

# Artificial Intelligence (AI) for Investments

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# Lesson 8: Cost of Capital

# Introduction

In this lesson we will cover the following topics:

- Introduction Company and Project Cost of Capital
- Computing Company Cost of Capital
- Estimating the components of WACC
- Analyzing Project Risk
- Certainty Equivalents
- Summary and concluding remarks

# Company and Project Cost of Capital

# Company and Project Cost of Capital

- Company cost of capital is defined as the expected return on a portfolio of all the company's existing securities
  - It is the opportunity cost of capital for investment in the firm's assets
  - If the firm has no debt outstanding, then the company cost of capital is just the expected rate of return on the firm's stock
  - The company cost of capital is not the correct discount rate if the new projects are more or less risky than the firm's existing business
  - $Firm\ Value = PV(AB) = PV(A) + PV(B)$
  - The two discount rates will, in general, be different

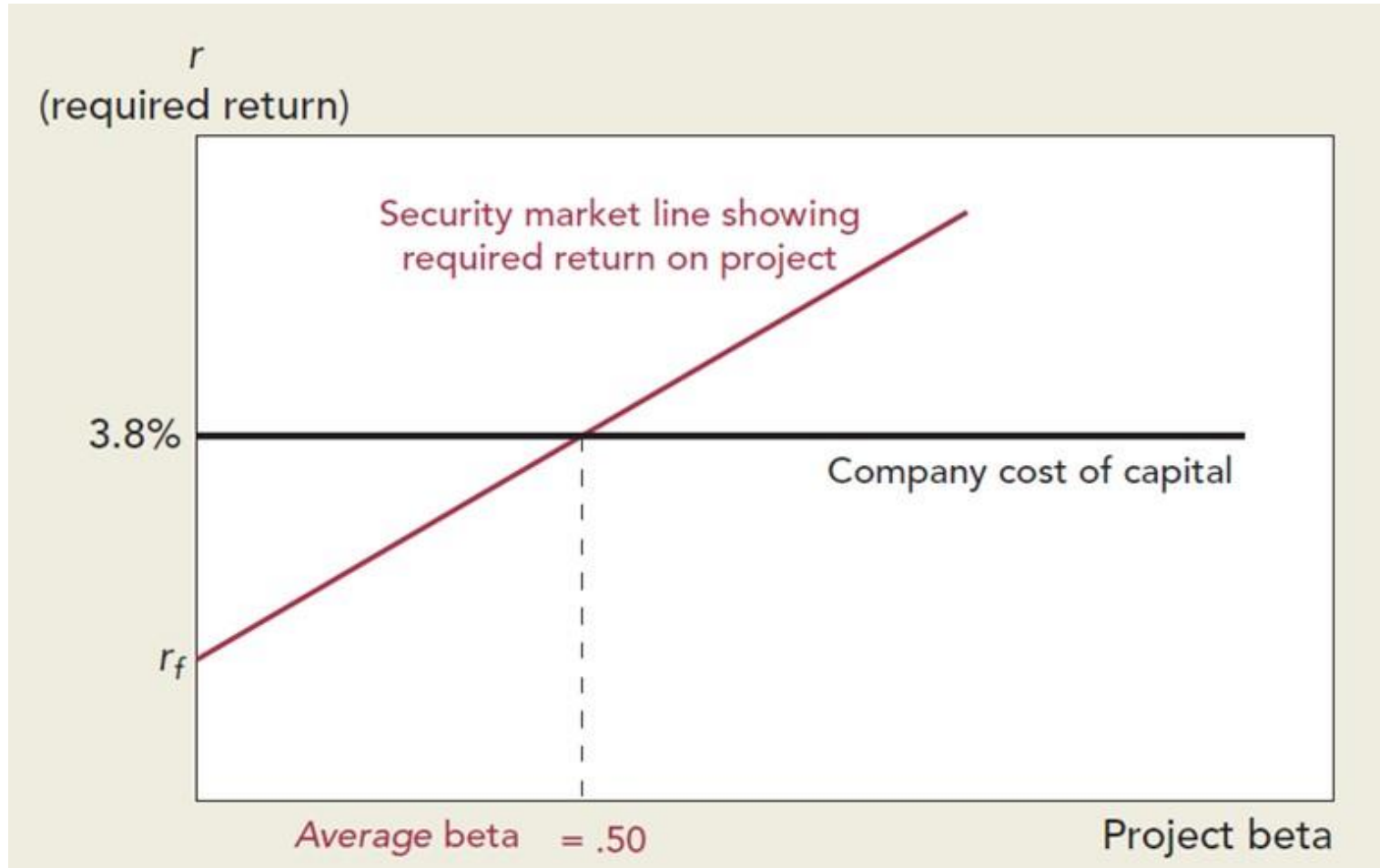
# Company and Project Cost of Capital

- If the present value of an asset depended on the identity of the company that bought it, present values would not add up
  - Consider a portfolio of \$1 million invested in firm A and \$1 million invested in firm B
  - If the firm considers investing in a third project C, it should also value C as if C were a mini-firm
  - The opportunity cost of capital depends on the use to which that capital is put
  - A new division with different risk profile, considerable uncertainty and customer demand that is yet to be established, should of course have different cost of capital

# Company and Project Cost of Capital

- Suppose we measure the risk of each project by its beta
  - Then a firm should accept any project lying above the upward-sloping security market line that links expected return to risk
  - If the project is high-risk, the firm needs a higher prospective return than if the project is low-risk
  - That is different from the company cost of capital rule, which accepts any project regardless of its risk as long as it offers a higher return than the company's cost of capital

# Company and Project Cost of Capital





# Company and Project Cost of Capital

- The true cost of capital depends on project risk, not on the company undertaking the project
