

## WACC and APV



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1

## The Big Picture: Part II - Valuation

### A. Valuation: Free Cash Flow and Risk

- |           |                                       |
|-----------|---------------------------------------|
| • April 1 | Lecture: Valuation of Free Cash Flows |
| • April 3 | Case: Ameritrade                      |

### B. Valuation: WACC and APV

- |            |                         |
|------------|-------------------------|
| • April 8  | Lecture: WACC and APV   |
| • April 10 | Case: Dixon Corporation |
| • April 15 | Case: Diamond Chemicals |

### C. Project and Company Valuation

- |            |                                 |
|------------|---------------------------------|
| • April 17 | Lecture: Real Options           |
| • April 24 | Case: MW Petroleum Corporation  |
| • April 29 | Lecture: Valuing a Company      |
| • May 1    | Case: Cooper Industries, Inc.   |
| • May 6    | Case: The Southland Corporation |



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2

## What Next?

- We need to incorporate the effects of financial policy into our valuation models.  
⇒ Question: How do we incorporate debt tax shields (if any) into our valuation?

3



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## Two Approaches:

- **Weighted Average Cost of Capital (WACC):**  
→ Discount the FCF using the weighted average of after-tax debt costs and equity costs

$$WACC = k_D(1-t) \frac{D}{D+E} + k_E \frac{E}{D+E}$$

- **Adjusted Present Value (APV):**  
→ Value the project as if it were all-equity financed  
→ Add the PV of the **tax shield** of debt and other side effects

Recall: **Free Cash Flows** are cash flows available to be paid to all capital suppliers ignoring interest rate tax shields (i.e., as if the project were 100% equity financed).



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4

## WACC



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### Weighted Average Cost of Capital (WACC)

- Step 1: Generate the Free Cash Flows (FCFs)
- Step 2: Discount the FCFs using the WACC

$$WACC = k_D(1-t) \frac{D}{D+E} + k_E \frac{E}{D+E}$$



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## **WARNING!!!**

- The common intuition for using WACC is:
  - “To be valuable, a project should return more than what it costs us to raise the necessary financing, i.e., our WACC”
  - This intuition is wrong.
- Using WACC this way is OK sometimes... but “by accident”.
- Most of the time, it is plain wrong:
  - conceptually, i.e., the logic is flawed
  - practically, i.e. gives you a result far off the mark

**Discount rates and hence the WACC are project specific!**



## **Weighted Average Cost of Capital (WACC)**

- **Discount rates are project-specific**

==> Imagine the project is a stand alone, financed as a separate firm.

==> The WACC inputs should be project-specific as well:

$$\text{WACC} = k_D(1-t) \frac{D}{D+E} + k_E \frac{E}{D+E}$$

- Let's look at each WACC input in turn:



## Leverage Ratio D/(D+E)

- $D/(D+E)$  should be the target capital structure (in market values) for the particular project under consideration.
- Common mistake 1:
  - Using a priori  $D/(D+E)$  of the firm undertaking the project.
- Common mistake 2:
  - Use  $D/(D+E)$  of the project's financing
  - Example: Using 100% if project is all debt financed.

Caveat: We will assume that the target for A+B is the result of combining target for A and target for B. It's OK most of the time.



## Leverage Ratio (cont.)

- So how do we get that “target leverage ratio”?
- Use comparables to the project:
  - “Pure plays” in the same business as the project
  - Trade-off: Number vs. “quality” of comps
- Use the firm undertaking the project if the project is very much like the rest of the firm (i.e. if the firm is a comp for the project).
- Introspection, improved by checklist,...



## Important Remark:

- If the project maintains a relatively stable D/V over time, then WACC is also stable over time.
- If not, then WACC should vary over time as well and we should compute a different WACC for each year.
- In practice, firms tend to use a constant WACC.
- So, in practice, the WACC method does not work well when the capital structure is expected to vary substantially over time.



## Cost of Debt Capital: $k_D$ (cont.)

- Can often look it up: Should be close to the interest rate that lenders would charge to finance the project with the chosen capital structure.
- Caveat: Cannot use the interest rate as an estimate of  $k_D$  when:
  - Debt is very risky. We would need default probabilities to estimate expected cash flows.
  - If there are different layers of debt. We would need to calculate the average interest rate.



## Marginal Tax Rate: $t$

- It's the marginal tax rate of the firm undertaking the project (or to be more precise, of the firm including the project).
- Note that this is the rate that is going to determine the tax savings associated with debt.
- We need to use the marginal as opposed to average tax rate  $t$ .  
→ In practice, the marginal rate is often not easily observable.



## Cost of Equity Capital: $k_E$

- Cannot look it up directly.
- Need to estimate  $k_E$  from comparables to the project:  
→ "Pure Plays", i.e. firms operating only in the project's industry.  
→ If the firm undertaking the project is itself a pure play in the project's industry, can simply use the  $k_E$  of the firm.
- Problem:  
→ A firm's capital structure has an impact on  $k_E$   
→ Unless we have comparables with same capital structure, we need to work on their  $k_E$  before using it.



