

Market Imperfections

Information/Opinions, Market Depth, Transaction Costs, and Taxes

So far, we have assumed no differences in opinions (and thus information), no transaction costs, no taxes, and a large market with many competitive sellers and buyers—a “perfect market.” We discussed uncertainty, risk, and the CAPM (like most finance formulas in the real world) in this framework. They are not just “dead” theory. If the assumptions do not hold, then these very same formulas, used by practitioners and academics alike, might be simply wrong.

Why are the perfect markets assumptions so important? You will learn that it is because they give us one unique, appropriate, expected rate of return—whether you want to borrow someone else’s money to finance your projects or lend your money to someone else undertaking projects. Breaking the assumptions causes havoc: Without a unique expected rate of return, the project value depends on the (cash position of the) owner. What does “project value” even mean without a unique price?

Of course, as wonderful as perfect markets are, they do not exist. They are conceptual, not real. For large publicly traded firms, some financial markets can come very close to perfection. For small firms, they almost never do. **Entrepreneurial finance** is really just one example of “financing in imperfect markets.”

So, in this chapter, you are leaving our beautiful, frictionless, utopian world. You will have to contemplate how to think about financial questions in the real world. Fortunately, many of your tools (and specifically NPV) still work—remember, for a tool to work in a more complex scenario, it is a minimum sanity condition that it also work in a simpler scenario. The trick of this chapter, then, is to learn how you apply your tools with more caution and to appreciate their limitations.

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11.1 Causes and Consequences of Imperfect Markets

So far, we have not distinguished between the cost of capital at which you can borrow money to finance your projects and the rate of return at which you can save money. In “perfect markets,” these two rates are the same. Again, this is the purpose of all four perfect markets assumptions. It is only to guarantee one fact on which everything else rests:

Perfect markets cause equal borrowing and lending rates.

When this is not the case, the implications are far-reaching. If these rates are not equal, then you cannot move in and out of an investment as often as you like. More fundamentally, even the value of a project stops being unique. Instead, a project may be worth any number in a whole range of possible values. Indeed, the whole concept of one project value may become

Without perfect markets, borrowing and lending rates are not equal.

Without equal borrowing and lending rates, project market value is not unique.

meaningless. Value can depend on who owns the project, what the tastes of the individuals' relatives are, or even what time of day it is. You could not even claim that the value of a project is its PV. Present value may itself be meaningless. But let's take this one step at a time.

Q 11.1. What does the assumption of a perfect market buy you that would not be satisfied in an imperfect market?

For Intel shares, the perfect market assumptions are not perfectly true, but they are not too far from the truth.

Judging Market Perfection for Intel Shares and Houses

Start by contemplating the four perfect markets assumptions for a stock like Intel:

- No differences in opinion:** Recall that this assumption does not mean that there is no uncertainty, but that investors do not disagree about the uncertainty. Objective, rational traders with access to the same kind of information should come to similar conclusions about Intel's value. They should agree on the distribution of prices that Intel shares will likely sell at tomorrow, which in turn defines share value today. For the most part, it is unlikely that rational traders would disagree much about the value of Intel shares—they should realize that it is not very likely that they can predict the price of Intel much better than the market. Any disagreements would likely be minor. Of course, if some traders have insider information, then they could predict tomorrow's price better, and the perfect market would be no more—but trading on inside information is illegal.
- Infinitely many investors and firms:** On a typical day in 2016, around 10 million shares of Intel changed hands in about 50,000 transactions, worth about \$300 million. This is a lot of buyers and sellers. Thus, Intel shares appear to trade in a competitive market, in which no single buyer or seller influences the price. There are lots of potential buyers willing to purchase the shares for the same price (or maybe just a tiny bit less), and lots of potential sellers willing to sell the shares for the same price (or maybe just a tiny bit more).
- No transaction costs:** Trading Intel shares does incur transaction costs, but these are modest. A typical total round-trip transaction cost spread for Intel is about 5 cents on a \$50 share price, which is 10 basis points. An institutional trader may even be able to beat this. There are no searching costs for finding out the proper price of Intel shares (it is posted everywhere online), and there are very low costs to locating a buyer or seller.
- No taxes:** This may be the most problematic perfect market assumption in this context. Fortunately, we need this assumption of no taxes primarily for one purpose: The return to a seller owning Intel shares should not be different from the rate of return to a buyer. Here is what I mean.

