

Table 27

List Of Industries, Subsectors, And Standard Competitive Position Group Profiles (cont.)

Consumer durables	Home furnishings	Services and product focus
	Household appliances	Services and product focus
	Housewares and specialties	Services and product focus
	Leisure products	Services and product focus
	Photographic products	Services and product focus
	Small appliances	Services and product focus
Containers and packaging	Metal and glass containers	Capital or asset focus
	Paper packaging	Capital or asset focus
Media and entertainment	Ad agencies and marketing services companies	Services and product focus
	Ad-supported internet content platforms	Services and product focus
	Broadcast TV networks	Services and product focus
	Cable TV networks	Services and product focus
	Consumer and trade magazines	Services and product focus
	Data/professional publishing	Services and product focus
	Directories	Services and product focus
	E-Commerce (services)	Services and product focus
	Educational publishing	Services and product focus
	Film and TV programming production	Capital or asset focus
	Miscellaneous media and entertainment	Services and product focus
	Motion picture exhibitors	Services and product focus
	Music publishing	Services and product focus
	Music recording	Services and product focus
	Newspapers	Services and product focus
	Outdoor advertising	Services and product focus
	Printing	Commodity focus/scale driven
	Radio broadcasters	Services and product focus
	Trade shows	Services and product focus
	TV stations	Services and product focus
Oil and gas drilling, equipment and services	Onshore contract drilling	Commodity focus/scale driven
	Offshore contract drilling	Capital or Asset Focus
	Oil and gas equipment and services (oilfield services)	Commodity focus/scale driven
Retail and restaurants	Catalog retail	Services and product focus
	Internet retail	Services and product focus
	Department stores	Services and product focus
	General merchandise stores	Services and product focus
	Apparel retail	Services and product focus
	Computer and electronics retail	Services and product focus
	Home improvement retail	Services and product focus
	Specialty stores	Services and product focus
	Automotive retail	Services and product focus
	Home furnishing retail	Services and product focus

Table 27

List Of Industries, Subsectors, And Standard Competitive Position Group Profiles (cont.)

Health care services	Health care services	Commodity focus/scale driven
Transportation infrastructure	Airport services	National industries and utilities
	Highways	National industries and utilities
	Railtracks	National industries and utilities
	Marine ports and services	National industries and utilities
Environmental services	Environmental and facilities services	Services and product focus
Regulated utilities	Electric utilities	National industries and utilities
	Gas utilities	National industries and utilities
	Multi-utilities	National industries and utilities
	Water utilities	National industries and utilities
Unregulated power and gas	Independent power producers and energy traders	Capital or asset focus
	Merchant power	Capital or asset focus
Pharmaceuticals	Branded pharmaceuticals	Services and product focus
	Generic pharmaceuticals	Commodity focus/scale driven
Health care equipment	High-tech health care equipment	Product focus/scale driven
	Low-tech health care equipment	Commodity focus/scale driven
Branded nondurables	Brewers	Services and product focus
	Distillers and vintners	Services and product focus
	Soft drinks	Services and product focus
	Packaged foods and meats	Services and product focus
	Tobacco	Services and product focus
	Household products	Services and product focus
	Apparel, footwear, accessories, and luxury goods	Services and product focus
	Personal products	Services and product focus
Telecommunications and cable	Cable and satellite	Services and product focus
	Alternative carriers	Services and product focus
	Integrated telecommunication services	Services and product focus
	Wireless towers	Capital or asset focus
	Data center operators	Capital or asset focus
	Fiber-optic carriers	Capital or asset focus
	Wireless telecommunication services	Services and product focus

*See "Key Credit Factors For The Real Estate Industry," published Nov. 19, 2013. **For specialized REITs, there is no standard CPGP, as the CPGP will vary based on the underlying industry exposure (e.g. a forest and paper products REIT).

1. Analyzing subfactors for competitive advantage

193. Competitive advantage is the first component of our competitive position analysis. Companies that possess a sustainable competitive advantage are able to capitalize on key industry factors or mitigate associated risks more effectively. When a company operates in more than one business, we analyze each segment separately to form an overall view of its competitive advantage. In assessing competitive advantage, we evaluate the following subfactors:

- Strategy;
- Differentiation/uniqueness, product positioning/bundling;

- Brand reputation and marketing;
- Product/service quality;
- Barriers to entry, switching costs;
- Technological advantage and capabilities, technological displacement; and
- Asset profile.

a) Strategy

194. A company's business strategy will enhance or undermine its market entrenchment and business stability. Compelling business strategies can create a durable competitive advantage and thus a relatively stronger competitive position. We form an opinion as to the source and sustainability (if any) of the company's competitive advantage relative to its peers'. The company may have a differentiation advantage (i.e., brand, technology, regulatory) or a cost advantage (i.e., lower cost producer/servicer at the same quality level), or a combination.

195. Our assessment of a company's strategy is informed by a company's historical performance and how realistic we view its forward-looking business objectives to be. These may include targets for market shares, the percentage of revenues derived from new products, price versus the competition's, sales or profit growth, and required investment levels. We evaluate these objectives in the context of industry dynamics and the attractiveness of the markets in which the company participates.

b) Differentiation/uniqueness, product positioning/bundling

196. The attributes of product or service differentiation vary by sector, and may include product or services features, performance, durability, reliability, delivery, and comprehensiveness, among other measures. The intensity of competition may be lower where buyers perceive the product or service to be highly differentiated or to have few substitutes. Conversely, products and services that lack differentiation, or offer little value-added in the eyes of customers, are generally commodity-type products that primarily compete on price. Competition intensity will often be highest where limited or moderate investment (R&D, capital expenditures, or advertising) or low employee skill levels (for service businesses) are required to compete. Independent market surveys, media commentaries, market share trends, and evidence of leading or lagging when it comes to raising or lowering prices can indicate varying degrees of product differentiation.

197. Product positioning influences how companies are able to extend or protect market shares by offering popular products or services. A company's abilities to replace aging products with new ones, or to launch product extensions, are important elements of product positioning. In addition, the ability to sell multiple products or services to the same customer, known as bundling or cross-selling, (for instance, offering an aftermarket servicing contract together with the sale of a new appliance) can create a competitive advantage by increasing customers' switching costs and fostering loyalty.

c) Brand reputation and marketing

198. Brand equity measures the price premium a company receives based on its brand relative to the generic equivalent. High brand equity typically translates into customer loyalty, built partially via marketing campaigns. One measure of advertising effectiveness can be revenue growth compared with the increase in advertising expenses.

199. We also analyze re-investment and advertising strategies to anticipate potential strengthening or weakening of a

company's brand. A company's track record of boosting market share and delivering attractive margins could indicate its ability to build and maintain brand reputation.

d) Product/service level quality

200. The strength and consistency of a value proposition is an important factor contributing to a sustainable competitive advantage. Value proposition encompasses the key features of a product or a service that convince customers that their purchase has the right balance between price and quality. Customers generally perceive a product or a service to be good if their expectations are consistently met. Quality, both actual and perceived, can help a company attract and retain customers. Conversely, poor product and service quality may lead to product recalls, higher-than-normal product warnings, or service interruptions, which may reduce demand. Measures of customer satisfaction and retention, such as attrition rates and contract renewal rates, can help trace trends in product/service quality.

201. Maintaining the value proposition requires consistency and adaptability around product design, marketing, and quality-related operating controls. This is pertinent where product differentiation matters, as is the case in most noncommodity industries, and especially so where environmental or human health (concerns for the chemical, food, and pharmaceutical industries) adds a liability dimension to the quality and value proposition. Similarly, regulated utilities (which often do not set their own prices) typically focus on delivering uninterrupted service, often to meet the standards set by their regulator.

e) Barriers to entry, switching costs

202. Barriers to entry can reduce or eliminate the threat of new market entrants. Where they are effective, these barriers can lead to more predictable revenues and profits, by limiting pricing pressures and customer losses, lowering marketing costs, and improving operating efficiency. While barriers to entry may enable premium pricing, a dominant player may rationally choose pricing restraint to further discourage new entrants.

203. Barriers to entry can be one or more of: a natural or regulatory monopoly; supportive regulation; high transportation costs; an embedded customer base that would incur high switching costs; a proprietary product or service; capital or technological intensiveness.

204. A natural monopoly may result from unusually high requirements for capital and operating expenditures that make it uneconomic for a market to support more than a single, dominant provider. The ultimate barrier to entry is found among regulated utilities, which provide an essential service in their 'de juris' monopolies and receive a guaranteed rate of return on their investments. A supportive regulatory regime can include rules and regulations with high hurdles that discourage competitors, or mandate so many obligations for a new entrant as to make market entry financially unviable.

205. In certain industrial sectors, proprietary access to a limited supply of key raw materials or skilled labor, or zoning laws that effectively preclude a new entrant, can provide a strong barrier to entry. Factors such as relationships, long-term contracts or maintenance agreements, or exclusive distribution agreements can result in a high degree of customer stickiness. A proprietary product or service that's protected by a copyright or patent can pose a significant hurdle to new competitors.

f) Technological advantage and capabilities, technological displacement

206. A company may benefit from a proprietary technology that enables it to offer either a superior product or a commodity-type product at a materially lower cost. Proven research and development (R&D) capabilities can deliver a differentiated, superior product or service, as in the pharmaceutical or high tech sectors. However, optimal R&D strategies or the importance or effectiveness of patent protection differ by industry, stage of product development, and product lifecycle.

207. Technological displacement can be a threat in many industries; new technologies or extensions of current ones can effectively displace a significant portion of a company's products or services.

g) Asset profile

208. A company's asset profile is a reflection of its reinvestment, which creates tangible or intangible assets, or both. Companies in similar sectors and industries usually have similar reinvestment options and, thus, their asset profiles tend to be comparable. The reinvestment in "heavy" industries, such as oil and gas, metals and mining, and automotive, tends to produce more tangible assets, whereas the reinvestment in certain "light" industries, such as services, media and entertainment, and retail, tends to produce more intangible assets.

209. We evaluate how a company's asset profile supports or undermines its competitive advantage by reviewing its manufacturing or service creation capabilities and investment requirements, its distribution capabilities, and its track record and commitment to reinvesting in its asset base. This may include a review of the company's ability to attract and retain a talented workforce; its degree of vertical integration and how that may help or hinder its ability to secure supply sources, control the value-added part of its production chain, or adjust to technological developments; or its ability develop a broad and strong distribution network.

2. Analyzing subfactors for scale, scope, and diversity

210. In assessing the relative strength of this component, we evaluate four subfactors:

- Diversity of product or service range;
- Geographic diversity;
- Volumes, size of markets and revenues, and market shares; and
- Maturity of products or services.

211. In a given industry, entities with a broader mix of business activities are typically lower risk, and entities with a narrower mix are higher risk. High concentration of business volumes by product, customer, or geography, or a concentration in the production footprint or supplier base, can lead to less stable and predictable revenues and profits. Comparatively broader diversity helps a company withstand economic, competitive, or technological threats better than its peers.

212. There is no minimum size criterion, although size often provides a measure of diversification. Size and scope of operations is important relative to those of industry peers, though not in absolute terms. While relatively smaller companies can enjoy a high degree of diversification, they will likely be, almost by definition, more concentrated in terms of product, number of customers, or geography than their larger peers in the same industry.

213. Successful and continuing diversification supports a stronger competitive position. Conversely, poor diversification

weakens overall competitive position. For example, a company will weaken its overall business position if it enters new product lines and countries where it has limited expertise and lacks critical mass to be a real competitor to the incumbent market leaders. The weakness is greater when the new products or markets are riskier than the traditional core business.

214. Where applicable, we also include under scale, scope, and diversity an assessment of the potential benefits derived from unconsolidated (or partially consolidated) investments in strategic assets. The relative significance of such an investment and whether it is in an industry that exhibits high or, conversely, low correlation with the issuer's businesses would be considered in determining its potential benefits to scale, scope, and diversity. This excludes nonstrategic, financial investments, the analysis of which does not fall under the competitive position criteria but, instead, under the capital structure criteria.

a) Diversity of product or service range

215. The concentration of business volumes or revenues in a particular or comparatively small set of products or services can lead to less stable revenues and profits. Even if this concentration is in an attractive product or service, it may be a weakness. Likewise, the concentration of business volumes with a particular customer or a small group of customers, or the reliance on one or a few suppliers, can expose the company to a potentially greater risk of losing and having to replace related revenues and profits. On the other hand, successful diversification across products, customers, and/or suppliers can lead to more stable and predictable revenues and profits, which supports a stronger assessment of scale, scope, and diversity.

216. The relative contribution of different products or services to a company's revenues or profits helps us gauge its diversity. We also evaluate the correlation of demand between product or services lines. High correlation in demand between seemingly different product or service lines will accentuate volume declines during a weak part of the business cycle.

217. In most sectors, the share of revenue a company receives from its largest five to 10 customers or counterparties reveals how diversified its customer base is. However, other considerations such as the stability and credit quality of that customer base, and the company's ability to retain significant customers, can be mitigating or accentuating factors in our overall evaluation. Likewise, supplier dependency can often be measured based on a supplier's share of a company's operating or capital costs. However, other factors, such as the degree of interdependence between the company and its supplier(s), the substitutability of key supply sources, and the company's presumed ability to secure alternative supply without incurring substantial switching costs, are important considerations. Low switching costs (i.e. limited impact on input price, quality, or delivery times as a result of having to adapt to a new supply chain partner) can mitigate a high level of concentration.

b) Geographic diversity

218. We assess geographic diversity both from the standpoint of the breadth of the company's served or addressable markets, and from the standpoint of how geographically concentrated its facilities are.

219. The concentration of business volumes and revenues within a particular region can lead to greater exposure to economic factors affecting demand for a company's goods or services in that region. Even if the company's volumes and revenues are concentrated in an attractive region, it may still be vulnerable to a significant drop in demand for its

goods and services. Conversely, a company that serves multiple regions may benefit from different demand conditions in each, possibly resulting in greater revenue stability and more consistent profitability than a more focused peer's. That said, we consider geographic diversification in the context of the industry and the size of the local or regional economy. For instance, companies operating in local industries (such as food retailers) may benefit from a well-entrenched local position.

220. Generally, though, geographically concentrated production or service operations can expose a company to the risk of disruption, and damage revenues and profitability. Even when country risks don't appear significant, a company's vulnerability to exogenous factors (for example, natural disasters, labor or political unrest) increases with geographic concentration.

c) Volumes, size of markets and revenues, market share

221. Absolute sales or unit volumes and market share do not, by themselves, support a strong assessment of scale, scope, and diversity. Yet superior market share is a positive, since it may indicate a broad range of operations, products, or services.

222. We view volume stability (relative to peers') as a positive especially when: a company has demonstrated it during an economic downturn; if it has been achieved without relying on greater price concessions than competitors have made; and when it is likely to be sustained in the future. However, volume stability combined with shrinking market share could be evidence of a company's diminishing prospects for future profitability. We assess the predictability of business volumes and the likely degree of future volume stability by analyzing the company's performance relative to peers' on several industry factors: cyclicality; ability to adapt to technological and regulatory threats; the profile of the customer base (stickiness); and the potential life cycle of the company's products or services.

223. Depending on the industry sector, we measure a company's relative size and market share based on unit sales; the absolute amount of revenues; and the percentage of revenues captured from total industry revenues. We also adjust for industry and company specific qualitative considerations. For example, if an industry is particularly fragmented and has a number of similarly sized participants, none may have a particular advantage or disadvantage with respect to market share.

d) Maturity of products or services

224. The degree of maturity and the relative position on the lifecycle curve of the company's product or service portfolio affect the stability and sustainability of its revenues and margins. It is important to identify the stage of development of a company's products or services in order to measure the life cycle risks that may be associated with key products or services.

225. Mature products or services (e.g. consumer products or broadcast programming) are not necessarily a negative, in our view, if they still contribute reliable profits. If demand is declining for a company's product or service, we examine its track record on introducing new products with staying power. Similarly, a company's track record with product launches is particularly relevant.

3. Analyzing subfactors for operating efficiency

226. In assessing the relative strength of this component, we consider four subfactors:

- Cost structure,
- Manufacturing processes,
- Working capital management, and
- Technology.

227. To the extent a company has high operating efficiency, it should be able to generate better profit margins than peers that compete in the same markets, whatever the prevailing market conditions. The ability to minimize manufacturing and other operational costs and thus maximize margins and cash flow--for example, through manufacturing excellence, cost control, and diligent working capital management--will provide the funds for research and development, marketing, and customer service.

a) Cost structure

228. Companies that are well positioned from a cost standpoint will typically enjoy higher capacity utilization and be more profitable over the course of the business cycle. Cost structure and cost control are keys to generating strong profits and cash flow, particularly for companies that produce commodities, operate in mature industries, or face pricing pressures. It is important to consider whether a company or any of its competitors has a sustainable cost advantage, which can be based on access to cheaper energy, favorable manufacturing locations, or lower and more flexible labor costs, for example.

229. Where information is available, we examine a company's fixed versus variable cost mix as an indication of operating leverage, a measure of how revenue growth translates into growth in operating income. A company with significant operating leverage may witness dramatic declines in operating profit if unit volumes fall, as during cyclical downturns. Conversely, in an upturn, once revenues pass the breakeven point, a substantial percentage of incremental revenues typically becomes profit.

b) Manufacturing process

230. Capital intensity characterizes many heavy manufacturing sectors that require minimum volumes to produce acceptable profits, cash flow, and return on assets. We view capacity utilization through the business cycle (combined with the cost base) as a good indication of manufacturers' ability to maintain profits in varying economic scenarios. Our capacity utilization assessment is based on a company's production capacity across its manufacturing footprint. In addition, we consider the direction of a company's capacity utilization in light of our unit sales expectations, as opposed to analyzing it plant-by-plant.

231. Labor relations remain an important focus in our analysis of operating efficiency for manufacturers. Often, a company's labor cost structure is driven by its history of contractual negotiations and the countries in which it operates. We examine the rigidity or flexibility of a company's labor costs and the extent to which it relies on labor rather than automation. We analyze labor cost structure by assessing the extent of union representation, wage and benefit costs as a share of cost of goods sold (when available), and by assessing the balance of capital equipment vs. labor input in the manufacturing process. We also incorporate trends in a company's efforts to transfer labor costs from high-cost to low-cost regions.

c) Working capital management

232. Working capital management--of current or short-term assets and liabilities--is a key factor in our evaluation of operating efficiency. In general, companies with solid working capital management skills exhibit shorter cash conversion cycles (defined as days' investment in inventory and receivables less days' investment in accounts payable) than their lower-skilled peers. Short cash-conversion cycles could, for instance, demonstrate that a company has a stronger position in the supply chain (for example, requiring suppliers or dealers to hold more of its inventory). This allows a company to direct more capital than its peers can to other areas of investment.

d) Technology

233. Technology can play an important role in achieving superior operating efficiency through effective yield management (by improving input/output ratios), supply chain automation, and cost optimization.

234. Achieving high yield management is particularly important in industries with limited inventory and high fixed costs, such as transportation, lodging, media, and retail. The most efficient airlines can achieve higher revenue per available seat mile than their peers, while the most efficient lodging companies can achieve a higher revenue per available room than their peers. Both industries rely heavily on technology to effectively allocate inventory (seats and rooms) to maximize sales and profitability.

235. Effective supply chain automation systems enable companies to reduce investments in inventory and better forecast future orders based on current trends. By enabling electronic data interchange between supplier and retailer, such systems help speed orders and reorders for goods by quickly pinpointing which merchandise is selling well and needs restocking. They also identify slow moving inventory that needs to be marked down, making space available for fresh merchandise.

236. Effective use of technology can also help hold down costs by improving productivity via automation and workflow management. This can reduce selling, general, and administrative costs, which usually represent a substantial portion of expenditures for industries with high fixed costs, thus boosting earnings.

4. Industry-specific SER parameters

Table 28

SER Calibration By Industry Based On EBITDA

	--Volatility of profitability assessment*--					
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
Transportation cyclical	=<10%	>10%-14%	>14%-22%	>22%-33%	>33%-76%	>76%
Auto OEM	=<25%	>25%-33%	>33%-35%	>35%-40%	>40%-46%	>46%
Metals and mining downstream	=<16%	>16%-31%	>31%-42%	>42%-53%	>53%-82%	>82%
Metals and mining upstream	=<16%	>16%-23%	>23%-28%	>28%-34%	>34%-59%	>59%
Homebuilders and developers	=<19%	>19%-33%	>33%-46%	>46%-65%	>65%-95%	>95%
Oil and gas refining and marketing	=<14%	>14%-21%	>21%-35%	>35%-46%	>46%-82%	>82%
Forest and paper products	=<9%	>9%-18%	>18%-26%	>26%-51%	>51%-114%	>114%
Building materials	=<9%	>9%-16%	>16%-19%	>19%-24%	>24%-33%	>33%
Oil and gas integrated, exploration and production	=<12%	>12%-19%	>19%-22%	>22%-28%	>28%-38%	>38%
Agribusiness and commodity foods	=<12%	>12%-19%	>19%-25%	>25%-39%	>39%-57%	>57%

Table 28

SER Calibration By Industry Based On EBITDA (cont.)

Real estate investment trusts (REITs)	=<5%	>5%-9%	>9%-13%	>13%-20%	>20%-32%	>32%
Leisure and sports	=<5%	>5%-9%	>9%-12%	>12%-16%	>16%-24%	>24%
Commodity chemicals	=<14%	>14%-19%	>19%-28%	>28%-37%	>37%-51%	>51%
Auto suppliers	=<15%	>15%-20%	>20%-26%	>26%-32%	>32%-45%	>45%
Aerospace and defense	=<6%	>6%-9%	>9%-15%	>15%-24%	>24%-41%	>41%
Technology hardware and semiconductors	=<11%	>11%-15%	>15%-22%	>22%-31%	>31%-58%	>58%
Specialty chemicals	=<5%	>5%-10%	>10%-14%	>14%-23%	>23%-36%	>36%
Capital goods	=<12%	>12%-16%	>16%-21%	>21%-30%	>30%-45%	>45%
Engineering and construction	=<9%	>9%-14%	>14%-20%	>20%-28%	>28%-39%	>39%
Railroads and package express	=<5%	>5%-8%	>8%-10%	>10%-13%	>13%-22%	>22%
Business and consumer services	=<4%	>4%-8%	>8%-11%	>11%-16%	>16%-30%	>30%
Midstream energy	=<5%	>5%-9%	>9%-11%	>11%-15%	>15%-31%	>31%
Technology software and services	=<4%	>4%-9%	>9%-14%	>14%-19%	>19%-33%	>33%
Consumer durables	=<7%	>7%-10%	>10%-13%	>13%-19%	>19%-35%	>35%
Containers and packaging	=<5%	>5%-7%	>7%-12%	>12%-18%	>18%-26%	>26%
Media and entertainment	=<6%	>6%-10%	>10%-14%	>14%-20%	>20%-29%	>29%
Oil and gas drilling, equipment and services	=<16%	>16%-22%	>22%-28%	>28%-44%	>44%-62%	>62%
Retail and restaurants	=<4%	>4%-8%	>8%-11%	>11%-16%	>16%-26%	>26%
Health care services	=<4%	>4%-5%	>5%-9%	>9%-12%	>12%-19%	>19%
Transportation infrastructure	=<2%	>2%-4%	>4%-7%	>7%-12%	>12%-19%	>19%
Environmental services	=<5%	>5%-9%	>9%-13%	>13%-22%	>22%-29%	>29%
Regulated utilities	=<4%	>4%-7%	>7%-9%	>9%-14%	>14%-26%	>26%
Unregulated power and gas	=<7%	>7%-16%	>16%-20%	>20%-29%	>29%-47%	>47%
Pharmaceuticals	=<5%	>5%-8%	>8%-11%	>11%-17%	>17%-32%	>32%
Health care equipment	=<3%	>3%-5%	>5%-6%	>6%-10%	>10%-25%	>25%
Branded nondurables	=<4%	>4%-7%	>7%-10%	>10%-15%	>15%-43%	>43%
Telecommunications and cable	=<3%	>3%-6%	>6%-9%	>9%-13%	>13%-23%	>23%
Overall	=<5%	>5%-9%	>9%-15%	>15%-23%	>23%-43%	>43%

*The data ranges include the values up to and including the upper bound. As an example, for a range of 5%-9%, a value of 5% is excluded, while a value of 9% is included; the numbers are rounded to the nearest whole number for presentation purposes.

Table 29

SER Calibration By Industry Based On EBITDA Margin

	--Volatility of profitability assessment*--					
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
Transportation cyclical	=<4%	>4%-8%	>8%-16%	>16%-28%	>28%-69%	>69%
Auto OEM	=<15%	>15%-19%	>19%-29%	>29%-31%	>31%-45%	>45%
Metals and mining downstream	=<10%	>10%-18%	>18%-26%	>26%-36%	>36%-56%	>56%
Metals and mining upstream	=<8%	>8%-10%	>10%-14%	>14%-19%	>19%-31%	>31%
Homebuilders and developers	=<10%	>10%-18%	>18%-30%	>30%-56%	>56%-114%	>114%
Oil and gas refining and marketing	=<12%	>12%-22%	>22%-28%	>28%-42%	>42%-71%	>71%
Forest and paper products	=<8%	>8%-13%	>13%-21%	>21%-41%	>41%-117%	>117%
Building materials	=<4%	>4%-8%	>8%-13%	>13%-18%	>18%-23%	>23%

Table 29

SER Calibration By Industry Based On EBITDA Margin (cont.)

Oil and gas integrated, exploration and production	=<4%	>4%-6%	>6%-8%	>8%-13%	>13%-22%	>22%
Agribusiness and commodity foods	=<9%	>9%-14%	>14%-18%	>18%-27%	>27%-100%	>100%
Real estate investment trusts (REITs)	=<2%	>2%-5%	>5%-8%	>8%-13%	>13%-34%	>34%
Leisure and sports	=<3%	>3%-5%	>5%-6%	>6%-9%	>9%-18%	>18%
Commodity chemicals	=<9%	>9%-14%	>14%-18%	>18%-25%	>25%-37%	>37%
Auto suppliers	=<9%	>9%-13%	>13%-18%	>18%-23%	>23%-40%	>40%
Aerospace and defense	=<3%	>3%-6%	>6%-7%	>7%-12%	>12%-24%	>24%
Technology hardware and semiconductors	=<7%	>7%-10%	>10%-15%	>15%-21%	>21%-62%	>62%
Specialty chemicals	=<3%	>3%-6%	>6%-10%	>10%-19%	>19%-28%	>28%
Capital goods	=<6%	>6%-9%	>9%-13%	>13%-20%	>20%-33%	>33%
Engineering and construction	=<6%	>6%-8%	>8%-12%	>12%-17%	>17%-26%	>26%
Railroads and package express	=<2%	>2%-6%	>6%-8%	>8%-10%	>10%-17%	>17%
Business and consumer services	=<3%	>3%-5%	>5%-7%	>7%-12%	>12%-22%	>22%
Midstream energy	=<3%	>3%-6%	>6%-9%	>9%-14%	>14%-28%	>28%
Technology software and services	=<3%	>3%-6%	>6%-10%	>10%-15%	>15%-30%	>30%
Consumer durables	=<4%	>4%-8%	>8%-11%	>11%-15%	>15%-26%	>26%
Containers and packaging	=<5%	>5%-7%	>7%-9%	>9%-15%	>15%-22%	>22%
Media and entertainment	=<4%	>4%-6%	>6%-9%	>9%-14%	>14%-24%	>24%
Oil and gas drilling, equipment and services	=<6%	>6%-12%	>12%-16%	>16%-22%	>22%-32%	>32%
Retail and restaurants	=<3%	>3%-5%	>5%-7%	>7%-12%	>12%-21%	>21%
Health care services	=<3%	>3%-5%	>5%-6%	>6%-8%	>8%-15%	>15%
Transportation infrastructure	=<1%	>1%-3%	>3%-5%	>5%-7%	>7%-15%	>15%
Environmental services	=<3%	>3%-4%	>4%-6%	>6%-10%	>10%-24%	>24%
Regulated utilities	=<4%	>4%-7%	>7%-9%	>9%-14%	>14%-24%	>24%
Unregulated power and gas	=<6%	>6%-10%	>10%-15%	>15%-23%	>23%-41%	>41%
Pharmaceuticals	=<4%	>4%-5%	>5%-7%	>7%-10%	>10%-21%	>21%
Health care equipment	=<2%	>2%-4%	>4%-5%	>5%-10%	>10%-16%	>16%
Branded nondurables	=<3%	>3%-6%	>6%-9%	>9%-13%	>13%-28%	>28%
Telecommunications and cable	=<2%	>2%-4%	>4%-5%	>5%-7%	>7%-13%	>13%
Overall	=<3%	>3%-6%	>6%-10%	>10%-16%	>16%-32%	>32%

*The data ranges include the values up to and including the upper bound. As an example, for a range of 5%-9%, a value of 5% is excluded, while a value of 9% is included; the numbers are rounded to the nearest whole number for presentation purposes.

Table 30

SER Calibration By Industry Based On Return On Capital

	--Volatility of profitability assessment*--					
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
Transportation cyclical	=<14%	>14%-28%	>28%-39%	>39%-53%	>53%-156%	>156%
Auto OEM	=<42%	>42%-64%	>64%-74%	>74%-86%	>86%-180%	>180%
Metals and mining downstream	=<25%	>25%-32%	>32%-43%	>43%-53%	>53%-92%	>92%
Metals and mining upstream	=<22%	>22%-30%	>30%-38%	>38%-45%	>45%-93%	>93%
Homebuilders and developers	=<12%	>12%-31%	>31%-50%	>50%-70%	>70%-88%	>88%

Table 30

SER Calibration By Industry Based On Return On Capital (cont.)						
Oil and gas refining and marketing	=<14%	>14%-30%	>30%-48%	>48%-67%	>67%-136%	>136%
Forest and paper products	=<10%	>10%-22%	>22%-40%	>40%-89%	>89%-304%	>304%
Building materials	=<13%	>13%-20%	>20%-26%	>26%-36%	>36%-62%	>62%
Oil and gas integrated, exploration and production	=<16%	>16%-22%	>22%-31%	>31%-43%	>43%-89%	>89%
Agribusiness and commodity foods	=<12%	>12%-15%	>15%-29%	>29%-55%	>55%-111%	>111%
Real estate investment trusts (REITs)	=<8%	>8%-14%	>14%-20%	>20%-26%	>26%-116%	>116%
Leisure and sports	=<11%	>11%-17%	>17%-26%	>26%-34%	>34%-64%	>64%
Commodity chemicals	=<19%	>19%-28%	>28%-41%	>41%-50%	>50%-73%	>73%
Auto suppliers	=<20%	>20%-39%	>39%-50%	>50%-67%	>67%-111%	>111%
Aerospace and defense	=<7%	>7%-13%	>13%-19%	>19%-27%	>27%-61%	>61%
Technology hardware and semiconductors	=<8%	>8%-21%	>21%-34%	>34%-49%	>49%-113%	>113%
Specialty chemicals	=<5%	>5%-18%	>18%-28%	>28%-43%	>43%-64%	>64%
Capital goods	=<15%	>15%-24%	>24%-31%	>31%-45%	>45%-121%	>121%
Engineering and construction	=<12%	>12%-21%	>21%-23%	>23%-33%	>33%-54%	>54%
Railroads and package express	=<3%	>3%-11%	>11%-17%	>17%-20%	>20%-27%	>27%
Business and consumer services	=<9%	>9%-17%	>17%-23%	>23%-40%	>40%-87%	>87%
Midstream energy	=<5%	>5%-11%	>11%-17%	>17%-22%	>22%-34%	>34%
Technology software and services	=<8%	>8%-21%	>21%-35%	>35%-65%	>65%-105%	>105%
Consumer durables	=<8%	>8%-13%	>13%-20%	>20%-35%	>35%-60%	>60%
Containers and packaging	=<6%	>6%-14%	>14%-23%	>23%-35%	>35%-52%	>52%
Media and entertainment	=<9%	>9%-17%	>17%-26%	>26%-40%	>40%-86%	>86%
Oil and gas drilling, equipment and services	=<25%	>25%-33%	>33%-45%	>45%-65%	>65%-90%	>90%
Retail and restaurants	=<6%	>6%-14%	>14%-18%	>18%-26%	>26%-69%	>69%
Health care services	=<6%	>6%-10%	>10%-15%	>15%-25%	>25%-44%	>44%
Transportation infrastructure	=<5%	>5%-9%	>9%-12%	>12%-16%	>16%-27%	>27%
Environmental Services	=<7%	>7%-12%	>12%-24%	>24%-35%	>35%-72%	>72%
Regulated utilities	=<6%	>6%-9%	>9%-13%	>13%-20%	>20%-36%	>36%
Unregulated power and gas	=<14%	>14%-19%	>19%-29%	>29%-55%	>55%-117%	>117%
Pharmaceuticals	=<6%	>6%-8%	>8%-15%	>15%-20%	>20%-33%	>33%
Health care equipment	=<4%	>4%-8%	>8%-19%	>19%-31%	>31%-81%	>81%
Branded nondurables	=<6%	>6%-10%	>10%-17%	>17%-29%	>29%-63%	>63%
Telecommunications and cable	=<7%	>7%-13%	>13%-19%	>19%-26%	>26%-60%	>60%
Overall	=<7%	>7%-15%	>15%-23%	>23%-38%	>38%-81%	>81%

*The data ranges include the values up to and including the upper bound. As an example, for a range of 5%-9%, a value of 5% is excluded, while a value of 9% is included; the numbers are rounded to the nearest whole number for presentation purposes.

C. Cash Flow/Leverage Analysis

1. The merits and drawbacks of each cash flow measure

a) EBITDA

237. EBITDA is a widely used, and therefore a highly comparable, indicator of cash flow, although it has significant limitations. Because EBITDA derives from the income statement entries, it can be distorted by the same accounting issues that limit the use of earnings as a basis of cash flow. In addition, interest can be a substantial cash outflow for speculative-grade companies and therefore EBITDA can materially overstate cash flow in some cases. Nevertheless, it serves as a useful and common starting point for cash flow analysis and is useful in ranking the financial strength of different companies.

b) Funds from operations (FFO)

238. FFO is a hybrid cash flow measure that estimates a company's inherent ability to generate recurring cash flow from its operations independent of working capital fluctuations. FFO estimates the cash flow available to the company before working capital, capital spending, and discretionary items such as dividends, acquisitions, etc.

239. Because cash flow from operations tends to be more volatile than FFO, FFO is often used to smooth period-over-period variation in working capital. We consider it a better proxy of recurring cash flow generation because management can more easily manipulate working capital depending on its liquidity or accounting needs. However, we do not generally rely on FFO as a guiding cash flow measure in situations where assessing working capital changes is important to judge a company's cash flow generating ability and general creditworthiness. For example, for working-capital-intensive industries such as retailing, operating cash flow may be a better indicator than FFO of the firm's actual cash generation.

240. FFO is a good measure of cash flow for well-established companies whose long-term viability is relatively certain (i.e., for highly rated companies). For such companies, there can be greater analytical reliance on FFO and its relation to the total debt burden. FFO remains very helpful in the relative ranking of companies. In addition, more established, healthier companies usually have a wider array of financing possibilities to cover potential short-term liquidity needs and to refinance upcoming maturities. For marginal credit situations, the focus shifts more to free operating cash flow--after deducting the various fixed uses such as working capital investment and capital expenditures--as this measure is more directly related to current debt service capability.

c) Cash flow from operations (CFO)

241. The measurement and analysis of CFO forms an important part of our ratings assessment, in particular for companies that operate in working-capital-intensive industries or industries in which working capital flows can be volatile. CFO is distinct from FFO as it is a pure measure of cash flow calculated after accounting for the impact on earnings of changes in operating assets and liabilities. CFO is cash flow that is available to finance items such as capital expenditures, repay borrowing, and pay for dividends and share buybacks.

242. In many industries, companies shift their focus to cash flow generation in a downturn. As a result, even though they typically generate less cash from ordinary business activities because of low capacity utilization and relatively low fixed-cost absorption, they may generate cash by reducing inventories and receivables. Therefore, although FFO is likely to be lower in a downturn, the impact on CFO may not be as great. In times of strong growth the opposite will be true, and consistently lower CFO compared to FFO without a corresponding increase in revenue and profitability can indicate an untenable situation.

243. Working capital is a key element of a company's cash flow generation. While there tends to be a need to build up working capital and therefore to consume cash in a growth or expansion phase, changes in working capital can also act as a buffer in case of a downturn. Many companies will sell off inventories and invest a lower amount in raw materials because of weaker business activities, both of which reduce the amount of capital and cash that is tied up in working capital. Therefore, working capital fluctuations can occur both in periods of revenue growth and contraction and analyzing a company's near-term working capital needs is crucial for estimating future cash flow developments.

244. Often, businesses that are capital intensive are not working-capital-intensive: most of the capital commitment is upfront in equipment and machinery, while asset-light businesses may have to invest proportionally more in inventories and receivables. That also affects margins, because capital-intensive businesses tend to have proportionally lower operating expenses (and therefore higher EBITDA margins), while working-capital-intensive businesses usually report lower EBITDA margins. The resulting cash flow volatility can be significant: because all investment is made upfront in a capital-intensive business, there is usually more room to absorb subsequent EBITDA volatility because margins are higher. For example, a capital-intensive company may remain reasonably profitable even if its EBITDA margin declines from 30% to 20%. By contrast, a working-capital-intensive business with a lower EBITDA margin (due to higher operating expenses) of 8% can post a negative EBITDA margin if EBITDA volatility is large.

d) Free operating cash flow (FOCF)

245. By deducting capital expenditures from CFO, we arrive at FOCF, which can be used as a proxy for a company's cash generated from core operations. We may exclude discretionary capital expenditures for capacity growth from the FOCF calculation, but in practice it is often difficult to discriminate between spending for expansion and replacement. And, while companies have some flexibility to manage their capital budgets to weather down cycles, such flexibility is generally temporary and unsustainable in light of intrinsic requirements of the business. For example, companies can be compelled to increase their investment programs because of strong demand growth or technological changes. Regulated entities (for example, telecommunications companies) might also face significant investment requirements related to their concession contracts (the understanding between a company and the host government that specifies the rules under which the company can operate locally).

246. Positive FOCF is a sign of strength and helpful in distinguishing between two companies with the same FFO. In addition, FOCF is helpful in differentiating between the cash flows generated by more and less capital-intensive companies and industries.

247. In highly capital-intensive industries (where maintenance capital expenditure requirements tend to be high) or in other situations in which companies have little flexibility to postpone capital expenditures, measures such as FFO to debt and debt to EBITDA may provide less valuable insight into relative creditworthiness because they fail to capture potentially meaningful capital expenditures. In such cases, a ratio such as FOCF to debt provides greater analytical insight.

248. A company serving a low-growth or declining market may exhibit relatively strong FOCF because of diminishing fixed and working capital needs. Growth companies, in contrast, exhibit thin or even negative FOCF because of the investment needed to support growth. For the low-growth company, credit analysis weighs the positive, strong current cash flow against the danger that this high level of cash flow might not be sustainable. For the high-growth company,

the opposite is true: weighing the negatives of a current cash deficit against prospects of enhanced cash flow once current investments begin yielding cash benefits. In the latter case, if we view the growth investment as temporary and not likely to lead to increased leverage over the long-term, we'll place greater analytical importance on FFO to debt rather than on FOCF to debt. In any event, we also consider the impact of a company's growth environment in our business risk analysis, specifically in a company's industry risk analysis (see section B).

e) Discretionary cash flow (DCF)

249. For corporate issuers primarily rated in the investment-grade universe, DCF to debt can be an important barometer of future cash flow adequacy as it more fully reflects a company's financial policy, including decisions regarding dividend payouts. In addition, share buybacks and potential M&A, both of which can represent very significant uses of cash, are important components in cash flow analysis.

250. The level of dividends depends on a company's financial strategy. Companies with aggressive dividend payout targets might be reluctant to reduce dividends even under some liquidity pressure. In addition, investment-grade companies are less likely to reduce dividend payments following some reversals--although dividends ultimately are discretionary. DCF is the truest reflection of excess cash flow, but it is also the most affected by management decisions and, therefore, does not necessarily reflect the potential cash flow available.

D. Diversification/Portfolio Effect

1. Academic research

251. Academic research recently concluded that, during the global financial crisis of 2007-2009, conglomerates had the advantage over single sector-focused firms because they had better access to the credit markets as a result of their debt co-insurance and used the internal capital markets more efficiently (i.e., their core businesses had stronger cash flows). Debt co-insurance is the view that the joining-together of two or more firms whose earnings streams are less-than-perfectly correlated reduces the risk of default of the merged firms (i.e., the co-insurance effect) and thereby increases the "debt capacity" or "borrowing ability" of the combined enterprise. These financing alternatives became more valuable during the crisis. (Source: "Does Diversification Create Value In The Presence Of External Financing Constraints? Evidence From The 2007-2009 Financial Crisis," Venkat Kuppuswamy and Belen Villalonga, Harvard Business School, Aug. 19, 2011.)

252. In addition, fully diversified, focused companies saw more narrow credit default swap spreads from 2004-2010 vs. less diversified firms. This highlighted that lenders were differentiating for risk and providing these companies with easier and cheaper access to capital. (Source: "The Power of Diversified Companies During Crises," The Boston Consulting Group and Leipzig Graduate School of Management, January 2012.)

253. Many rated conglomerates are either country- or region-specific; only a small percentage are truly global. The difference is important when assessing the country and macroeconomic risk factors. Historical measures for each region, based on volatility and correlation, reflect regional trends that are likely to change over time.

E. Financial Policy

1. Controlling shareholders

254. Controlling shareholder(s)--if they exist--exert significant influence over a company's financial risk profile, given their ability to use their direct or indirect control of the company's financial policies for their own benefit. Although the criteria do not associate the presence of controlling shareholder(s) to any predefined negative or positive impact, we assess the potential medium- to long-term implications for a company's credit standing of these strategies. Long-term ownership--such as exists in many family-run businesses--is often accompanied by financial discipline and reluctance to incur aggressive leverage. Conversely, short-term ownership--such as exists in private equity sponsor-owned companies--generally entails financial policies aimed at achieving rapid returns for shareholders typically through aggressive debt leverage.

255. The criteria define controlling shareholder(s) as:

- A private shareholder (an individual or a family) with majority ownership or control of the board of directors;
- A group of shareholders holding joint control over the company's board of directors through a shareholder agreement. The shareholder agreement may be comprehensive in scope or limited only to certain financial aspects; and
- A private equity firm or a group of private equity firms holding at least 40% in a company or with majority control of its board of directors.

256. A company is not considered to have a controlling shareholder if it is publicly listed with more than 50% of voting interest listed or when there is no evidence of a particular shareholder or group of shareholders exerting 'de facto' control over a company.

257. Companies that have as their controlling shareholder governments or government-related entities, infrastructure and asset-management funds, and diversified holding companies and conglomerates are assessed in separate criteria.

2. Financial discipline

a) Leverage influence from acquisitions

258. Companies may employ more or less acquisitive growth strategies based on industry dynamics, regulatory changes, market opportunities, and other factors. We consider management teams with disciplined, transparent acquisition strategies that are consistent with their financial policy framework as providing a high degree of visibility into the projected evolution of cash flow and credit measures. Our assessment takes into account management's track record in terms of acquisition strategy and the related impact on the company's financial risk profile. Historical evidence of limited management tolerance for significant debt-funded acquisitions provides meaningful support for the view that projected credit ratios would not significantly weaken as a result of the company's acquisition policy. Conversely, management teams that pursue opportunistic acquisition strategies, without well-defined parameters, increase the risks that the company's financial risk profile may deteriorate well beyond our forecasts.