## Using CAPM to Estimate $k_E$

- 1) Finds comps for the project under consideration.
- 2) **Unlever** each comp's  $\beta_E$  (**using the comp's D/(D+E)**) to estimate its  $\beta_A$ . When its debt is not too risky (and its D/V is stable), we can use:

$$\beta_A = \beta_E \frac{E}{E+D}$$

- 3) Use the comps'  $\beta_A$  to estimate the project's  $\beta_A$  (e.g. take the average).
- 4) **Relever** the project's estimated  $\beta_A$  (**using the project's D/(D+E)**) to estimate its  $\beta_E$  under the assumed capital structure. When the project's debt is not too risky (and provided its D/V is stable), we can use:

$$\beta_E = \frac{E+D}{E} \beta_A = \left[ 1 + \frac{D}{E} \right] \beta_A$$

- 5) Use the estimated  $\beta_E$  to calculate the project's cost of equity  $k_E$ :  
$$k_E = r_f + \beta_E * \text{Market Risk Premium}$$



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15

## Remarks on Unlevering and Relevering:

- Formulas:  
→ Relevering formulas are reversed unlevering formulas.
- Procedure:  
→ Unlever each comp, i.e., one unlevering per comp.  
→ Estimate one  $\beta_A$  by taking the average over all comps'  $\beta_A$  possibly putting more weight on those we like best.  
→ This is our estimate of the project's  $\beta_A$ .  
→ Relever that  $\beta_A$ .
- In the course, we use mostly the formula for a constant D/(D+E).



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16

## More on Business Risk and Financial Risk

$$\beta_A = \beta_E \frac{E}{E+D} \Leftrightarrow \beta_E = \left(1 + \frac{D}{E}\right) \times \beta_A \Leftrightarrow \beta_E - \beta_A = \frac{D}{E} \times \beta_A$$

- Comparable firms have similar **Business Risk**  
==> Similar asset beta  $\beta_A$  and, consequently, similar unlevered cost of capital  $k_A$
- Comparable firms can have different **Financial Risk** (different  $\beta_E - \beta_A$ ) if they have different capital structures  
==> Different equity beta  $\beta_E$  and thus different required return on equity  $k_E$
- In general, equity beta  $\beta_E$  increases with D/E  
→ Consequently the cost of equity  $k_E$  increases with leverage.



## Business Risk and Financial Risk: Intuition

- Consider a project with  $\beta_A > 0$
- Its cash flows can be decomposed into:
  - Safe cash-flows
  - Risky cash-flows that are positively correlated with the market.
- As the level of debt increases (but remains relatively safe):
  - A larger part of the safe cash-flows goes to debtholders;
  - The residual left to equityholders is increasingly correlated with the market.

**Note:** If cash-flows were negatively correlated with the market ( $\beta_A < 0$ ), increasing debt would make equity more negatively correlated with the market and would reduce the required return on equity.



## WACC – A simple example:

You are evaluating a new project. The project requires an initial outlay of \$100 million and you forecast before-tax profits of \$25 million in perpetuity. The marginal tax rate is 40%, the project has a target debt-to-value ratio of 25%, the interest rate on the project's debt is 7%, and the cost of equity is 12%.

$$\text{After-tax CFs} = \$25 \times 0.60 = \$15 \text{ million}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{After-tax WACC} &= D/V * (1-t) * r_d + E/V * r_e \\ &= 0.25 \times 0.60 \times 0.07 + 0.75 \times 0.12 = 10.05\%\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{NPV} = -100 + 15 / 0.1005 = \$49.25 \text{ million}$$



## How Firms Tend to Use WACC:

They calculate their WACC using:

- Their current cost of debt  $k_D$
- Their own current capital structure  $D/(D+E)$
- Their own current cost of equity capital  $k_E$
- The marginal tax rate they are facing

They discount all future FCF with:

- this (single) discount rate
- maybe adjusted for other things (e.g., project's "strategic value")

⇒ This practical approach can be very misleading, especially if the new project is very different from the firm undertaking it.



## Selected Industry Capital Structures, Betas, and WACCs

Industry	Debt ratio (%)	Equity beta	Asset beta	WACC (%)
Electric and Gas	43.2	0.58	0.33	8.1%
Food production	22.90	0.85	0.66	11.0%
Paper and plastic	30.40	1.03	0.72	11.4%
Equipment	19.10	1.02	0.83	12.4%
Retailers	21.70	1.19	0.93	13.2%
Chemicals	17.30	1.34	1.11	14.7%
Computer software	3.50	1.33	1.28	16.2%
Average of all industries	21.50	1.04	0.82	12.3%

Assumptions: Risk-free rate 6%; market risk premium 8%; cost of debt 7.5%; tax rate 35%

21

## APV



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## Adjusted Present Value

- Separates the effects of financial structure on value from the estimation of asset values.
- **Step 1:** Value the project or firm as if it were 100% equity financed.
- **Step 2:** Add the value of the tax shield of debt.