  - Why is so much time spent estimating the company cost of capital?
  - First, many (maybe most) projects can be treated as average risk
  - Second, the company cost of capital is a useful starting point for setting discount rates for unusually risky or safe projects
  - It is easier to add to, or subtract from, the company cost of capital

# Company and Project Cost of Capital

- Businesspeople have good intuition about relative risks
  - They set a companywide cost of capital as a benchmark
  - Many large companies use the company cost of capital not just as a benchmark, but also as an all-purpose discount rate for every project proposal
  - Measuring differences in risk is difficult to do objectively
  - Top management may demand extra- conservative cash-flow forecasts from extra-risky projects
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# Computing Company Cost of Capital

# Computing Company Cost of Capital

- Company cost of capital is the expected return on a portfolio of all the company's existing securities
  - The portfolio of company security usually includes debt as well as equity
  - Thus the cost of capital is estimated as a blend of the cost of debt

Asset value	100	Debt	$D = 30$ at 7.5%
		Equity	$E = 70$ at 15%
Asset value	100	Firm value	$V = 100$

- The values of debt and equity add up to overall firm value

# Computing Company Cost of Capital

- The company cost of capital is not equal to the cost of debt or to the cost of equity but is a blend of the two
  - Suppose you purchased a portfolio consisting of 100% of the firm's debt and 100% of its equity
  - The expected rate of return on your hypothetical portfolio is the company cost of capital
  - The expected rate of return is just a weighted average of the cost of debt ( $r_D = 7.5\%$ ) and the cost of equity ( $r_E = 15\%$ )
  - The weights are the relative market values of the firm's debt and equity, that is,  $D/V = 30\%$  and  $E/V = 70\%$

# Computing Company Cost of Capital

- The company cost of capital is not equal to the cost of debt or to the cost of equity but is a blend of the two
  - The marginal corporate tax rate  $T_c = 35\%$
  - WACC or Company cost of capital =  $r_D * (1 - T_c) * \frac{D}{V} + r_E * \frac{E}{V} = 7.5\% * (1 - 0.35) * 0.30 + 15 * 0.70 = 12.00\%$
  - This blended measure of the company cost of capital is called the weighted-average cost of capital or WACC

# Estimating the components of WACC

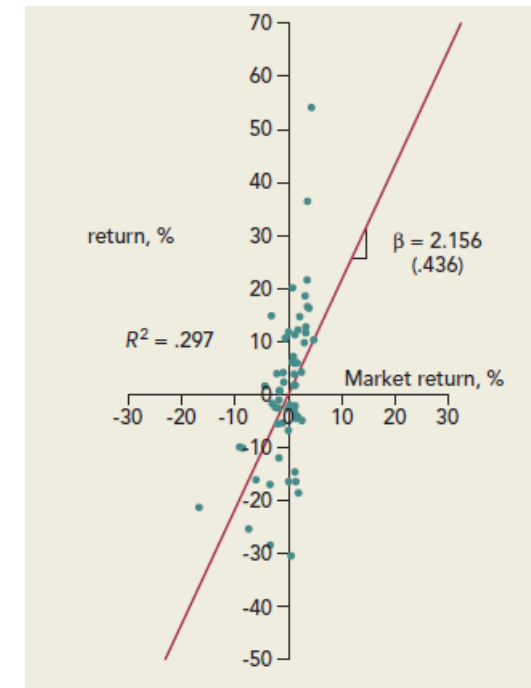
# Estimating the components of WACC

- To calculate the weighted-average cost of capital, you need an estimate of the cost of equity
  - We will use the capital asset pricing model (CAPM) to estimate the cost of equity
  - CAPM: *Expected Returns*  $= r_f + \beta(r_m - r_f)$
  - In principle we are interested in the future beta of the company's stock
  - We will estimate beta using historical security price data



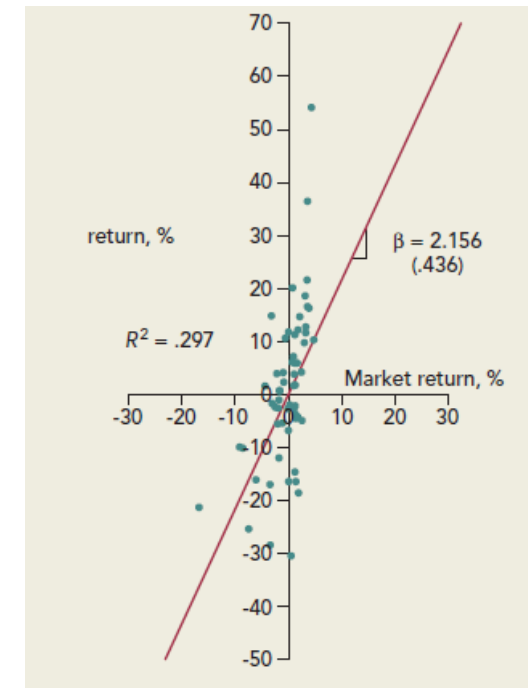
# Estimating the components of WACC

- In the scatter diagram shown here, each dot represents the return on a security and return on market
  - The slope of fitted line is called beta
  - The R-square measure tells the proportion of total variance that can be explained by market variance
  - It appears that 29.7% of the variance was explained by the market
  - The 95% confidence interval estimate of beta is 2.16



# Estimating the components of WACC

- In the scatter diagram shown here, each dot represents the return on a security and return on market
  - Standard error of the estimated beta is computed to show the extent of possible mismeasurement
  - Standard error of beta estimate is 0.436
  - The 95% confidence interval estimate 2.16 plus or minus  $2 \times 0.436$
  - That is, you have 95% chance of being right in saying that beta can fall in this interval



# Estimating the components of WACC

- How to estimate the risk-free rate of interest ( $r_f$ )
  - Should we use short-term treasury bill rate, daily over night rate, monthly rate, one year interest rate or long-term interest rates
  - CAPM is a short-term model
  - It works period by period and calls for a short-term interest rate
  - Could a .2% three-month risk-free rate give the right discount rate for cash flows 10 or 20 years in the future?

# Estimating the components of WACC

- How to estimate the risk-free rate of interest ( $r_f$ )
  - Financial managers can simply use a long-term risk-free rate in the CAPM formula
  - Or, they can compute the term premia (for investing in long-term government bonds – T-Bills) = 1.5%
  - The difference in current Govt. bond yields (e.g., 3.3%) and this term premia reflects that short-term T-Bill rates =  $3.3\% - 1.5\% = 1.8\%$
  - If the market risk-premium is 7%, beta is 1.16, then the cost of equity can be computed as follows. *Cost of equity = Expected Returns* =  $r_f + \beta(r_m - r_f) = 1.8 + 1.16 * 7.0 = 9.9\%$

# Estimating the components of WACC

- Estimating cost of equity and WACC
  - If the market risk-premium is 7%, beta is 1.16, then the cost of equity can be computed as follows. *Cost of equity = Expected Returns*  $= r_f + \beta(r_m - r_f) = 1.8 + 1.16 * 7.0 = 9.9\%$
  - Let us calculate the WACC for a firm with cost of Debt of about 7.8%, corporate tax-rate of 35%, and debt ratio (D/V) of 31.5%.
  - *After Tax WACC*  $= (1 - T_C) * r_D * \frac{D}{V} + r_E * \frac{E}{V} = (1 - 0.35) * 7.8 * 0.315 + 9.9 * 0.685 = 8.4\%$

# Estimating the components of WACC

- The cost of debt is always less than the cost of equity
  - The WACC formula blends the two costs: Debt and Equity
  - As the debt ratio  $D/V$  increases, the cost of the remaining equity also increases
  - This offsets offsetting the apparent advantage of more cheap debt
  - Debt does have a tax advantage, however, because interest is a tax-deductible expense

# Estimating the components of WACC

- The after-tax WACC depends on the average risk of the company's assets, but it also depends on taxes and financing
  - It's easier to think about project risk if you measure it directly
  - As the debt ratio  $D/V$  increases, the cost of the remaining equity also increases
  - We calculate the asset beta as a blend of the separate betas of debt ( $\beta_D$ ) and equity ( $\beta_E$ )
- For example, let us consider a security with  $\beta_E=1.16$  and  $\beta_D = 0.3$ . The weights are the fractions of debt and equity financing,  $D/V= .315$  and  $E/V=.685$

# Estimating the components of WACC

- The after-tax WACC depends on the average risk of the company's assets, but it also depends on taxes and financing
  - For example, let us consider a security with  $\beta_E=1.16$  and  $\beta_D = 0.3$ . The weights are the fractions of debt and equity financing,  $D/V= .315$  and  $E/V = .685$
  - Asset beta=  $\beta_A= \beta_D * \left(\frac{D}{V}\right) + \beta_E * \left(\frac{E}{V}\right) = 0.3 * 0.315 + 1.16 * 0.685 = 0.89$
  - Calculating an asset beta is similar to calculating a weighted-average cost of capital
  - This asset beta is an estimate of the average risk of the firm's business



# Analyzing Project Risk

# Analyzing Project Risk

- Suppose that a coal-mining corporation wants to assess the risk of investing in commercial real estate
  - The asset beta for coal mining is not helpful
  - You need to know the beta of real estate
  - A company that wants to set a cost of capital for one particular line of business typically looks for pure plays in that line of business
  - Pure-play companies are public firms that specialize in one activity

# Analyzing Project Risk

- Schlumberger wants to set a cost of capital for its new Oil exploration venture
  - It could estimate the average asset beta or cost of capital for Oil and Gas firms that have not diversified into multiple business lines (e.g., Reliance)
  - They should not consider Reliance group as it would have multiple companies in different groups
  - ONGC would be a pure-play and suitable for estimating the cost of capital
  - Many times good comparable pure plays are not available, then we go for asset betas

# Analyzing Project Risk

- What determines asset betas?
  - **Cyclical**: What is the strength of the relationship between the firm's earnings and aggregate market earnings
  - We can measure this either by the earnings beta or by the cash-flow beta
  - Cyclical firms—firms whose revenues and earnings are strongly dependent on the state of the business cycle—tend to be high-beta firms
  - Cyclical businesses include airlines, luxury resorts and restaurants, construction, and steel

# Analyzing Project Risk

- What determines asset betas?
  - **Operating Leverage:** A production facility with high fixed costs, relative to variable costs, is said to have high operating leverage
  - High operating leverage means a high asset beta
  - Cash flow = revenue - fixed cost - variable cost
  - Fixed costs are cash outflows that occur regardless of whether the asset is active or idle
  - $PV(\text{asset}) = PV(\text{revenue}) - PV(\text{fixed cost}) - PV(\text{variable cost})$

# Analyzing Project Risk

- What determines asset betas?
  - Operating Leverage:  $PV(\text{revenue}) = PV(\text{fixed cost}) + PV(\text{variable cost}) + PV(\text{Asset})$
  - $$\beta_{\text{revenue}} = \beta_{\text{fixedcost}} * \frac{PV(\text{fixedcost})}{PV(\text{Revenue})} + \beta_{\text{variablecost}} * \frac{PV(\text{variablecost})}{PV(\text{Revenue})} + \beta_{\text{asset}} * \frac{PV(\text{variable})}{PV(\text{Revenue})}$$
  - $$\beta_{\text{asset}} = \beta_{\text{revenue}} * \left[ \frac{PV(\text{revenue}) - PV(\text{variablecost})}{PV(\text{Asset})} + \frac{PV(\text{fixedcost})}{PV(\text{Asset})} \right] = \beta_{\text{revenue}} \left[ 1 + \frac{PV(\text{fixedcost})}{PV(\text{Asset})} \right]$$
  - Given the cyclicity of revenues ( $\beta_{\text{revenue}}$ ), the asset beta ( $\beta_{\text{asset}}$ ) is proportional to the ratio of the present value of fixed costs to the present value of the project

# Analyzing Project Risk

- What determines asset betas?
  - Don't Be Fooled by Diversifiable Risk
  - In everyday usage, “risk” simply means “bad outcome”
  - People think of the risks of a project as a list of things that can go wrong
  - Risks such as a pharma-company finding side-effects of a new drug are diversifiable risks
  - Thus, these hazards should not affect the discount rates

# Analyzing Project Risk

- Sometimes financial managers increase discount rates in an attempt to offset these risks
  - Consider a project Z that produces just one cash flow, forecasted at \$1 million at year 1
  - $PV = \frac{C_1}{1+r} = \frac{1000000}{1.1} = 909,100$
  - Company discovers a small hazard, which may cause a small chance that project will have zero cash flow
  - The appropriate way to deal with this situation is to prepare unbiased cash flow forecasts that give due weight to all possible outcomes



# Analyzing Project Risk

- Managers making unbiased forecasts are correct on average
  - Sometimes their forecasts will turn out high, other times low, but their errors will average out over many projects
  - The appropriate way to deal with this situation is to prepare unbiased cash flow forecasts that give due weight to all possible outcomes
  - . If you forecast a cash flow of \$1 million for projects like Z, you will overestimate the average cash flow

Possible Cash Flow	Probability	Probability-Weighted	Unbiased Forecast
1.2	0.25	0.3	\$1 million
1	0.5	0.5	
0.8	0.25	0.2	

# Analyzing Project Risk

- Managers making unbiased forecasts are correct on average
  - If technological uncertainty introduces a 10% chance of a zero cash flow, the unbiased forecast could drop

Possible Cash Flow	Probability	Probability-Weighted	Unbiased Forecast
1.2	0.25	0.27	\$0.90 million
1	0.45	0.45	
0.8	0.225	0.18	
0.0	0.10	0.00	

- Thus, the new present value computation would be:  $PV = \frac{0.90}{1.1} = \$0.818 \text{ million}$

# Analyzing Project Risk

- Managers often work out a range of possible outcomes for major projects, sometimes with explicit probabilities attached
  - The manager can still consider the good and bad outcomes as well as the most likely one
  - When the bad outcomes outweigh the good, the cash-flow forecast should be reduced until balance is regained
  - Step 1, then, is to do your best to make unbiased forecasts of a project's cash flows
  - Step 2 is to consider whether diversified investors would regard the project as more or less risky than the average project

# Certainty Equivalents

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- Discount rates are not constant and constantly change over the project life as the project risk changes
  - You are considering construction of an office building that you plan to sell after one year for \$420,000
  - That cash flow is uncertain with the same risk as the market, so  $\beta=1$
  - Given  $r_f=5\%$  and  $r_m - r_f = 7\%$ , you compute the present value as:  $420,000/1.12 = \$375,000$
  - What is that certain payoff you are willing to accept to sell the project in future
  - $PV = \frac{\text{Certain cash flow}}{1.05} = 375000$ , Certain cash flow= \$393,750

# Certainty Equivalents

- Discount rates are not constant and constantly change over the project life as the project risk changes
  - Thus, a certain cash flow of \$393,750 has exactly the same present value as an expected but uncertain cash flow of \$420,000
  - To compensate for both the delayed payoff and the uncertainty in real estate prices, you need a return of  $420,000 - 375,000 = \$45,000$
  - One part of this difference compensates for the time value of money
  - The other part ( $\$420,000 - 393,750 = \$26,250$ ) is a markdown or haircut to compensate for the risk attached to the forecasted cash flow of \$420,000.

# Certainty Equivalents

- How to value risky project cash flows
  - Method 1: Discount the risky cash flow at a risk-adjusted discount rate  $r$  that is greater than  $r_f$
  - Method 2: Find the certainty-equivalent cash flow and discount at the risk-free interest rate  $r_f$
  - What is the smallest certain payoff for which I would exchange the risky cash flow, this is called certainty equivalent (CEQ)

# Certainty Equivalents

- Thus, We now have two identical expressions for the PV of a cash flow
  - At period 1,  $PV = \frac{C_1}{1+r} = \frac{CEQ}{1+r_f}$
  - For cash flows two, three, or t years away,  $PV = \frac{C_t}{(1+r)^t} = \frac{CEQ}{(1+r_f)^t}$





# Certainty Equivalents

- Consider two simple projects
  - Project A is expected to produce a cash flow of \$100 million for each of three years. The risk-free interest rate is 6%, the market risk premium is 8%, and project A's beta is .75
  - Cost of capital for A as per CAPM:  $= r_f + \beta(r_m - r_f) = 6 + 8 * 0.75 = 12\%$

Year	Cash Flow	PV at 12%
1	100	89.3
2	100	79.7
3	100	71.2
		<b>Total PV 240.2</b>

# Certainty Equivalents

- Consider two simple projects
  - Project B is a safe project and the cash flows can be discounted at risk-free rate
  - The discounted cash flows are shown here

Year	Cash Flow	PV at 6%
1	94.6	89.3
2	89.6	79.7
3	84.8	<u>71.2</u> Total PV 240.2

# Certainty Equivalents

- Risk-free cash flow vs. certainty equivalents
  - In year 1 project A has a risky cash flow of 100. This has the same PV as the safe cash flow of 94.6 from project B
  - In year 2 project A has a risky cash flow of 100, and B has a safe cash flow of 89.6

Year	Forecasted Cash Flow	Certainty-Equivalent	Deduction for Risk
1	100	94.6	5.4
2	100	89.6	10.4
3	100	<u>84.8</u>	15.2

# Summary and Concluding remarks

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- If the project has the same risk as the average company risk, then company cost of capital is good benchmark to discount project cash flows
- Company cost of capital is measured with after-tax weighted-average cost of capital (after-tax WACC)
- When the project risk is considerably different from average company risk, then asset betas are often employed to estimate the project risk
- Overtime as the project risk changes, discount rates also change
- In such scenarios, we may use certainty equivalents (CEQ) to discount at risk-free rate to value the project

**Thanks!**