259. Acquisition funding policies and management's track record in this respect also provide meaningful insight in terms of credit ratio stability. In the criteria, we take into account management's willingness and capacity to mobilize all funding resources to restore credit quality, such as issuing equity or disposing of assets, to mitigate the impact of sizable

acquisitions on credit ratios. The financial policy framework and related historical evidence are key considerations in our assessment.

b) Leverage influence from shareholder remuneration policies

260. A company's approach to rewarding shareholders demonstrates how it balances the interests of its various stakeholders over time. Companies that are consistent and transparent in their shareholder remuneration policies, and exhibit a willingness to adjust shareholder returns to mitigate adverse operating conditions, provide greater support to their long-term credit quality than other companies. Conversely, companies that prioritize cash returns to shareholders in periods of deteriorating economic, operating, or share price performance can significantly undermine long-term credit quality and exacerbate the credit impact of adverse business conditions. In assessing a company's shareholder remuneration policies, the criteria focus on the predictability of shareholder remuneration plans, including how a company builds shareholder expectations, its track record in executing shareholder return policies over time, and how shareholder returns compare with industry peers'.

261. Shareholder remuneration policies that lack transparency or deviate meaningfully from those of industry peers introduce a higher degree of event risk and volatility and will be assessed as less predictable under the criteria. Dividend and capital return policies that function primarily as a means to distribute surplus capital to shareholders based on transparent and stable payout ratios--after satisfying all capital requirements and leverage objectives of the company, and that support stable to improving leverage ratios--are considered the most supportive of long term credit quality.

c) Leverage influence from plans regarding investment decisions or organic growth strategies

262. The process by which a company identifies, funds, and executes organic growth, such as expansion into new products and/or new markets, can have a significant impact on its long-term credit quality. Companies that have a disciplined, coherent, and manageable organic growth strategy, and have a track record of successful execution are better positioned to continue to attract third-party capital and maintain long-term credit quality. By contrast, companies that allocate significant amounts of capital to numerous, unrelated, large and/or complex projects and often incur material overspending against the original budget can significantly increase their credit risk.

263. The criteria assess whether management's organic growth strategies are transparent, comprehensive, and measurable. We seek to evaluate the company's mid- to long-term growth objectives--including strategic rationales and associated execution risks--as well as the criteria it uses to allocate capital. Effective capital allocation is likely to include guidelines for capital deployment, including minimum return hurdles, competitor activity analysis, and demand forecasting. The company's track record will provide key data for this assessment, including how well it executes large and/or complex projects against initial budgets, cost overruns, and timelines.

3. Financial policy framework

a) Comprehensiveness of financial policy framework

264. Financial policies that are clearly defined, unambiguous, and provide a tight framework around management behavior are the most reliable in determining an issuer's future financial risk profile. We assess as consistent with a supportive assessment, policies that are clear, measurable, and well understood by all key stakeholders. Accordingly, the financial policy framework must include well-defined parameters regarding how the issuer will manage its cash flow protection

strategies and debt leverage profile. This includes at least one key or a combination of financial ratio constraints (such as maximum debt to EBITDA threshold) and the latter must be relevant with respect to the issuer's industry and/or capital structure characteristics.

265. By contrast, the absence of established financial policies, policies that are vague or not quantifiable, or historical evidence of significant and unexpected variation in management's long-term financial targets could contribute to an overall assessment of a non-supportive financial policy framework.

b) Transparency of financial policies

266. We assess as supportive financial policy objectives that are transparent and well understood by all key stakeholders and we view them as likely to influence an issuer's financial risk profile over time. Alternatively, financial policies, if they exist, that are not communicated to key stakeholders and/or where there is limited historical evidence to support the company's commitment to these policies, are non-supportive, in our view. We consider the variety of ways in which a company communicates its financial policy objectives, including public disclosures, investor presentation materials, and public commentary.

267. In some cases, however, a company may articulate its financial policy objectives to a limited number of key stakeholders, such as its main creditors or to credit rating agencies. In these situations, a company may still receive a supportive classification if we assess that there is a sufficient track record (more than three years) to demonstrate a commitment to its financial policy objectives.

c) Achievability and sustainability of financial policies

268. To assess the achievability and sustainability of a company's financial policies, we consider a variety of factors, including the entity's current and historical financial risk profile; the demands of its key stakeholders (including dividend and capital return expectations of equity holders); and the stability of the company's financial policies that we have observed over time. If there is evidence that the company is willing to alter its financial policy framework because of adverse business conditions or growth opportunities (including M&A), this could support an overall assessment of non-supportive.

4. Financial policy adjustments--examples

269. Example 1: A moderately leveraged company has just been sold to a new financial sponsor. The financial sponsor has not leveraged the company yet and there is no stated financial policy at the outset. We expect debt leverage to increase upon refinancing, but we are not able to factor it precisely in our forecasts yet.
Likely outcome: FS-6 financial policy assessment, implying that we expect the new owner to implement an aggressive financial policy in the absence of any other evidence.

270. Example 2: A company has two owners—a family owns 75%, a strategic owner holds the remaining 25%. Although the company has provided Standard & Poor's with some guidance on long-term financial objectives, the overall financial policy framework is not sufficiently structured nor disclosed to a sufficient number of stakeholders to qualify for a supportive assessment. Recent history, however, does not provide any evidence of unexpected, aggressive financial transactions and we believe event risk is moderate.
Likely outcome: Neutral financial policy impact, including an assessment of neutral for financial discipline. Although the company's financial framework does not support long-term visibility, historical evidence and stability of management suggest that event risk is not significant. The unsupportive financial framework assessment, however,

prevents the company from qualifying for an overall positive financial policy assessment, should the conditions for positive financial discipline be met.

271. Example 3: A company (not owned by financial sponsors) has stated leverage targets equivalent to a significant financial risk profile assessment. The company continues to make debt-financed acquisitions yet remains within its leverage targets, albeit at the weaker end of these. Our forecasts are essentially built on expectations that excess cash flow will be fully used to fund M&A or, possibly pay share repurchases, but that management will overall remain within its leverage targets.
Likely outcome: Neutral financial policy impact. Although management is fairly aggressive, the company consistently stays within its financial policy targets. We think our forecasts provide a realistic view of the evolution of the company's credit metrics over the next two years. No event risk adjustment is needed.

272. Example 4: A company (not owned by a financial sponsor) has just made a sizable acquisition (consistent with its long-term business strategy) that has brought its credit ratios out of line. Management expressed its commitment to rapidly improve credit ratios back to its long-term ratio targets—representing an acceptable range for the SACP--through asset disposals or a rights issue. We see their disposal plan (or rights issue) as realistic but precise value and timing are uncertain. At the same time, management has a supportive financial policy framework, a positive track record of five years, and assets are viewed as fairly easily tradable.
Likely outcome: Positive financial policy impact. Although forecast credit ratios will remain temporarily depressed, as we cannot fully factor in asset disposals (or rights issue) due to uncertainty on timing/value, or without leaking confidential information, the company's credit risk should benefit from management's positive track record and a supportive financial policy framework. The anchor will be better by one notch if management and governance is at least satisfactory and liquidity is at least adequate.

273. Example 5: A company (not owned by a financial sponsor) has very solid financial ratios, providing it with meaningful flexibility for M&A when compared with management's long-term stated financial policy. Also, its stock price performance is somewhat below that of its closest industry peers. Although we have no recent evidence of any aggressive financial policy steps, we fundamentally believe that, over the long-term term, the company will end up using its financial flexibility for the right M&A opportunity, or alternatively return cash to shareholders.
Likely outcome: Negative financial policy impact. Long-term event risk derived from M&A cannot be built into forecasts nor shareholder returns (share buybacks or one-off dividends) be built into forecasts to attempt aligning projected ratios with stated long-term financial policy levels. This is because our forecasts are based on realistic and reasonably predictable assumptions for the medium term. The anchor will be adjusted down, by one notch or more, because of the negative financial policy assessment.

F. Corporate Criteria Glossary

Anchor: The combination of an issuer's business risk profile assessment and its financial risk profile assessment determine the anchor. Additional rating factors can then modify the anchor to determine the final rating or SACP.

Asset profile: A descriptive way to look at the types and quality of assets that comprise a company (examples can include tangible versus intangible assets, those assets that require large and continuing maintenance, upkeep, or

reinvestment, etc.).

Business risk profile: This measure comprises the risk and return potential for a company in the market in which it participates, the country risks within those markets, the competitive climate, and the competitive advantages and disadvantages the company has. The criteria combine the assessments for Corporate Industry and Country Risk Assessment (CICRA), and competitive position to determine a company's business risk profile assessment.

Capital-intensive company: A company exhibiting large ongoing capital spending to sales, or a large amount of depreciation to sales. Examples of capital-intensive sectors include oil production and refining, telecommunications, and transportation sectors such as railways and airlines.

Cash available for debt repayment: Forecast cash available for debt repayment is defined as the net change in cash for the period before debt borrowings and debt repayments. This includes forecast discretionary cash flow adjusted for our expectations of: share buybacks, net of any share issuance, and M&A. Discretionary cash flow is defined as cash flow from operating activities less capital expenditures and total dividends.

Competitive position: Our assessment of a company's: 1) competitive advantage; 2) operating efficiency; 3) scale, scope, and diversity; and 4) profitability.

- Competitive advantage--The strategic positioning and attractiveness to customers of the company's products or services, and the fragility or sustainability of its business model.
- Operating efficiency--The quality and flexibility of the company's asset base and its cost management and structure.
- Scale, scope, and diversity--The concentration or diversification of business activities.
- Profitability--Our assessment of both the company's level of profitability and volatility of profitability.

Competitive Position Group Profile (CPGP): Used to determine the weights to be assigned to the three components of competitive position other than profitability. While industries are assigned to one of the six profiles, individual companies and industry subsectors can be classified into another CPGP because of unique characteristics. Similarly, national industry risk factors can affect the weighing. The six CPGPs are:

- Services and product focus,
- Product focus/scale driven,
- Capital or asset focus,
- Commodity focus/cost driven,
- Commodity focus/scale driven, and
- National industry and utilities.

Conglomerate: Companies that have at least three distinct business segments, each contributing between 10%-50% of EBITDA or FOCF. Such companies may benefit from the diversification/portfolio effect.

Controlling shareholders: Equity owners who are able to affect decisions of varying effect on operations, leverage, and shareholder reward without necessarily being a majority of shareholders.

Corporate Industry and Country Risk Assessment (CICRA): The result of the combination of an issuer's country risk assessment and industry risk assessment.

Debt co-insurance: The view that the joining-together of two or more firms whose earnings streams are less-than-perfectly correlated reduces the risk of default of the merged firms (i.e., the co-insurance effect) and thereby increases the "debt capacity" or "borrowing ability" of the combined enterprise. These financing alternatives became more valuable during the global financial crisis of 2007-2009.

Financial headroom: Measure of deviation tolerated in financial metrics without moving outside or above a pre-designated band or limit typically found in loan covenants (as in a debt to EBITDA multiple that places a constraint on leverage). Significant headroom would allow for larger deviations.

Financial risk profile: The outcome of decisions that management makes in the context of its business risk profile and its financial risk tolerances. This includes decisions about the manner in which management seeks funding for the company and how it constructs its balance sheet. It also reflects the relationship of the cash flows the organization can achieve, given its business risk profile, to its financial obligations. The criteria use cash flow/leverage analysis to determine a corporate issuer's financial risk profile assessment.

Financial sponsor: An entity that follows an aggressive financial strategy in using debt and debt-like instruments to maximize shareholder returns. Typically, these sponsors dispose of assets within a short to intermediate time frame. Financial sponsors include private equity firms, but not infrastructure and asset-management funds, which maintain longer investment horizons.

Profitability ratio: Commonly measured using return on capital and EBITDA margins but can be measured using sector-specific ratios. Generally calculated based on a five-year average, consisting of two years of historical data, and our projections for the current year and the next two financial years.

Shareholder remuneration policies: Management's stated shareholder reward plans (such as a buyback or dividend amount, or targeted payout ratios).

Stand-alone credit profile (SACP): Standard & Poor's opinion of an issue's or issuer's creditworthiness, in the absence of extraordinary intervention or support from its parent, affiliate, or related government or from a third-party entity such as an insurer.

Transfer and convertibility assessment: Standard & Poor's view of the likelihood of a sovereign restricting nonsovereign access to foreign exchange needed to satisfy the nonsovereign's debt service obligations.

Unconsolidated equity affiliates: Companies in which an issuer has an investment, but which are not consolidated in an issuer's financial statements. Therefore, the earnings and cash flows of the investees are not included in our primary metrics unless dividends are received from the investees.

Upstream/midstream/downstream: Referring to exploration and production, transport and storage, and refining and distributing, respectively, of natural resources and commodities (such as metals, oil, gas, etc.).

Volatility of profitability/SER: We base the volatility of profitability on the standard error of the regression (SER) for a company's historical EBITDA. The SER is a statistical measure that is an estimate of the deviation around a 'best fit' trend line. We combine it with the profitability ratio to determine the final profitability assessment. We only calculate

SER when companies have at least seven years of historical annual data, to ensure that the results are meaningful.

Working-capital-intensive companies: Generally a company with large levels of working capital in relation to its sales in order to meet seasonal swings in working capital. Examples of working-capital-intensive sectors include retail, auto manufacturing, and capital goods.

These criteria represent the specific application of fundamental principles that define credit risk and ratings opinions. Their use is determined by issuer- or issue-specific attributes as well as Standard & Poor's Ratings Services' assessment of the credit and, if applicable, structural risks for a given issuer or issue rating. Methodology and assumptions may change from time to time as a result of market and economic conditions, issuer- or issue-specific factors, or new empirical evidence that would affect our credit judgment.

(Watch the related CreditMatters TV segment titled, "Standard & Poor’s Launches Its New Corporate Ratings Criteria," dated Nov. 19, 2013.)

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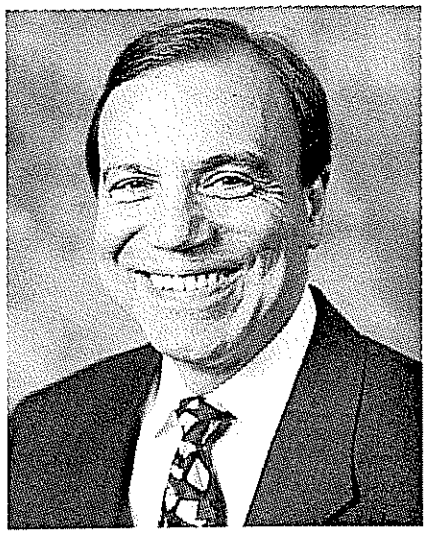
Comparable Earnings: New Life for an Old Precept

by
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Comparable Earnings: New Life for an Old Precept

Accelerating deregulation has greatly increased the investment risk of natural gas utilities. As a result, the authors believe it more appropriate than ever to employ the comparable earnings model. We believe our application of the model overcomes the greatest traditional objection to it — lack of comparability of the selected non-utility proxy firms. Our illustration focuses on a target gas pipeline company with a beta of 0.96 — almost equal to the market's beta of 1.00.





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Introduction

The comparable earnings model used to determine a common equity cost rate is deeply rooted in the standard of "corresponding risk" enunciated in the landmark *Bluefield* and *Hope* decisions of the U.S. Supreme Court.[1] With such solid grounding in the foundations of rate of return regulation, comparable earnings should be accepted as a principal model, along with the currently popular market-based models, provided that its most common criticism, non-comparability of the proxy companies, is overcome.

Our comparable earnings model overcomes the non-comparability issue of the non-utility firms selected as a proxy for the target utility, in this example, a gas pipeline company. We should note that in the absence of common stock prices for the target utility (as with a wholly-owned subsidiary), it is appropriate to use the average of a proxy group of similar risk gas pipeline companies whose common stocks are actively traded. As we will demonstrate, our selection process results in a group of domestic, non-utility firms that is comparable in total risk, the sum of business and financial risk, which reflects both non-diversifiable systematic, or market, risk as well as diversifiable unsystematic, or firm-specific, risk.

Embedded in the Landmark Decisions

As stated in *Bluefield* in 1922: "A public utility is entitled to such rates as will permit it to earn a return ... on investments in other business undertakings which are attended by corresponding risks and uncertainties ..."

In addition, the court stated in *Hope* in 1944: "By that standard the return to the equity owner should be commensurate with returns on investments in other enterprises having corresponding risks."

Thus, the "corresponding risk" precept of *Bluefield* and *Hope* predates the use of such market-based cost-of-equity models as the Discounted Cash Flow (DCF) and Capital Asset Pricing (CAPM), which were developed later and are currently popular in rate-base/rate-of-return regulation. Consequently, the comparable earnings model has a longer regulatory and judicial history. However, it has far greater relevance now than ever before in its history because significant deregulation has substantially increased natural gas utilities' investment risk to a level similar to that of non-utility firms. As a result, it is

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more important than ever to look to similar-risk non-utility firms for insight into common equity cost rate, especially in view of the deficiencies inherent in the currently popular market-based cost of common equity models, particularly the DCF model.

Despite the fact that the landmark decisions are still regarded as having set the standards for determining a fair rate of return, the comparable earnings model has experienced decreased usage by expert witnesses, as well as less regulatory acceptance over the years. We believe the decline in the popularity of the comparable earnings model, in large measure, is attributable to the difficulty of selecting non-utility proxy firms that regulators will accept as comparable to the target utility. Regulatory acceptance is difficult to gain when the selection process is arbitrary. Our application of the model is objective and consistent with fundamental financial tenets.

Principles of Comparable Earnings

Regulation is a substitute for the competition of the marketplace. Moreover, regulated public utilities compete in the capital markets with all firms, including unregulated non-utilities. The comparable earnings model is based upon the opportunity cost principle; i.e., that the true cost of an investment is the return that could have been earned on the next best available alternative investment of similar risk. Consequently, the comparable earnings model is consistent with regulatory and financial principles, as it is a surrogate for the competition of the marketplace, and investors seek the greatest available rate of return for bearing similar risk.

The selection of comparable firms is the most difficult step in applying the comparable earnings model, as noted by Phillips[2] as well as by Bonbright, Danielsen and Kamerschen.[3] The selection of non-utility proxy firms should result in a sufficiently broad-based group in order to minimize the effect of company-specific aberrations. However, if the selection process is arbitrary, it likely would result in a proxy group that is too broad-based, such as the Standard & Poor's 500 Composite Index or the Value Line Industrial Composite. The use of such groups would require subjective adjustments to the comparable earnings results to reflect risk differences between the group(s) and the target utility, a gas pipeline company in this example.

Authors' Selection Criteria

We base the selection of comparable non-utility firms on market-based, objective, quantitative measures of risk resulting from market prices that subsume investors' assessments of all elements of risk. Thus, our approach is based upon the principle of risk and return; namely, that firms of comparable risk should be expected to earn comparable returns. It is also consistent with the "corresponding risk" standard established in *Bluefield* and *Hope*. We measure total investment risk as the sum of non-diversifiable systematic and diversifiable unsystematic risk. We use the unadjusted beta as a measure of systematic risk and the standard error of the estimate (residual standard error) as a measure of unsystematic risk. Both the unadjusted beta and the residual standard error are derived from a regression of the target utility's security returns relative to the market's returns, which takes the general form:

$r_{it} = a_i + b_i r_{mt} + e_{it}$

where:

- r_{it} = tth observation of the ith utility's rate of return
- r_{mt} = tth observation of the market's rate of return
- e_{it} = tth random error term
- a_i = constant least-squares regression coefficient
- b_i = least-squares regression slope coefficient, the unadjusted beta.

As shown by Francis,[4] the total variation or risk of a firm's return, Var (r_i), comes from two sources:

Var (r_i) = total risk of ith asset
= var($a_i + b_i r_m + e$)
substituting ($a_i + b_i r_m + e$) for r_i
= var($b_i r_m$) + var (e) since var(a_i) = 0
= b_i^2 var(r_m) + var (e) since var($b_i r_m$) = b_i^2 var(r_m)
= systematic + unsystematic risk

Francis[5] also notes: "The term $\sigma^2(r_i|r_m)$ is called the *residual variance around the regression line* in statistical terms or *unsystematic risk* in capital market theory language. $\sigma^2 (r_i|r_m)$ = ... = var (e). The residual variance is the squared standard error in regression language, a measure of unsystematic risk." Application of these criteria results in a group of non-utility firms whose average total investment risk is indeed comparable to that of the target gas pipeline.

As a measure of systematic risk, we use the Value Line unadjusted beta. Beta measures the extent to which market-wide or macro-economic events affect a firm's stock price. We use the unadjusted beta of the target utility as a starting point because it results from the regression of the target utility's security returns relative to the market's returns. Thus, the resulting standard deviation of beta relates to the unadjusted beta. We use the standard deviation of the unadjusted beta to determine the range around it as the selection criterion based on systematic risk.

We use the residual standard error of the regression as a measure of unsystematic risk. The residual standard error reflects the extent to which events specific to the firm's operations affect a firm's stock price. Thus, it is a measure of diversifiable, unsystematic, firm-specific risk.

An Illustration of Authors' Approach

Step One: We begin our approach by establishing the selection criteria as a range of both unadjusted beta and residual standard error of the target gas

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pipeline company.

As shown in table 1, our target gas pipeline company has a Value Line unadjusted beta of 0.90, whose standard deviation is 0.1250. The selection criterion range of unadjusted beta is the unadjusted beta plus (+) and minus (-) three of its standard deviations. By using three standard deviations, 99.73 percent of the comparable unadjusted betas is captured.