Note:

- This is simply applying MM-Theorem with taxes
- APV = Valuation by Components = ANPV



## Step 1: Value as if 100% Equity Financed

- Cash-flows: Free Cash Flows are exactly what you need.
- You need the rate that would be appropriate to discount the firm's cash flows if the firm were 100% equity financed.
- This rate is the expected return on equity if the firm were 100% equity financed.
- To get it, you need to:
  - Find comps, i.e., publicly traded firms in same business.
  - Estimate their expected return on equity if they were 100% equity financed.



## Step1: Value if 100% Equity Financed (cont.)

- Unlever each comp's  $\beta_E$  to estimate its asset beta (or all equity or unlevered beta)  $\beta_A$  using the appropriate unlevering formula

$$\beta_A = \beta_E \frac{E}{E+D} \quad \text{or} \quad \beta_A = \beta_E \frac{E}{E+(1-t)D}$$

- Use the comps'  $\beta_A$  to estimate the project's  $\beta_A$  (e.g. average).
- Use the estimated  $\beta_A$  to calculate the all-equity cost of capital  $k_A$

$$k_A = r_f + \beta_A * \text{Market Risk Premium}$$

- Use  $k_A$  to discount the project's FCF



## Step 2: Add PV(Tax Shield of Debt)

- Cash-flow: The expected tax saving is  $tk_D D$  where  $k_D$  is the cost of debt capital (discussed earlier).
- If  $D$  is expected to remain stable, then discount  $tk_D D$  using  $k_D$   
$$\text{PVTS} = tk_D D / k_D = tD$$
- If  $D/V$  is expected to remain stable, then discount  $tk_D D$  using  $k_A$   
$$\text{PVTS} = tk_D D / k_A$$
- Intuition:
  - If  $D/V$  is constant,  $D$  ( $tk_D D$ ) and thus moves up/down with  $V$
  - The risk of  $tk_D D$  is similar to that of the firm's assets: use  $k_A$



## Step 2: Add PVTS (cont.)

- For many projects, neither D nor D/V is expected to be stable.
- For instance, LBO debt levels are expected to decline.
- In general you can estimate debt levels using:
  - repayment schedule if one is available,
  - financial forecastingand discount by a rate between  $k_D$  and  $k_A$ .

27



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## Extending the APV Method

- One good feature of the APV method is that it is easy to extend to take other effects of financing into account.
- For instance, one can value an interest rate subsidy separately as the PV of interest savings.

$$APV = NPV(\text{all-equity}) + PV(\text{Tax Shield}) + PV(\text{other stuff})$$

28



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## WACC vs. APV

**Pros of WACC:** Most widely used

- Less computations needed (important before computers).
- More literal, easier to understand and explain (?)

**Cons of WACC:**

- Mixes up effects of assets and liabilities. Errors/approximations in effect of liabilities contaminate the whole valuation.
- Not very flexible: What if debt is risky? Cost of hybrid securities (e.g., convertibles)? Other effects of financing (e.g., costs of distress)? Non-constant debt ratios? Personal taxes?

Note: For non-constant debt ratios, could use different WACC for each year (see appendix) but this is heavy and defeats the purpose.



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29

## WACC vs. APV (cont.)

**Advantages of APV:**

- No contamination.
- Clearer: Easier to track down where value comes from.
- More flexible: Just add other effects as separate terms.

**Cons of APV:**

- Almost nobody uses it.

**Overall:**

- For complex, changing or highly leveraged capital structure (e.g., LBO), APV is much better.
- Otherwise, it doesn't matter much which method you use.



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30

## Appendix I - Relation to MM Theorem



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### Relation to MM Theorem

- Without taxes, WACC is independent of leverage.
- Indeed, for simplicity, think in terms of CAPM (although the result does not rely on CAPM being true).

$$\begin{aligned} \text{WACC} &= k_D \frac{D}{D+E} + k_E \frac{E}{D+E} \\ &= [r_f + \beta_D \cdot \text{Mkt Prem.}] \frac{D}{D+E} + [r_f + \beta_E \cdot \text{Mkt Prem.}] \frac{E}{D+E} \\ &= r_f + \left[ \beta_D \frac{D}{D+E} + \beta_E \frac{E}{D+E} \right] \cdot \text{Mkt Prem.} \\ &= r_f + \beta_A \cdot \text{Mkt Prem.} \end{aligned}$$

- The last expression does not contain leverage – WACC does not depend on it.



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## The WACC Fallacy (Revisited)

- The cost of debt is lower than the cost of equity (true).
- Does this mean that projects should be financed with debt?  
$$WACC = k_D \frac{D}{D+E} + k_E \frac{E}{D+E}$$
- No: WACC is independent
- As you are tapping into cheap debt, you are increasing the cost of equity (its financial risk increases).



## Without taxes, WACC is independent of leverage:

