# The Complete CFO Handibook 

From Accounting to Accountability

FRANK J. FABOZZI PAMELA PETERSON DRAKE RALPH S. POLIMENI

John Wiley \& Sons, Inc.

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## FJF

To my wife, Donna, and my children, Karly, Patricia, and Francesco

PPD
To my husband, Randy

RSP<br>To my inspiration, Maxine Elko

## Contents

Preface ..... xV
About the Authors ..... xix
CHAPTER 1
The Changing Role of the CFO: From Accounting to Accountable ..... 1
SOX Act of 2002 and the CFO ..... 2
Expanded Responsibilities of the CFO ..... 6
Our Agenda ..... 14
PART ONE
Funding ..... 15
CHAPTER 2
Capital Structure Decisions ..... 17
Debt versus Equity ..... 18
Concept of Leverage ..... 21
Capital Structure and Financial Leverage ..... 25
Financial Leverage and Risk ..... 29
Capital Structure and Taxes ..... 31
Capital Structure and Financial Distress ..... 37
Cost of Capital ..... 41
Agency Relationship ..... 43
Optimal Capital Structure: Theory and Practice ..... 47
A Capital Structure Prescription ..... 51
Bottom Line ..... 52
Appendix: Capital Structure Theory-The Modigliani-Miller Theory and Beyond ..... 53
CHAPTER 3
Types of Deht Financing ..... 63
General Features of Debt Obligations ..... 64
Term Loans ..... 65
Syndicated Bank Loans ..... 69
Notes and Bonds ..... 71
Short-Term Financing ..... 86
Off-Balance-Sheet Financing ..... 93
Bottom Line ..... 95
CHAPTER 4
Equity Funding ..... 99
Common Stock ..... 100
Preferred Stock ..... 115
Bottom Line ..... 121
CHAPTER 5
Structured Financing: Asset Securitization and Structured Notes ..... 123
Asset Securitization ..... 124
Structured Notes ..... 139
Bottom Line ..... 149
PART TWO
Strateyy, Taxes, and Risk Manayement ..... 151
CHAPTER 6
Strategy and Financial Planning ..... 153
Strategy and Value ..... 155
Financial Planning and Budgeting ..... 158
Importance of Financial Planning ..... 158
Budgeting Process ..... 160
Sales Forecasting ..... 161
Seasonal Considerations ..... 163
Budgeting ..... 165
Pro Forma Financial Statements ..... 172
Long-Term Financial Planning ..... 179
Financial Modeling ..... 179
Performance Evaluation ..... 183
Strategy and Value Creation ..... 191
Bottom Line ..... 195
CHAPTER 7
Basics of Corporate Taxes and Tax Risk Management ..... 197
Tax Management ..... 199
Tax Risk ..... 200
U.S. Tax Law and Taxation of Corporations ..... 205
State and Local Taxes ..... 218
Non-U.S. Taxes ..... 218
Bottom Line ..... 224
CHAPTER 8
Corporate Risk Management ..... 227
Risk Defined ..... 228
Enterprise Risk Management ..... 230
Managing Risks ..... 235
Risk Transfer ..... 237
Bottom Line ..... 255
PART THREE
Performance Evaluation ..... 259
CHAPTER 9
Financial Ratio Analysis ..... 261
Ratios and Their Classification ..... 262
Return-on-Investment Ratios ..... 264
Liquidity ..... 271
Profitability Ratios ..... 279
Activity Ratios ..... 282
Financial Leverage Ratios ..... 284
Common-Size Analysis ..... 289
Using Financial Ratio Analysis ..... 290
Illustration: Pfizer, Inc., 1990-2005 ..... 292
Bottom Line ..... 307
CHAPTER 10
Cash Flow Analysis ..... 309
Difficulties with Measuring Cash Flow ..... 309
Cash Flows and the Statement of Cash Flows ..... 311
Free Cash Flow ..... 316
Calculating Free Cash Flow ..... 318
Net Free Cash Flow ..... 320
Usefulness of Cash Flows in Financial Analysis ..... 322
Bottom Line ..... 327
CHAPTER 11
Decentralized Operations and Responsibility Accounting ..... 329
Organization Structures and Concepts ..... 330
Examples of Types of Organization Structure and Resposibility Reporting ..... 331
Decentralization Problems ..... 337
Responsibility Accounting ..... 338
Controllable Costs ..... 345
Costs of Service Departments ..... 346
Executive Incentive Compensation Plans and Dysfunctional Decision Making ..... 347
Bottom Line ..... 351
CHAPTER 12
Responsibility Center Performance Evaluation ..... 353
Basis for Comparison ..... 354
Cost Center Performance Evaluation ..... 356
Profit Center Performance Evaluation ..... 364
Profit Center Decision Making ..... 372
Investment Center Performance Evaluation ..... 373
Bottom Line ..... 394
Appendix: Gross Profit Analysis ..... 394
CHAPTER 13
Transfer Pricing ..... 405
Transfer Pricing Methods ..... 407
Dual Transfer Pricing System ..... 418
International Transfer Pricing ..... 419
Bottom Line ..... 424
PART FOUR
Asset Management ..... 427
CHAPTER 14
Capital Budgeting and Cash Flow Analysis ..... 429
The Investment Problem ..... 430
Capital Budgeting ..... 432
Cash Flow from Investments ..... 437
Bottom Line ..... 454
Appendix 14.A: Expected Cash Flows from the Disposition of an Asset ..... 455
Appendix 14.B: Expansion of the Williams $5 \& 10$ ..... 457
CHAPTER 15
Capital Budgeting Techniques ..... 463
Evaluation Techniques ..... 464
Net Present Value ..... 466
Profitability Index ..... 471
Internal Rate of Return ..... 472
Modified Internal Rate of Return ..... 477
Payback Period ..... 480
Discounted Payback Period ..... 482
Issues in Capital Budgeting ..... 483
Comparing Techniques ..... 486
Capital Budgeting Techniques in Practice ..... 489
Conflicts with Responsibility Center Performance Evaluation Measures ..... 490
Capital Budgeting and the Justification of New Technology ..... 491
Bottom Line ..... 495
CHAPTER 16
Capital Budgeting and Risk ..... 497
Project Risk ..... 498
Measurement of Project Risk ..... 500
Measuring a Project's Market Risk ..... 505
Incorporating Risk in the Capital Budgeting Decision ..... 514
Real Options ..... 518
Certainty Equivalents ..... 525
Assessment of Project Risk in Practice ..... 526
Bottom Line ..... 528
CHAPTER 17 Leasing ..... 531
How Leasing Works ..... 532
Types of Equipment Leases ..... 533
Full-Payout Leases versus Operating Leases ..... 535
Reasons for Leasing ..... 536
Types of Lessors ..... 541
Lease Brokers and Financial Advisers ..... 541
Lease Programs ..... 542
Financial Reporting of Lease Transactions by Lessees ..... 543
Leveraged Lease Fundamentals ..... 546
Federal Income Tax Requirements for True Lease Transactions ..... 556
Synthetic Leases ..... 558
Valuing a Lease: The Lease or Borrow-to-Buy Decision ..... 560
Bottom Line ..... 574
CHAPTER 18
Managing Short-Term Assets ..... 579
Cash Management ..... 581
Marketable Securities ..... 589
Receivables Management ..... 591
Inventory Management ..... 601
Bottom Line ..... 607
PART FIVE
Cost and Managerial Accounting ..... 609
CHAPTER 19
Classifying Costs ..... 611
Elements of a Product ..... 612
Relationship to Production ..... 615
Relationship to Volume ..... 616
Ability to Trace ..... 622
Department Where Incurred ..... 623
Functional Areas ..... 624
Period Charge in Income ..... 625
Relationship to Planning, Controlling, and Decision Making ..... 626
Techniques for New Product Cost Estimation ..... 629
Bottom Line ..... 633
CHAPTER 20
Costing and Control of Materials, Labor, and Factory Overhead ..... 635
Materials (Stores) ..... 636
Labor ..... 641
Factory Overhead Costs ..... 646
Activity-Based Costing ..... 660
Bottom Line ..... 664
CHAPTER 21
Joh Order and Process Costing ..... 667
Comparison of Job Order and Process Cost Accumulation Systems ..... 668
Job Order Costing ..... 669
Operation Costing ..... 673
Project Costing ..... 674
Process Costing ..... 676
Backflush Costing ..... 694
Bottom Line ..... 695
Appendix: Spoiled Units, Defective Units, Scrap Material, and Waste Material in Job Order and Process Costing Systems ..... 697
CHAPTER 22
Joint Product and By-Product Costing ..... 703
Joint Products ..... 703
By-Products ..... 711
Effects of Joint Cost Allocation upon Decision Making ..... 715
Bottom Line ..... 716
CHAPTER 23
Master Budget ..... 719
Conventional Master Budget System ..... 721
Budgeted Schedules ..... 723
Budgeted Summaries ..... 740
Bottom Line ..... 744
CHAPTER 24
Standard Costing ..... 749
Actual, Normal, and Standard Costing ..... 750
Uses of Standard Costs ..... 751
Types of Standards ..... 752
Establishment of Standards ..... 753
Just-in-Time Philosophy and Cost Accounting ..... 764
Variance Analysis ..... 769
Disposition of All Variances ..... 786
Bottom Line ..... 788
CHAPTER 25
Direct and Absorption Costing ..... 791
Meaning of Direct Costing ..... 791
Direct Costing versus Absorption Costing ..... 792
Advantages of Direct Costing ..... 802
Disadvantages of Direct Costing ..... 805
Adjusting Financial Statements for External Reports ..... 807
Bottom Line ..... 807
Index ..... 809

## Preface

The role of financial executives in any business has expanded significantly in recent years as companies become more accountable to their stakeholders and regulators. Combine this increase in accountability with the increasing sophistication of technology, risk management, financial analysis, and financial records processing, and we see that the responsibilities of financial executives in any organization have expanded significantly.

Our goal with The Complete CFO Handbook is to provide financial executives with the background and tools for managing a company's financial functions. The Handbook consists of five parts, each focusing on a different dimension of the financial executives' role.

In Part One we focus on funding issues, including the capital structure decision, the choice of debt financing, equity financing issues, and structured financings. We include the traditional capital structure theory and analysis, but our focus really is on the analysis of what companies do in practice. To this end, we include coverage of:

- How the Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002 affects the responsibilities and the role of the CFO.
- The governance value of debt financing.
- Costs of financial distress.
$■$ Factors to consider when designing a bond issues.
- Alternative methods of repurchasing stock.
- Structured finance transactions.
- Credit enhancement in securitization.
- Structured notes.

In Part Two we address strategic planning, taxes, and risk management. The CFO is often playing a larger role in developing and executing the company's strategic plan, which means taking a broader view of the sources of value creation and of the company's risk management strategies. We include coverage of current issues to help the CFO better prepare for this broader view:

- Sources of value creation.
- The relation between economic value added and the balanced scorecard to strategic planning.
- Tax risk management.
- Transfer pricing and thin capitalization.
- Enterprise risk management.
- Retention risk management.
- Risk transfer management.

In Part Three we focus on performance evaluation, providing analysis tools for financial analysis that includes cash flow analysis and the analysis of budget variances. We include tools and topics to help the CFO analyze different dimensions of performance:

- DuPont system of analyzing return on investment ratios.
- Free cash flow and discretionary cash flow analysis.
- Responsibility accounting.
- Performance reports.
- Flexible budgets.
- Variance analysis.
- Transfer pricing systems and related tax issues.

In Part Four we look at asset management, which includes long-term and short-term asset management. With respect to long-term asset management, we examine traditional capital budgeting methods, including estimating cash flows and applying valuation techniques. In addition, we take a look at how capital budgeting is applied in practice. The CFO faces an array of asset management techniques and tools. To help prepare the CFO for this array, we include coverage of:

- Adjusted present value method.
- Real options applied to capital budgeting.
- Tax and non-tax-oriented leasing.
- Leveraged leasing.
- Cash conversion cycle analysis.

In Part Five we cover the traditional managerial accounting topics of classifying costs, job order costing, direct and absorption costing, and standard costing. The costing methods are fairly detailed and we have summarized the primary methods. In addition, we include coverage to help the CFO gain a perspective on these costs, including:

- The relation between costs and planning, controlling, and decision making.
- Activity-based costing.
- Process costing.
- Costing for by-products.
- Comparison of direct and absorption costing.
- JIT management and the costs of manufacturing.
- The interrelationships among the different budgets within a company.


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We wish to thank Jacob Thomas of Yale University for his helpful comments on several chapters of this book.

Frank J. Fabozzi<br>Pamela Peterson Drake<br>Ralph S. Polimeni

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# The Changing Role of the CFO: From Accounting to Accountable 


#### Abstract

JOB DESCRIPTION: Oversee financial accounting systems, reporting, and disclosures; assure compliance of financial reporting with generally accepted accounting principles and securities law accounting requirements; assure compliance with local government, federal government, and international tax laws, regulations, and rules; expert in disclosure compliance with federal and state securities laws; establish, monitor, and evaluate internal controls; work with the CEO in the development of the strategic goals and plans, execute the strategic plans, and evaluate performance relative to the strategic goals; participate in long-term and short-term budgeting; exceptional communication and team leadership skills; able to raise capital and manage the firms' capital structure to maximize the value of the company and minimize the company's cost of capital; develop, monitor, and evaluate a program of risk management; communicate with the company's Board of Directors, shareholders, creditors, and credit rating agencies; no sensitivity to the effects of kryptonite.


Many years ago, the role of the chief financial officer (CFO) was to keep the financial records, and had accounting, internal control, budgeting, and treasury responsibilities. But the role has changed over the years to be much more comprehensive and to include decision-making that extends beyond the accounting and treasury functions. The CFO of today is responsible for measuring and monitoring performance, but the CFO is also now involved in managing risk and creating value for owners.

What has caused this change? There is not just one cause; but rather several forces that have resulted in the expanded role of the CFO. In the 1990s, we saw the role expanded from financial accounting and accounting systems to include financial analysis and an active role in strategic planning. ${ }^{1}$ This expanding role is apparent in the Chief Financial Officers Act of 1990, which

[^0]specifically addressed the changing role of the CFO in federal government entities. ${ }^{2}$ In the 1980s and 1990s, with the continued globalization and technological innovations, the CFO in some companies became a starring role as a deal-maker who sought out growth opportunities for the company.

The role of the CFO widened further because of the financial scandals of the 1990s and early 2000s that included Enron, WorldCom, and, unfortunately, many more companies. The resultant changes in laws and regulations focused attention on the CFO and broadened the responsibilities of this position. This resulted in a renewed emphasis on the CFO's role in accounting and financial reporting, but also added responsibilities for restoring confidence in the integrity of the company's financial accounting, internal control systems, and risk management.

Throughout this book, we discuss the responsibilities of the CFO in an organization. We recognize that in large companies the responsibilities of the CFO may be shared with the controller, a vice-president of finance, the corporate treasurer, a chief risk officer, or some other, similarly titled individual. However, in referring to the CFO, we are referring to responsibilities of the financial officer with the ultimate responsibility for the financial decision making of a company, responsibilities that may be shared or split among persons in the organization.

## SOX ACT OF 2002 AND THE CFO

The Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002 (SOX Act) is the most wide-sweeping legislation to affect the securities industry since the Securities Act of 1933 and the Securities Exchange Act of $1934 .{ }^{3}$ The SOX Act was passed as a reaction to the failures of corporate governance that were pronounced in scandals such as Enron. ${ }^{4}$ The SOX Act affects many participants in our financial markets: investors, security analysts, corporate management, and accountants. The Act includes provisions to increase internal monitoring, regulate the gatekeepers (e.g., chief executive officer, CFO, and the board of directors), penalize insider misconduct, and increase transparency.

We summarize the key provisions of this Act in Table 1.1. The SOX Act came about following numerous financial scandals that involved publicly

[^1]
## TABLE 1.1 Key Provisions of the Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002

Title I Public Company Accounting Oversight Board

- Establishes the oversight board, as well as provides policies and procedures for registration of accounting firms. The purpose of the board is to provide oversight of auditing firms and develop standards for auditors, auditing, and auditing reports, as well as to inspect accounting firms for compliance [Sec. 101].
Title II Auditor Independence
- Prohibits most types of non-audit services of client by auditing accounting firm [Sec. 201]. Any non-audit service by an auditor must be approved by the audit committee of the client [Sec. 202].
Title III Corporate Responsibility
- Requires that members of the client's audit committee be independent (i.e., not an employee of the client or consultant or adviser other than in capacity as a member of the board of directors.) [Sec. 301].
- Requires certification of the annual and quarterly filings with the SEC by the chief financial officer and the chief executive officer, attesting to the internal controls of the firms [Sec. 302].
- Prohibits improper influence on audits [Sec. 303].
- Specifies forfeiture of bonuses and profits on securities in the event of financial restatements [Sec. 304].
- Prohibits insider trading during pension fund blackouts and requires sufficient communication to fund participants and beneficiaries in the event of a blackout period [Sec. 306].
Title IV Enhanced Financial Disclosures
- Enhances disclosure of off-balance-sheet transactions [Sec 401].
- Requires reconciliation of pro forma financial information with results according to generally accepted accounting principles [Sec. 401].
- Prohibits many types of personal loans to directors or executives [Sec. 402].
- Increases disclosure requirements for transactions with directors, executives, and principal shareholders [Sec. 403].
- Requires disclosure of whether the firm has a code of ethics for financial officers [Sec. 406].
- Requires disclosure of whether there is at least one financial expert on the audit committee [Sec. 407].
Title V Analyst Conflicts of Interest
- Increases the independence of analysts and investment banking activities and requires disclosure of potential conflicts of interest of analysts [Sec. 501].

traded corporations, accountants, investment bankers, and brokers, with most of the provisions of the SOX Act traceable to specific misdeeds. For example, the provision for the reimbursement of bonuses prevents lucrative exits of executives from companies that were involved in accounting misstatements, such as those that occurred at Gateway. ${ }^{5}$ As another example, the provision for the independence of the audit committee members from management of the company prevents management from participating in the dealings with auditors, which was a problem in the case of Adelphia Communications. ${ }^{6}$

The provisions of SOX 2002 that directly affect the CFO include the following:

- Section 206: This section reduces potential conflicts of interest by making it unlawful for a CFO, CEO, controller, or equivalent officer to have
${ }^{5}$ Securities and Exchange Commission v. John J. Todd, Robert D. Manza, and Jeffrey Weitzen, Complaint for Violations of the Federal Securities Laws.
${ }^{6}$ Adelphia's audit committee at the end of 1999 comprised three members: Perry Patterson, Pete J. Metros, and Timothy J. Rigas, and was charged with the responsibility of monitoring and financial reporting for investors and the board of directors (Adelphia Communications Corporation Definitive Proxy Statement, Schedule 14A, filed July 7, 2000). However, Rigas was the company's executive vice president, CFO, chief accounting officer, and treasurer, which means that he was responsible for monitoring himself.
been employed by the independent public accounting firm and have participated in the audit of the company within one year of the audit. ${ }^{7}$
- Section 302: This section requires the CEO and CFO, or equivalent officers, to certify annual and quarterly reports and, in signing, they are responsible for the establishment and maintenance of internal controls. By certifying, they are also attesting to have reported any deficiencies to the auditors and the Audit Committee of the Board of Directors.
- Section 304: This section permits the Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) to sue for forfeiture of any incentive-based, equity-based, or other bonus compensation of management in the event of a restatement of financial statements due to noncompliance. This provision deters management from manipulating reported financial accounting results for personal benefit. ${ }^{8}$
- Section 401: This section requires that periodic financial reports not only be presented accurately but be presented in a manner that includes incorrect statements or fails to state material information. It also requires that the issuer disclose material off-balance sheet transactions, ${ }^{9}$ contingent obligations, and other relationships between the issuer with unconsolidated entities such as special-purpose entities. ${ }^{10}$
- Section 404: This section requires disclosure of management assessment of internal controls and independent public accounting firm attestation of management's assessment. The requirement of reporting on internal controls imposed substantial startup costs on companies. More important, however, is the fact that this section creates a liability risk that is borne by the CEO and CFO. That is, the auditing firm and the executives signing off on the internal control report bear the liability for any failing in the internal control system. ${ }^{11}$
- Section 409: This section requires real-time, plain-English disclosures of material changes in the company's operations or financial condition. The effect of this is (1) an expansion of the number of events that require a company filing a Form $8-\mathrm{K}$ under the Securities and Exchange

[^2]Act of 1934 from 9 to 22, and (2) a shortening of the deadline to four business days. ${ }^{12}$

- Section 906: This section requires certifications of audit reports by CEO and CFO with respect to compliance with securities laws and that the information represents fairly the financial condition and operating performance of the company. Criminal penalties are possible for certifications when in noncompliance.


## EXPANDED RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE CFO

The broadening of responsibilities of the CFO has made this role less of a reactive, purely financial function, and more of a proactive role in the company's future, participating in many dimensions of the company's deci-sion-making.

Traditionally, the CFO's responsibility related to accounting and treasury tasks. The traditional accounting functions included budgeting, forecasting, financial reporting, and performance measurement. Therefore, the CFO must be familiar with financial accounting, management accounting, and budgeting, and have an ability to communicate this information internally, as well as to creditors, shareholders, and others. The traditional treasury functions include capital structure decisions and investment decisions. Investment decisions include both working capital management as well as long-term capital investment, and require the CFO to be well versed in valuation principles.

The expansion in the role of the CFO includes compliance, risk management, communications, and performance evaluation. This expansion adds to the complexity of the role of the CFO, requiring an expanded knowledge of laws, rules, and regulations, an understanding of risk and the ability to communicate risk both internally and externally, and an ability to evaluate performance, using such tools as the balanced scorecard, economic value added, and other metrics. We illustrate the nexus of CFO responsibilities in Figure 1.1.

## Compliance: Tax, Legal, and Regulatory

The compliance obligations of the CFO become more complicated as laws, regulations, and rules are created or change. For example, the CFO is re-

[^3]FIGURE 1.1 The CFO's Responsibilities

sponsible for expertise in laws, regulations, and rules that affect financial reporting, risk management, and the management of internal controls. The laws, regulations, and rules that the CFO must be familiar with include:

- Securities and Exchange Commission reporting requirements and regulations.
- Compliance with Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002.
- U.S. and international generally accepted accounting principles (GAAP).
- Internal Revenue Service reporting requirements and regulations.
- Compliance with U.S. Foreign Corrupt Practices Act (FCPA). ${ }^{13}$

Additionally, depending on the type of business, other laws and regulations may be relevant. These laws, regulations, and rules are all part of the responsibilities of the CFO, though many of these responsibilities may be shared with the controller.

[^4]Additionally, the CFO must be aware of the changes that are on the horizon to effectively plan and forecast. For example, U.S. accounting standards are converging with International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) as the Financial Accounting Standards Board and the International Accounting Standards Committee (IASC) work out the differences in these standards. These changes in accounting standards affect financial reporting and may affect financial decisions. As another example, securities laws are tightening in a reactive manner to financial or accounting misdeeds and the CFO must grapple with the implications of these changes to financial disclosures and financial planning.

## Communications

The CFO's role in company communications has changed such that the CFO is now an important player in communicating with the company's stakehold-ers-the creditors, shareholders, and others-not only the financial condition and operating performance of the company, but the risks and strategies of the company. The increased demand for transparency has expanded the type of information disclosed and the method of disclosure. Companies are now required to make real-time disclosures of material company events, which increases the pressure to provide accurate, current information. A number of the disclosures that U.S. publicly traded companies must make are summarized in Table 1.2.

The acceleration of the speed of disclosures began with Regulation FD. In an attempt to "level the playing field," the Securities and Exchange Commission in 2000 adopted new rules regarding selective disclosure. ${ }^{14}$ These rules, in the form of the Fair Disclosure regulation (Regulation FD), require that if a publicly traded company or anyone acting on its behalf makes material, nonpublic information available to certain persons, the company must make a public disclosure of this information. All intentional disclosures are simultaneously to the public-not filtered through analysts, which was the previous custom. Now, if someone makes an unintentional disclosure, the company is required to make a prompt, public disclosure of the information. Regulation FD, combined with the real-time disclosures required under the new rules for 8 -K filings due to the SOX Act of 2002, creates pressure on the CFO to be both fast and accurate. ${ }^{15}$

[^5]
[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Practice of Management Accounting, Institute of Management Accountants (Montvale, NJ, 1996), and Reinventing the CFO: Moving from Financial Management to Strategic Management, Coopers and Lybrand (New York, 1997).

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ The role of the CFO, as expressed in the Chief Financial Officers Act of 1990 [Public Law 101-576], was expanded by the Government Management Reform Act of 1994 [Public Law 103-356].
    ${ }^{3}$ Public Law 107-204, July 30, 2002.
    ${ }^{4}$ For an overview of the failures in the case of Enron, see William C. Powers, Jr., Raymond S. Troubh, and Herbert S. Winokur, Jr., Report of Investigation by the Special Investigative Committee of the Board of Directors of Enron Corp. (February 1, 2002), 2002 WL 198018 ("Powers Report").

[^2]:    ${ }^{7}$ Amendment to Section 10A of the Securities and Exchange Act of 1934.
    ${ }^{8}$ However, as determined in the courts, this is a disgorgement action that must be brought by the SEC, not private parties [Neer v. Pelino, No. 04-CV-04791-SD (E.D. Pa. September 27, 2005)].
    ${ }^{9}$ We discuss off-balance-sheet transactions in Chapter 3.
    ${ }^{10}$ We discuss special-purpose entities in Chapter 5. Enron used these entities to create misleading financial statements.
    ${ }^{11}$ This increased liability risk may affect the risk-taking behavior of these executives, as suggested by Daniel A. Cohen, Aiyesha Day, and Thomas Lys, "The Sarbanes Oxley Act of 2002: Implications for Compensation Structure and Risk-Taking Incentives of CEOs," Working paper, July 8, 2005.

[^3]:    ${ }^{12}$ Final Rule: Additional Form 8-K Disclosure Requirements and Acceleration of Filing Date, Securities and Exchange Commission [17 CFR Parts 228, 229, 230, 239, 240, and 249, RIN 3235-AI47].

[^4]:    ${ }^{13}$ Some of the challenges imposed by this law and the interaction with SOX Act of 2002 are in Tom Leander, "In China, You Better Watch Out," CFO Asia, March 20, 2006.

[^5]:    ${ }^{14}$ Securities and Exchange Commission, RIN 3235-AH82, "Selective Disclosure and Insider Trading," effective October 23, 2000.
    ${ }^{15}$ The significance of the communications and compliance burdens on the CFO is evident in recent surveys of CFOs. See, for example, Stephen Taub, "Survey: Sarbanes-Oxley Making CFO Job Tougher," CFO.com, March 10, 2003, based on a survey by Deloitte Consulting and BusinessWeek.