Three standard deviations of the target utility's unadjusted beta equals 0.38 (0.1250 x 3 = 0.3750, rounded to 0.38). Consequently, the range of unadjusted betas to be used as a selection criteria is 0.52 - 1.28 (0.52 = 0.90 - 0.38) and (1.28 = 0.90 + 0.38).

Likewise, the selection criterion range of residual standard error equals the residual standard error plus (+) and minus (-) three of its standard deviations. The standard deviation of the residual standard error is defined as: $\sigma/\sqrt{2N}$.

As also shown in table 1, the target gas pipeline company has a residual standard error of 3.7867. According to the above formula, the standard deviation of the residual standard error would be 0.1664 ($0.1664 = 3.7867/\sqrt{2(259)} = 3.7867/22.7596$, where 259 = N, the number of weekly price change observations over a period of five years). Three standard deviations of the target utility's residual standard error would be 0.4992 (0.1664 x 3 = .4992). Consequently, the range of residual standard errors to be used as a selection criterion is 3.2875 - 4.2859 (3.2875 = 3.7867 - 0.4992) and (4.2859 = 3.7867 + 0.4992).

Step Two: The step one criteria are applied to Value Line's data base of nearly 4,000 firms for which Value Line derives unadjusted betas and residual standard errors on a weekly basis. All firms with unadjusted betas and residual standard errors within the criteria ranges are then selected.

Step Three: In the regulatory ratemaking environment, authorized common equity return rates are applied to a book-value rate base. Thus, the earnings rates on book common equity, or net worth, of competitive, non-utility firms are highly relevant provided those firms are indeed comparable in total risk to the target gas pipeline. The use of the return rates of other utilities has no relevance because their allowed, and hence subsequently achieved, earnings rates are dependent upon the regulatory

table 1

Summary of the Comparable Earnings Analysis for the Proxy Group of 248 Non-Utility Companies Comparable in Total Risk to the Target Gas Pipeline Company[1]

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
				rate of return on net worth				
	adj. beta	unadj. beta	residual standard error	3-year average[2]	4-year average[2]	5-year average[2]	5-year projected[3]	
average for the proxy group of 248 non-utility companies comparable in total risk to the target gas pipeline company	0.97	0.92	3.7705					
target gas pipeline company	0.96	0.90[4]	3.7867					
median				11.7%	12.0%	12.6%	15.5%	
average of the median historical returns					12.1%			
conclusion[5]								13.8%

[1]The criteria for selection of the non-utility group was that the non-utility companies be domestic and included in *Value Line Investment Survey*. The non-utility group was selected based on an unadjusted beta range of 0.52 to 1.28 and a residual standard error range of 3.2875 to 4.2859.
[2]Ending 1992.
[3]1996-1998/1997-1999.
[4]The average standard deviation of the target gas pipeline company's unadjusted beta is 0.1250.
[5]Equal weight given to both the average of the 3-, 4- and 5-year historical medians (12.1%) and 5-year projected median rate of return on net worth (15.5%). Thus, 13.8% = (12.1% + 15.5% / 2).
Source: Value Line Inc., March 15, 1994
Value Line Investment Survey

Comparable Earnings *from page 6*

process. Consequently, we believe all utilities must be eliminated to avoid circularity. Moreover, we believe non-domestic firms must be eliminated because their reporting methods differ significantly from U.S. firms.

Step Four: We then eliminated those firms for which Value Line does not publish a "Ratings & Report" in *Value Line Investment Survey* so that the historical and projected returns on net worth[6] are from a consistent source. We use historical returns on net worth for the most recent five years, as well as those projected three to five years into the future. We believe it is logical to evaluate both historical and projected return rates because it is reasonable to assume that investors avail themselves of both when they are available from widely disseminated information services, such as Value Line Inc. The use of Value Line's return rates on net worth understates the common equity return rates for two reasons. First, preferred stock is included in net worth. Second, the net worth return rates are as of the end of each period. Thus, the use of average common equity return rates would yield higher results.

Step Five: Median returns based on the historical average three, four and five years ending 1992 and projected 1996-1998 or 1997-1999 rates of return on net worth are then determined as shown in columns 4 through 7 of table 1. The median is used due to the wide variations and skewness in rates of return on net worth for the non-utility firms as evidenced by the frequency distributions of those returns as shown in illustration 1.

However, we show the average unadjusted beta, 0.92, and residual standard error, 3.7705, for the proxy group in columns 2 and 3 of table 1 because their frequency distributions are not significantly skewed, as shown in illustration 2.

Step Six: Our conclusion of a com-

continued on page 8

Illustration 1

Rates of Return on Net Worth for the Proxy Group of 248 Non-Utility Companies[1]

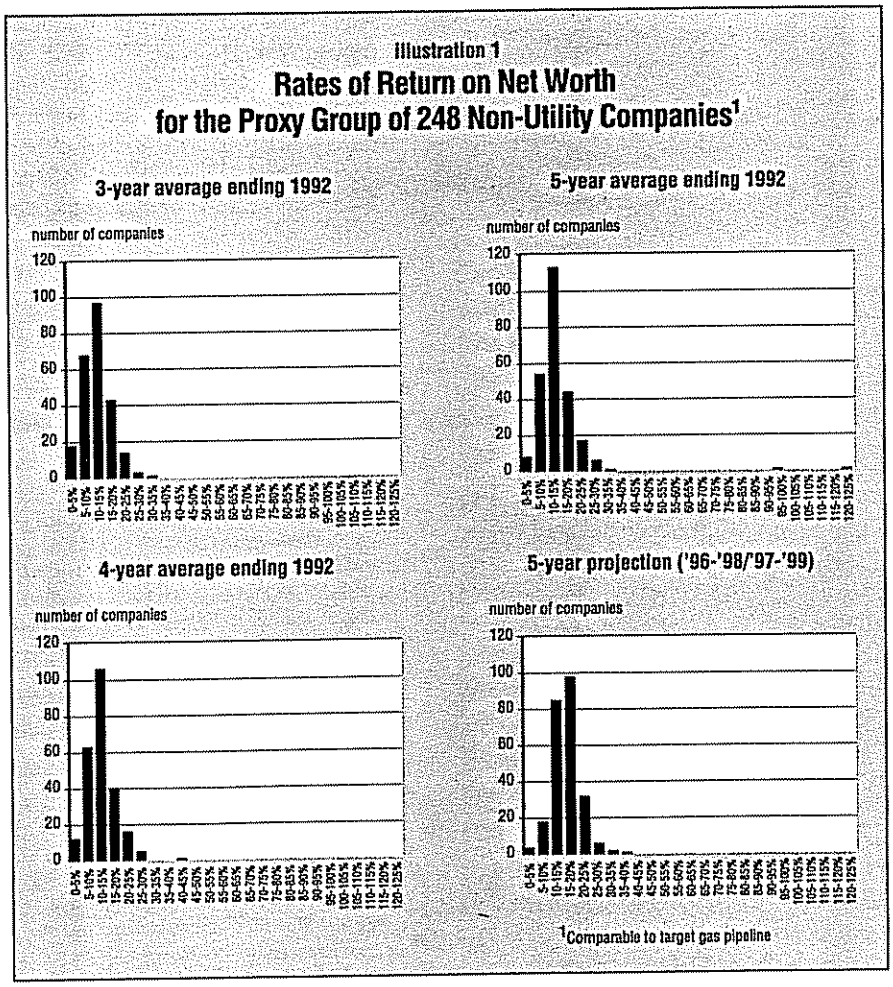
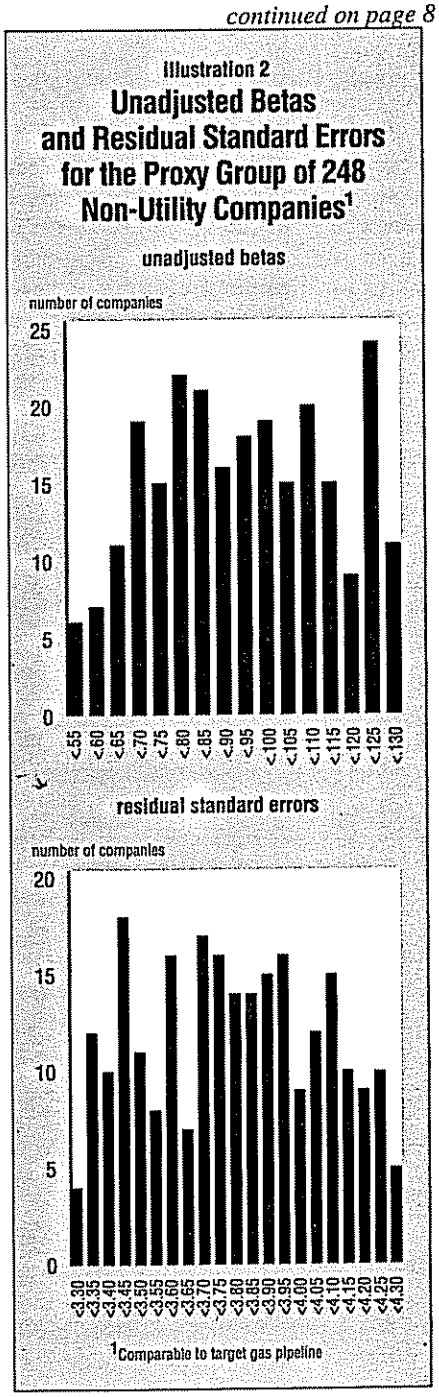


Illustration 2

Unadjusted Betas and Residual Standard Errors for the Proxy Group of 248 Non-Utility Companies[1]



Comparable Earnings *from page 7*

parable earnings cost rate is based upon the mid-point of the average of the median three-, four- and five-year historical rates of return on net worth of 12.1 percent as shown in column 5 and the median projected 1996-1998/1997-1999 rate of return on net worth of 15.5 percent as shown in column 7 of table 1. As shown in column 8, it is 13.8 percent.

Summary

Our comparable earnings approach demonstrates that it is possible to select a proxy group of non-utility firms that is comparable in total risk to a target utility. In our example, the 13.8 percent comparable earnings cost rate is very conservative as it is an expected achieved rate on book common equity (a regulatory allowed rate should be greater) and because it is based on end-of-period net worth. A similar rate on average net worth would be about 20 to 40 basis points higher (i.e., 14.0 to 14.2 percent) and still understate the appropriate regulatory allowed rate of return on book common equity.

Our selection criteria are based upon measures of systematic and unsystematic risk, specifically unadjusted beta and residual standard error. They provide the basis for the objective selection of comparable non-utility firms. Our selection criteria rely on changes in market prices over approximately five years. We compare the aggregate total risk, or the sum of systematic and unsystematic risk, which reflects investors' aggregate assessment of both business and financial risk. Thus, no adjustments are necessary to the proxy group results to compensate for the differences in business risk and financial risk, such as accounting practices and debt/equity ratios. Moreover, it is inappropriate to attempt a comparison of the target utility with any individual firm, or subset of firms, in the proxy group because only the average firm of the group is relevant.

Because the comparable earnings model is firmly anchored in the "corresponding risk" precept established in the landmark court decisions, it is worthy of consideration as a principal model for use in estimating the cost rate of common equity capital of a regulated utility. Our approach to the comparable earnings model produces a proxy group that is indeed comparable in total risk because the selection process is objective and quantitative. It therefore overcomes criticism linked to arbitrary selection processes.

All cost-of-common-equity models, including the DCF and CAPM, are fraught with deficiencies, usually stemming from the many necessary but unrealistic assumptions that underlie them. The effects of the deficiencies of individual models can be mitigated by using more than one model when estimating a utility's common equity cost rate. Therefore, when the non-comparability issue is overcome, the comparable earnings model deserves to receive the same consideration as a primary model, as do the currently popular market-based models. ■

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[1] *Bluefield Water Works Improvement Co. v. Public Service Commission*, 262 U.S. 679 (1922) and *Federal Power Commission v. Hope Natural Gas Co.*, 320 U.S. 519 (1944).

[2] Charles F. Phillips Jr., The Regulation of Public Utilities: Theory and Practice, Public Utilities Reports Inc., 1988, p. 379.

[3] James C. Bonbright, Albert L. Danielsen and David R. Kamerschen, Principles of Public Utilities Rates, 2nd edition, Public Utilities Reports Inc., 1988, p. 329.

[4] Jack Clark Francis, Investments: Analysis and Management, 3rd edition, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1980, p. 363.

[5] Id., p. 548.

[6] Returns on net worth must be used when relying on Value Line data because returns on book common equity for non-utility firms are not available from Value Line.

Report Lists Pipeline, Storage Projects

More than $9 billion worth of projects to expand the nation's natural gas pipeline network are in various stages of development, according to an A.G.A. report. These projects involve nearly 8,000 miles of new pipelines and capacity additions to existing lines and represent 15.3 billion cubic feet (Bcf) per day of new pipeline capacity.

During 1993 and early 1994, construction on 3,100 miles of pipeline was completed or under way, at a cost of nearly $4 billion, says A.G.A. These projects are adding 5.4 Bcf in daily delivery capacity nationwide.

Among the projects completed in 1993 were Pacific Gas Transmission Co.'s 805 miles of looping that allows increased deliveries of Canadian gas to the West Coast; Northwest Pipeline Corp.'s addition of 433 million cubic feet of daily capacity for customers in the Pacific Northwest and Rocky Mountain areas; and the 156-mile Empire State Pipeline in New York.

In addition, major construction projects were started on the systems of Texas Eastern Transmission Corp. and Algonquin Gas Transmission Co. — both subsidiaries of Panhandle Eastern Corp. — and along Florida Gas Transmission Co.'s pipeline.

The report goes on to discuss another $5 billion in proposed projects, which, if completed, will add nearly 5,000 miles of pipeline and 9.8 Bcf per day in capacity, much of it serving Florida and West Coast markets.

A.G.A. also identifies 47 storage projects and says that if all of them are built, existing storage capacity will increase by more than 500 Bcf, or 15 percent.

For a copy of *New Pipeline Construction: Status Report 1993-94* (#F00103), call A.G.A. at (703) 841-8490. Price per copy is $6 for employees of member companies and associates and $12 for other customers.

Investments: Analysis and Management

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Beta Measurements The beta coefficient is an *index of systematic risk.* Beta coefficients may be used for ranking the systematic risk of different assets. If the beta is larger than 1, $b > 1.0$, then the asset is more volatile than the market and is called an **aggressive asset.** If the beta is less than 1, $b < 1.0$, the asset is a **defensive asset;** its price fluctuations are less volatile than the market's. Figure 10-1 illustrates the characteristic lines for three different assets that have low, medium, and high levels of beta (or undiversifiable risk).

Figure 10-2 shows that IBM is a stock with an average amount of systematic risk. IBM's beta of 1.02 indicates that its return tends to increase 2 percent more than the return on the market average when the market is rising. When the market falls, IBM's return tends to fall 2 percent more than the market's. The characteristic line for IBM has an above average correlation coefficient of $\rho = .7495$, indicating that the returns on this security follow its particular characteristic line slightly more closely than those of the average stock.

Partitioning Risk Total risk can be measured by the variance of returns, denoted Var(r). This measure of *total risk is partitioned into its systematic and unsystematic components in Equation (10-8).*[7]

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(r_i) &= \text{total risk of } i\text{th asset} \\ &= \text{Var}(a_i + b_i r_{m,t} + e_{i,t}) \\ &\quad \text{by substituting } (a_i + b_i r_{m,t} + e_{i,t}) \text{ for } r_{i,t} \\ &= 0 + \text{Var}(b_i r_{m,t}) + \text{Var}(e_{i,t}) \\ &\quad \text{since Var}(a_i) = 0 \end{aligned} \tag{10-8}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(r_i) &= b_i^2 \text{ Var}(r_m) + \text{Var}(e) \qquad \text{since Var}(b_i r_m) = b_i^2 \text{ Var}(r_m) \\ &= \text{systematic} + \text{unsystematic risk} \end{aligned} \tag{10-8a}$$

$$.01389 = .00780 + .00609 \qquad \text{for IBM}$$

The unsystematic risk measure Var(e) is called in regression language the *residual variance* or, synonymously, the *standard error squared.*

Undiversifiable Proportion The percentage of total risk that is systematic can be measured by the coefficient of determination ρ^2 (that is, the characteristic line's squared correlation coefficient).

[7]In this context, **partition** is a technical statistical term that means to divide the total variance into *mutually exclusive* and *exhaustive* pieces. This partition is only possible if the returns from the market are statistically independent from the residual error terms that occur simultaneously, $\text{Cov}(r_{m,t}, e_{i,t}) = 0$. The mathematics of regression analysis will orthogonalize the residuals and thus ensure that the needed statistical independence exists.

$$\frac{\text{Systematic risk}}{\text{Total risk}} = \frac{b_i^2 \operatorname{Var}(r_m)}{\operatorname{Var}(r_m)} = \rho^2 \tag{10-9}$$

$$\frac{.007802}{.01389} = \frac{(1.021)^2\,(.00749)}{.00749} = .5617 \times 100 = 56.17\% \quad \text{for IBM}$$

Diversifiable Proportion The percentage of unsystematic risk equals $(1.0 - \rho^2)$.

$$\frac{\text{Unsystematic risk}}{\text{Total risk}} = \frac{\operatorname{Var}(e)}{\operatorname{Var}(r_i)} = (1.0 - \rho^2)$$

$$\frac{.00609}{.01389} = (1.0 - .5617) = .438 \times 100 \tag{10-10}$$

$$= 43.8\% \text{ unsystematic} \quad \text{for IBM}$$

Studies of the characteristic lines of hundreds of stocks listed on the NYSE indicate that the average correlation coefficient is approximately $\rho = .5$.[8] This means that about $\rho^2 = 25$ percent of the total variability of return in most NYSE securities is explained by movements in the market.

	NYSE average	IBM
Systematic risk: ρ^2	.25	.5617
Unsystematic risk: $(1.0 - \rho^2)$	.75	.4383
Total risk: 100%	1.00	1.0000

As explained above, systematic changes are common to all stocks and are therefore undiversifiable.

A primary use of the characteristic line (or *market model,* or the *single-index model,* as it is also called) is to assess the risk characteristics of one asset.[9] The statistics in Table 10-2, for instance, indicate that IBM's common stock is slightly more risky than the average common stock in terms of total risk and

[8]The average ρ was found to be about .5, as reported in Marshall Blume, "On the Assessment of Risk," *Journal of Finance,* March 1971, p. 4. For similar estimates, see J. C. Francis, "Statistical Analysis of Risk Surrogates for NYSE Stocks," *Journal of Financial and Quantitative Analysis,* Dec. 1979.

[9]Professor Jensen reformulated the characteristic line in a risk-premium form. See M. C. Jensen, "The Performance of Mutual Funds in the Period 1945 through 1964," *Journal of Finance,* May 1968, pp. 389–416. See also M. C. Jensen, "Risk, the Pricing of Capital Assets, and the Evaluation of Investment Portfolios," *Journal of Business,* vol. XLII, 1969. Jensen interprets the alpha intercept term of the characteristic line, as he formulates it, as an investment performance measure. It has been suggested that Jensen's performance measure is biased. See Keith V. Smith and Dennis A. Tito, "Risk-Return Measures of Ex-Post Portfolio Performance," *Journal of Financial and Quantitative Analysis,* Dec. 1969, vol. IV, no. 4, p. 466.

systematic risk.[10] New risk measurements must be made periodically, however, because the risk and return of an asset may change with the passage of time.[11]

10-3 CAPITAL ASSET PRICING MODEL (CAPM)

An old axiom states "there is no such thing as a free lunch." This means that you cannot expect to get something for nothing—a rule that certainly applies to investment returns. Investors who want to earn high average rates of return must take high risks and endure the associated loss of sleep, the possibility of ulcers, and the chance of bankruptcy. The question to which we now turn is: Should investors worry about total risk, undiversifiable risk, diversifiable risk, or all three?

In Chapter 1 it was suggested that *investors should seek investments that have the maximum expected return in their risk class*. Their happiness from investing is presumed to be derived as indicated in the expected utility $E(U)$ function below.

$$E(U) = f[E(r), \sigma]$$

The investment preferences of wealth-seeking risk-averse investors represented by the function above cause them to maximize their expected utility (or, equivalently, happiness) by (1) maximizing their expected return in any given risk class, $\partial E(U)/\partial E(r) > 0$, or, conversely, (2) minimizing their total risk at any given rate of expected return, $\partial E(U)/\partial \sigma < 0$. However, in selecting individual assets, investors will not be particularly concerned with the asset's total risk σ. Figure 9-1 showed that the unsystematic portion of total risk can be easily diversified by holding a portfolio of different securities. But, systematic risk affects all stocks in the market because it is undiversifiable. Portfolio theory therefore suggests that only the undiversifiable (or systematic) risk is worth avoiding.[12]

[10]Statements about the relative degree of total risk are made in the context of a long-run horizon—that is, over at least one *complete business cycle*. Obviously, an accurate short-run forecast which says that some particular company will go bankrupt next quarter makes it more risky than IBM, although IBM may have had more historical variability of return.

[11]Empirical studies documenting the intertemporal instability of betas have been published. Marshall Blume, "Betas and Their Regression Tendencies," *Journal of Finance*, June 1975, pp. 785–795. See also J. C. Francis, "Statistical Analysis of Risk Coefficients for NYSE Stocks," *Journal of Financial and Quantitative Analysis*, Dec. 1979, vol. XIV, no. 5, pp. 981–997. An appendix at the end of this chapter reviews some evidence about shifting betas, standard deviations, and correlations.

[12]Both the systematic and unsystematic portions of total risk must be considered by **undiversified investors.** Entrepreneurs who have their entire net worth invested in one business, for example, can be bankrupted by a piece of bad luck that could be easily averaged away to zero in a diversified portfolio. Poorly diversified investors should not treat diversifiable risk lightly. Only well-diversified investors can afford to ignore diversifiable risk.