Consider an extreme example in which Intel starts out at \$20 per share and happens to end up at \$80 per share two years later. Assume that the capital gains tax rate is 20% and the risk-free discount rate is 5%. How much value is saved if you hold shares for two years versus if you sell them to me midway? If you keep the shares, the taxable capital gains would be on $\$80 - \$20 = \$60$. At a 20% capital gains tax rate, Uncle Sam would collect \$12. If you instead trade them to me at \$50 after the first year, the capital gains consequences would be on \$30 first for you ($20\% \cdot \$30 = \6), and then on \$30 at the end for me (\$6 again). This violates the perfect market assumption, because if you hold the shares for two years, the present value of the tax obligation is $\$12/1.05^2 \approx \10.88 . If you sell them to me, it is $\$6/1.05 + \$6/1.05^2 \approx \$11.16$. Thus, shares are worth more to you (the seller) if you hold onto them than if you trade them to me (the buyer).

But the difference in how we value shares is really only in regard to the interest on the interim taxation. It is only 28 cents on a gain of \$60. Moreover, this example is extreme

not only in the 300% rate of return, but also in assuming a worst-case taxation scenario. This chapter later explains that many capital gains can be offset by capital losses and that investor tax-timing discretion can further lower taxes. Furthermore, most shares are now held by institutions. Many of these are pension funds, which are entirely tax-exempt and therefore face no tax implications when trading.

The market for Intel shares may indeed be close enough to being perfect to allow you to use perfect markets as a first working assumption.

Unfortunately, not every good is traded in a perfect market. For example, think about selling your house. What is its value? What if your house is in a very remote part of the country, if potential buyers are sporadic, if alternative houses with the same characteristics are rare, or if the government imposes much higher property taxes on new owners (as, e.g., California does)? Intuitively, the value of your house could now depend on the luck of the draw (how many potential buyers are in the vicinity and see the ad, whether a potential buyer wants to live in exactly this kind of house, and so on); your urgency to sell (depending perhaps on whether you have the luxury to turn down a lowball first offer); or whether you need to sell at all (as current owner, you enjoy much lower property taxes, so your house may be worth a lot more to you than to a potential buyer). The value of such a house can be difficult to determine because the market can be far from perfect—and the house value may not even be one unique number.

For real estate, the market is not perfect. Thus, there may not be a unique value.

The range in which possible values lie depends on the degree to which you believe the market is not perfect. For example, if you know that taxes or transaction costs can represent at most 2-3% of the project value, then you know that even if value is not absolutely unique, it is pretty close to unique—possible values sit in a fairly tight range. On the other hand, if you believe that there are few potential buyers for your house, but that some of these potential buyers would purchase the house at much higher prices than others, then it depends on your financial situation as to whether you should accept or decline another buyer's lowball offer.

Use your judgment about market imperfections. Neither buyers nor sellers are assured of a fair price.

Not all financial markets are close to perfect either. Information differences, the unique power of large buyers or large sellers in the market, transaction costs, or special taxes can sometimes play a role. For example, many corporate bonds are traded primarily over-the-counter. Just a small number of financial traders may make a market in them. If you want to buy or sell such a corporate bond, you must call a designated in-house desk trader. These traders are often your only market venue, and they will try to gauge your expertise when negotiating a price with you. You could easily end up paying a lot more for a bond than what you could then sell it back to them just 1 minute later.

Many financial markets are not perfect either.

To repeat—no market, financial or otherwise—is ever “perfectly perfect.” However, for some financial instruments, it is very close.

► Over-the-counter,
Sect. 7.2, Pg.155.

For many financial securities—for example, for large, publicly traded stocks—the assumption that the market is perfect is reasonable. For other financial securities and many nonfinancial goods, this assumption is less accurate.

IMPORTANT

Q 11.2. What is the difference between a perfect market and a competitive market?

Q 11.3. Does a perfect capital market exist in the real world? What is the use of the perfect markets concept?

The four perfect market assumptions, and how their failures can drive wedges between borrowing and lending rates.

Perfect Market Assumptions and Violations

Now think more rigorously about what happens when each of the perfect market assumptions is violated:

1. No differences in opinion (information): This assumption means that everyone interprets all uncertainty in the same way in a perfect market. How could this assumption be violated? Here is an example. If your bank believes that there is a 50% chance that you will go bankrupt and default, and you believe that there is only a 10% chance, then your bank will lend you money only if you pay a much higher interest rate than what you will think appropriate. You will then consider your borrowing rate to be too high. Of course, this also breaks the equality of one fair rate at which you can borrow and lend. Your expected rate of return is now lower when you lend than when you borrow.

To avoid such situations, our perfect markets assumptions include one that posits that *everyone has the same information and agrees on what it means*.

2. Infinitely many investors and firms: This assumption really means that the market is very “deep.” By itself, the assumption of the presence of many buyers and sellers defines a **competitive market**—one in which no buyer or seller has any unique market power. If buyers or sellers are heterogeneous, then this assumption must be slightly modified. It must be that you can easily find many of the most eager types of buyers and sellers. For example, say a truck is worth more if it is owned by a truck driver. This assumption then states that there must be a large number of truck drivers.

How could this assumption be violated? If there is only one bank that you can do business with, then this bank will want to exploit its monopoly power. It will charge you a higher interest rate if you want to borrow money than it will pay you if you want to deposit money—and you will have no good alternative.

To avoid this, our perfect markets assumptions include one that posits that *there are infinitely many buyers and sellers*.

3. No transaction costs: Transaction costs here are defined in a very broad sense, and they include indirect costs, such as your time and money to search for the best deal. In a perfect market, you can buy and sell without paying *any* such costs.

How could this assumption be violated? If it costs \$1,000 to process the paperwork involved in a loan, you will incur this cost only if you borrow, but not if you save. Similarly, if it costs you 3 days of work to find the appropriate lender, it means that you will effectively have to pay more than just the borrowing rate. You will have to factor in your 3 days as a cost. Any such transaction costs make your effective borrowing interest rate higher than your effective savings interest rate.

To avoid this, our perfect markets assumptions include one that posits that *there are zero transaction costs*.

4. No taxes: More accurately, this means that there is no distorting government interference (such as government regulation), and that there are no tax advantages or disadvantages to buying or selling securities. Specifically, neither trading of the good nor its possession by one particular owner should change the total tax consequences.

How could this assumption be violated? If you have to pay taxes on interest earned, but cannot deduct taxes on interest paid, your *de facto* savings rate will be lower than your borrowing rate. Similarly, if the total taxes paid are higher when shares are traded, they could be worth more if they were never traded to begin with. Another violation could be a government regulation requiring you to file lengthy legal documents with the SEC every time you have to sneeze—well, every time you have to execute some transaction.

To avoid this, our perfect markets assumptions include one that posits that *there are no taxes*.

These four assumptions are actually “overkill,” but if they hold, you are safe. Thinking about them helps you judge how close to perfect a given market actually is. However, the real usefulness of the perfect market is *not* that you should believe that it exists in the real world. Instead, its usefulness is that it gives you some simple first-order methods and tools that help you value goods. If these assumptions do not hold, borrowing and lending rates may or may not be similar enough to allow us to still use perfect market tools or variations thereon. (And, as I already mentioned, almost all common real-world finance formulas rely on them.)

If these assumptions are far from the situation in the real world, nothing will work anymore. In fact, markets may cease to function entirely. For example, if you fear that other parties you would be transacting with are *much* better informed than you, you could only lose—the other party would take full advantage of you, selling to you only if the price is too high. If you can avoid it, you should never trade. Such a market collapse may have happened in the market for corporate bonds for *retail investors*. These bonds are traded over-the-counter, which means that the Wall Street trader on the other side of the phone tries to gauge how much an ordinary retail investor actually knows about the correct value of these bonds. As a result, retail investors are so systematically disadvantaged that it makes no sense for them to buy corporate bonds directly. Instead, they are better off buying bond funds, where someone else who does not suffer a knowledge disadvantage (a bond mutual fund) buys and sells corporate bonds on their behalves. Similarly, if transaction costs are extremely high, there may be no market in which anyone could profitably buy or sell. Fortunately, such total market collapses tend to occur only if the perfect market violations are large. With modest violations, the benefits of transacting tend to outweigh the costs to buyers and sellers, and so markets can still function. This is the kind of situation that this chapter considers.

Let's hope the imperfections are not extreme—if they are, the entire market could even disappear.

Q 11.4. Without looking back, state the four perfect market assumptions.

Ambiguous Value in Imperfect Markets

Why is an inequality between borrowing and lending rates so problematic? It is because it breaks the “unique value aspect” of projects. In a perfect market, project value depends *only* on the project, and not on you personally or on your cash position. You can think of this as a clean separation between the concepts of ownership and value. It also leads to the “separation of investments and financing decisions.” Project owners can make investment choices based on the quality of the projects themselves, not based on their personal wealth or financing options. Indeed, the NPV formula does not have an input for your identity or current wealth—its only inputs are the project’s cash flows and the rate of return on alternative investments.

If savings and investment interest rates differ, the project's value (NPV) can depend on how wealthy the owner is—more generally, on who the owner is.

► [Investment consumption separation, Sect. 4.1, Pg.56.](#)

For example, assume that you can lend (invest cash) and borrow money (receive cash) at the same 4% in a perfect market. What is the net present value of a project that invests \$1,000 today and returns \$1,050 next period? It is \$9.62. It does not depend on whether you have money or not. If you do not have the \$1,000 today, you borrow \$1,009.62, invest \$1,000, and hand the \$1,050 to the lender next year. But if the financial market is imperfect and the borrowing and lending rates are *not* the same, then the value of the project does depend on you, because it depends on your cash holdings. For example, assume that you can lend money (invest cash) at 3% and borrow money (receive cash) at 7%. What is the net present value of a project that invests \$1,000 today and returns \$1,050 next period?

An example of how project value can depend on your wealth. Consequently, a project's value may no longer be a single dollar figure, but any figure within a dollar range.

- If you have \$1,000 and your alternative is to invest your money in the bank, you will get only \$1,030 from the bank. You should take the project rather than invest in the bank so that you can earn \$20 more.

- If you do not have the \$1,000, you will have to borrow \$1,000 from the bank to receive \$1,050 from the project. But because you will have to pay the bank \$1,070, you will lose \$20 net. You should not take the project.

The value of the project and your best decision whether to take the project or not now depends on how much cash you have. Consequently, the separation between your project choice and your financial position breaks down. Having to take your current cash holdings into account when making investment choices makes capital budgeting decisions more difficult. In this example, it is fairly easy: If you have a lot of wealth, you should take the project. If you have no cash, you should not take it. But think about projects that have cash inflows and outflows in the future and how your decisions could interact with your own wealth positions in the future. This can become vexingly difficult. You can also see that the project value is no longer unique in imperfect markets. In our example, it could be anything between +\$19.42 (\$1,050 discounted at 3%) and -\$18.69 (\$1,050 discounted at 7%). The same ambiguity applies to ownership. Your capital budgeting decision can be different when you already own the project versus when you are just contemplating buying it. Again, your identity matters to the value of the project.

IMPORTANT

If the market is not perfect, the separation of ownership and value breaks down. Therefore, project value is no longer unique. It can depend on who owns the project.

Do You Always Get What You Pay For?

Are there any good deals?
Maybe—but how would one even define a good deal in an imperfect market?

Salespeople may distort the truth and claim great deals.

Reflect a little on the insight that projects may not have unique values. You surely have heard the saying that “it’s only worth what people are willing to pay for it” and the claim that some item “is worth much more than it is being sold for.” Which is correct? Are there any good deals? The answer is that both are correct and neither is correct. The first claim is really meaningful only to the extent that markets are *perfect*: If a market is perfect, items are indeed worth exactly what buyers are willing to pay for them. The second claim is meaningful only to the extent that markets are *imperfect*: If a market is imperfect, items have no unique value. Different people can place different values on the item, and some third party may consider an item worth much more than what it was sold for.

Thus, when someone claims that a stock or firm is really worth more than he or she is selling it for, there are only a small number of explanations:

1. There may be pure kindheartedness toward any buyer, or a desire by a seller to lose wealth. Not very likely.
2. The seller may not have access to a perfect market to sell the goods. This may make the seller accept a low amount of money for the good, so depending on how you look at it, the good may be sold for more or less than the seller thinks it is worth.
3. The market is perfect and the seller may be committing a conceptual mistake. The good is worth neither more nor less than what it is being sold for—it is worth exactly how much it is being sold for.
4. The seller may be lying and is using this claim as a sales tactic.

Q 11.5. Your borrowing rate is 10% per year. Your lending rate is 4% per year. Your project costs \$1,000 and will have a rate of return of 8%. Assume you have \$900 to invest.

1. Should you take the project?
2. You can think of the \$900 as the amount of money that you are not consuming. Say your wealth is \$2,000, but in the previous question, you wanted to consume \$1,100. Could you still consume this much and take the project? How much could you consume and still want to take the project?

Social Value and Surplus

Perfect markets are not just privately useful but are also socially useful. If a market is perfect, buyers and sellers need not worry that one deal is better than another—that buying is better than selling, or vice-versa. For example, consider gasoline and imagine that you do not yet know when and where on your road trip you will need to pump more gas. Unlike shares of stock, gas is not the same good everywhere: Gas in one location can be more valuable than gas in another location (as anyone who has ever run out of gas can testify). But in populated areas, the market for gasoline is pretty competitive and close to perfect—there are many buyers (drivers) and sellers (gas stations). This makes it likely that the first gas station you see will have a reasonable price. If you drive by the first gas station and it advertises a price of \$3 per gallon, it is unlikely that you will find another gas station within a couple of miles offering the same gas for \$2 per gallon or \$4 per gallon. Chances are that “the price is fair,” or this particular gas station would probably have disappeared by now. (The same applies, of course, in many financial markets, such as those for large company stocks, Treasury bonds, or certain types of mortgages.) As long as the market is very competitive—or better yet, perfect—most deals are likely to be fair deals.

Buyers get what they pay for in a perfect market. They can “trust” market prices.

There is an important conceptual twist here: If you are paying what an item is worth, it does not necessarily mean that you are paying what you *personally* value the good at. For example, if you are running out of gas and you are bad at pushing a 2-ton vehicle, you might very well be willing to pay \$10 per gallon—but fortunately, all you need to pay in a competitive market is the market price. The difference between what you personally value a good for and what you pay for it is called your “surplus.” Although everyone is paying what the good is worth in a perfect market, most buyers and sellers can come away being better off—only the very last marginal buyer and seller are indifferent.

Perfect markets do not mean most buyers and sellers don't care: Perfect markets offer (maximum) surplus for average buyers and sellers.

Q 11.6. Evaluate the following statement: “In a perfect market, no one is getting a good deal. Thus, it would not matter from a social perspective if this market were not available.”

11.2 Opinions, Disagreements, and Insider Information

What can you do if you think each one of the perfect market assumptions fails? You need to learn both how to judge the degree to which markets are imperfect and how to deal with them as a real-world investor or manager. (Even if there is no unique value, you can still learn how to think about maximizing your own wealth.) The remainder of the chapter thus explores the extent of market imperfections, what can mitigate them, and how you should work when they don’t hold.

The rest of this chapter will hone in on the four individual imperfections.

We begin with the effects of disagreements, the violation of the first perfect market assumption that everyone has the same opinion. Like the other assumptions, this works well in some situations and poorly in others.

Information (opinions) is first.

Different opinions can lead to disagreements about what the project will pay.

Expected rates of return for borrowing and lending now become different.

Do not confuse different promised borrowing/lending rates in perfect markets...

► Credit spreads,
Sect. 6.2, Pg.113.

...with different expected borrowing/lending rates in imperfect markets.

Expected Return Differences or Promised Return Differences?

The assumption of no disagreement is only relevant in a world of uncertainty—it would be absurd to believe that differences in opinion could exist if there were no uncertainty. So what happens if the lender and borrower have different information or different judgments about the same information? Most prominently, they could disagree about the default risk. For example, if you have no credit history, then a lender who does not know you might be especially afraid of not receiving promised repayments from you—from the perspective of such a lender, you would be extremely high-risk. Your lender might estimate your appropriate default probability to be 30% and thus may demand an appropriate default premium from you of, say, 10%—an interest rate similar to what credit card vendors are charging. On the other hand, you may know that you will indeed return the lender's money, because you know that you will work hard and that you will have the money for sure. In your opinion, a fair and appropriate default premium should therefore be 0%.

When your potential lender and you have different opinions, you will face different expected interest rates depending on whether you want to save or borrow. You can use your knowledge from Chapter 6 to work an example to understand the difference between a perfect and an imperfect market scenario.

Perfect Markets: Assume that the bank and you agree that you have a 20% probability of default, in which case you will not repay anything. For simplicity, assume risk neutrality and that the appropriate interest rate is 5%. Solving $80\% \cdot r + 20\% \cdot (-100\%) = 5\%$ for the interest rate that you would have to promise yields $r = 31.25\%$. This gives the bank an expected rate of return of 5%. In contrast, the bank is government-insured, so if you deposit your money with it, it would be default-free.

	Promised	Expected
Your Savings Rate	5%	5%
Your Borrowing Rate	31.25%	5%

Although your quoted interest rate is higher by the credit spread, if you want to borrow, your cost of capital is still the same 5% either way.

Imperfect Markets: Now assume that the bank and you disagree about your default probability. The bank believes that it is 30—it could be that it has experienced such a default rate for borrowers who seemed to look similar from the perspective of your bank. In contrast, you believe that your default probability is 10%. The bank will therefore quote you an interest rate of $70\% \cdot r + 30\% \cdot (-100\%) = 5\% \implies r = 50\%$. Alas, you believe that the expected rate of return at the 50% quoted interest rate is $90\% \cdot 50\% + 10\% \cdot (-100\%) = 35\%$.

	Promised	Expected
Your Savings Rate	5%	5%
Your Borrowing Rate	50% from the bank's perspective	5%
Your Borrowing Rate	50% from your perspective	35%

The disagreements (information differences) are now causing differences in *expected* returns. The borrowing and lending *expected* rates of return are no longer the same. If the bank is wrong, your cost of capital now depends on whether you want to borrow or lend. And even if the bank is right, from your (wrong) perspective, you are still facing different borrowing and lending rates.

- The fact that credit spreads reflect a default premium—a difference between the *promised* rate of return and the *expected* rate of return—is not a market imperfection.
- The fact that credit spreads reflect differences in opinion between borrower and lender—a difference about the two assessed *expected* rates of return—is a market imperfection.

IMPORTANT

Q 11.7. Can there be a difference in the borrowing and lending rates quoted by the bank in perfect markets?

Q 11.8. “If the world is risk-neutral and the market is perfect, then the promised and expected rates of return may be different, but the expected rate of return on all loans should be equal.” Evaluate.

Q 11.9. A bond will pay off \$100 with probability 99%, and nothing with probability 1% next year. The equivalent appropriate expected rate of return for risk-free bonds is 5%.

1. What is an appropriate promised yield on this bond today?
2. The borrower believes the probability of payoff is 100%. How much money does he believe he has to overpay today?

Covenants, Collateral, and Credit Rating Agencies

If you are an entrepreneur who wants to start a company, what can you do to reduce your cost of capital? The answer is that it is in your interest to disclose to the lender all the information you can—provided you are the type of entrepreneur who is likely to pay back the loan. You want to reduce the lender’s doubt about future repayment. Unfortunately, this can be very difficult. The lender can neither peer into your brain nor give you a good lie detector test. Even after you have done everything possible to reduce the lender’s doubts about you (provided your credit history, collateral, and so on), there will still be some residual information differences—they are just a fact of life. To the extent that you can reduce such information differences, your firm will be able to enjoy lower costs of capital. Also, if you as a borrower fail to give your best to convince the lender of your quality, then the lender should assume that you are not an average company but instead the very worst—or else you would have tried to communicate as much as possible.

There are at least three important mechanisms that have evolved to alleviate such information differences. The first mechanism is **covenants**, which are contractual agreements that specify upfront what a debtor must do to maintain credit. They can include such requirements as the maintenance of insurance or a minimum corporate value. The second mechanism is **collateral**, which are assets that the creditor can repossess if payments are not made—anything that inflicts pain on the debtor will do. For example, if defaulting debtors were thrown into debtors’ prison (as they often were until the nineteenth century), the promise to repay would be more credible and lenders would be more inclined to provide funding at lower rates. Of course, for the unlucky few who just happened to suffer incredibly bad luck ex-post, debtors’ prison had some definite drawbacks.

Even when borrowers would love to convince their lenders, they may not be able to.

Good borrowers want to convey credibly to the lender how good they are.

Sumerian Debt Contracts

Among the earliest known collateralized debt contracts is a tablet from Sumeria (Mesopotamia), which promised delivery of silver and gave as security the son of the borrower. (The tablet can be viewed at www.museumofmoney.org/babylon/index.html.) Such contracts are illegal today, but *de facto* “debt slavery” for debts not repaid is still common in many countries, according to the September 2003 issue of *National Geographic*. What do you think about student loans—should students be allowed to declare bankruptcy and walk away from them?

William Goetzmann, Yale University.

Credit rating agencies help lenders estimate the probability of borrower default.

► Credit ratings, Sect. 6.2, Pg.114.

Incidentally, bond credit ratings have been historically useless for stock trading strategies.

Don't lose the big picture in the many little problems.

The third mechanism to alleviate repayment uncertainty is a credit rating, which is a history of past payments to help assess the probability of future default. This is why you need to give your Social Security number if you want to take out a substantial personal loan—the lender will check up on you. The same is true for large corporations. It may be easier to judge corporate default risk for large companies than personal default risk, but it is still not easy and it costs both time and money. You already learned about these credit ratings in Section 6.2.

Unfortunately, although bond rating agencies update their ratings if the condition of the firm changes, the empirical evidence suggests that bond ratings are not very good in helping an investor earn better rates of return. In fact, the ratings seem to respond more to *past* drops in the value of the underlying bonds than vice-versa. The rating agencies seem to be more reactive than proactive. (The poor quality and systematic manipulation of debt ratings by investment banks also played an enabling role in the Great Recession of 2008.)

Let me close with a philosophical observation: U.S. and European financial markets are truly amazing. People who would never lend their neighbors a few thousand dollars (fearing that they would not pay it back) have no second thoughts about lending total strangers in anonymous markets their entire lives’ savings. It is the combination of the governance of repayments and risk-spreading that has allowed our financial and real markets to develop so well, even in the presence of great uncertainty. It will never be perfectly perfect, of course. Yes, there are problems in the U.S. financial markets, but their relative magnitudes are a lot smaller. By and large, issues of fraud, credit, and trust seem to be under control most of the time. Banks are a vital component of our economic system. In contrast, many hundreds of millions of Indians do not have access either to convenient borrowing or saving markets even in the 20s. Many are forced to keep their lives’ savings in gold under their mattresses. This leaves them with fewer opportunities and more exposure to theft and corruption.

Q 11.10. What mechanisms can borrowers use to assure lenders? If providing this information is not legally required, will they still volunteer to do so?

11.3 Market Depth and Transaction Costs

Our second perfect market assumption states that markets are very deep, consisting of many buyers and sellers. If there is only one lender, this lender will have market power over you. Of course, she will exploit her power by charging you a higher borrowing rate and offering you a lower deposit interest rate. Such an extreme form of market power is called a monopoly, but there are many milder forms of such power, too. For example, if you are already shopping in a grocery store, this store has a degree of market power over you. Even if the milk is 3 cents more expensive than in another store, you will still buy the milk where you are. Or say there is only one ATM close to you. In principle, you could get capital from any number of banks, but locally

The assumption “no market power” is straightforward.

there is really only this one provider. Fortunately, such uniqueness of capital provision is rarely an important issue in the United States for corporations, especially large ones.

So let's move on to the third perfect markets assumption: the role of transaction costs. Transaction costs drive a wedge between borrowing and lending rates. For example, if it is difficult and costly to administer loans, an investor must charge you a higher borrowing rate than deposit rate just to break even. This is the subject of this section, in which you will learn how corporations and individuals should handle transaction costs.

Transaction costs are this section's main topic.

Typical Costs When Trading Real Goods—Real Estate

When you engage in transactions—that is, purchases or sales—you face costs to facilitate them. One way to think about the magnitude of transaction costs is to compute how much is lost if you decided that you have made a mistake the instant after a purchase, which you now want to undo by reselling. Real estate—most people's biggest asset—is a perfect example to illustrate transaction costs. What does selling or buying a house really cost?

Real estate is an important market in itself. How perfect is it?

Direct costs such as brokerage commissions: Housing transaction costs are so high and so important that they are worth a digression. In the United States, if a house is sold, the seller's broker typically receives 6% of the value of the house as commission (and splits this commission with the buyer's real-estate agent). Thus, if a real-estate agent sells your house for \$300,000, her commission is \$18,000 (which she usually splits with the buyer's broker). Put differently, without an agent, the buyer and seller could have split the \$18,000 between themselves.

Direct transaction costs: a transfer of money.

Although only the seller pays the broker's cost, it makes sense to think of transaction costs in terms of **round-trip costs**—how much worse off you are if you buy and then immediately sell. You would be mistaken if you thought that when you buy a house, you have not incurred any transaction costs because the seller had to pay them—you have incurred an implicit transaction cost in the future when you need to resell your investment. Of course, you usually do not sell assets immediately, so you should not forget about the timing of your future selling transaction costs in your NPV calculations.

Think of transactions in "round-trip" form.

If you borrow to finance the investment, transaction costs may be higher than you think. The real-estate agent earns 6% of the house value, not 6% of the amount of money you put into the house. On a house purchase of \$500,000, the typical loan is 80% of the purchase price, or \$400,000, leaving you to put in \$100,000 in equity. Selling the house the day after the purchase reduces your wealth of \$100,000 by the commission of \$30,000—for an investment rate of return of -30%. This is not a risk component; it is a pure and certain transaction cost.

House transaction costs are calculated based not on your equity but based on the whole house value—unlike equities for corporate stocks.

How good is your purchase if the house price decreases or increases by 10%? If house prices decline by 10% (or if you overpaid by 10%), the house can only be resold for \$450,000, which leaves \$423,000 after agent commissions. As the house owner, you are left with \$23,000 on a \$100,000 investment. A 10% decline in real estate values has reduced your net worth by 77%! In comparison, a 10% increase in real estate values increases the value of the house to \$550,000, which means that \$517,000 is left after real estate commissions. Your rate of return after this equally-sized magnitude is thus only 17%. If a 10% increase and a 10% decrease are equally likely, your instant expected loss is 30%!

Let's add some price volatility.

In addition to direct agent commissions, there are also many other direct transaction costs. These can range from advertising, to insurance company payments, to house inspectors, to the local land registry, to postage—all of which cost the parties money.

Other direct costs.

Indirect costs such as opportunity costs: Then there is the seller's and buyer's time required to learn as much as possible about the value of the house, and the effort involved to help the agent sell the house. These may be significant costs, even if they involve no cash outlay. If the house cannot be sold immediately but stays empty for a while, the foregone rent is part of the transaction costs. The implicit cost of not having the house put to its best alternative use is called

Indirect transaction costs are the loss of other opportunities.

Real Estate Agents: Who Works for Whom?

Real estate agents are conflicted. If they sell sooner, they can spend their time focusing on other properties. Thus, the typical seller's agent will try to get the seller to reduce the price in order to make a quicker sale. Similarly, the buyer's agent will try to get the buyer to increase the offer. In a financial sense, the buyer's agent is working on behalf of the seller, and the seller's agent is working on behalf of the buyer. Interestingly, Steve Levitt of *Freakonomics* found that when agents sell their own houses, on average, their homes tend to stay on the market for about 10 days longer and sell for about 2% more.

Steve Levitt, University of Chicago.

an **opportunity cost**—the cost of foregoing the next-best choice. Opportunity costs are just as real as direct cash costs.

Typical Costs When Trading Financial Goods—Stocks

Transactions in financial markets also incur transaction costs. If an investor wants to buy or sell shares, the broker charges a fee, as does the stock exchange that facilitates the transaction. In addition, investors have to consider their time to communicate with the broker to initiate the purchase or sale of a stock as an opportunity cost.

Direct costs such as brokerage and market maker commissions: Still, the transaction costs for selling financial instruments are much lower than they are for most other goods. Let's look at a few reasons why. First, even if you want to buy (or sell) \$1 million worth of stock, some Internet brokers now charge as little as \$10 per transaction. Your round-trip transaction, which is a buy and a sale, costs only \$20 in broker's commission. In addition, you have to pay the **spread** (the difference between the bid price and the ask price) to the stock exchange. For example, a large company stock like Intel may have a publicly posted price of \$50 per share. But you can neither buy nor sell at \$50. Instead, the \$50 is really just the average of two prices: the **bid price** of \$49.92, at which another investor or the exchange's market maker is currently willing to buy shares and the **ask price** of \$50.08, at which another investor or the exchange's market maker is currently willing to sell shares. Therefore, you can (probably) purchase shares at \$50.08 and sell them at \$49.92, a loss of "only" 16 cents, which amounts to round-trip transaction costs of $(\$49.92 - \$50.08)/\$50.08 \approx -0.32\%$. (Typical market spreads for Intel shares are even lower.) You can compute the total costs of buying and selling 20,000 shares (\$1,000,000 worth) of Intel stock as follows:

Financial Round-Trip Transaction		
Purchase 20,000 Shares	Pay $\$50.08 \cdot 20,000 = \$1,001,600$	
Add Broker Commission	$+\$10$	$= \$1,001,610$
Sell 20,000 Shares	Receive $\$49.92 \cdot 20,000 = \$998,400$	
Subtract Broker Commission	$-\$10$	$= \$998,390$
	Net Round-Trip Transaction Costs	\$3,220

This table is not exactly correct, though, because the bid and ask prices that the stock exchanges post are valid for only 100 shares. Moreover, some transactions can occur inside the bid-ask spread, but for most large round-trip orders, chances are that you may have to pay more than \$50.08 or receive less than \$49.92. So 0.32% is probably a bit too small. (In fact, if your trade is large enough, you may even move the publicly posted exchange price away from \$50!) Your buy order may have to pay \$50.20, and your sell may only get you \$49.85. In real life, the true round-trip transaction cost on a \$1 million position in Intel shares may be on the order of magnitude of 50 basis points.

Stock transactions also incur direct and indirect costs.

The typical direct transaction costs for stocks are much, much lower than for most other goods.

An example of how low transaction costs in stock can be is illustrated by an extremely large trade in a very liquid security that occurred on Thursday, November 30, 2006, at 12:12pm. Kirk Kerkorian, a billionaire investor, sold 5% of GM (a block of 28 million shares) at \$29.25 per share (or about \$820 million)—almost to the penny for the price that GM shares were trading at on the NYSE. Upon receiving the news, the GM stock price dropped to \$28.49—but within 1 hour, it had recovered and even reached \$29.50. And since then, stock markets have become even more competitive. Don't you find it remarkable how the sale of even very large blocks of shares seems to barely move the stock price?

An example of how stunningly low stock transaction costs can be.

You may sometimes read about **high-frequency traders (HFT)**, who run algorithms to strategically pick off pennies because they have a nano-second earlier access to trading. Whether this is a problem or not can be debated, but if it ever was, it is going away. There are now dozens of HFTs competing against one another for the business of buying and selling shares from the rest of us. They have almost surely competed away much of their possible excess profits. Moreover, new exchanges with better market structures are also appearing. Even if this game was rigged a few years ago, it's no longer a major concern today.

HFT – High Frequency Traders?

Indirect costs such as opportunity costs: Investors do not need to spend a lot of time to find out the latest price of the stock: It is instantly available from many sources (e.g., from [YAHOO! FINANCE](#)). The information research costs are very low: Unlike a house, the value of a stock is immediately known. Finally, buyers can be found practically instantaneously, so search and waiting costs are also very low. In contrast, count on many anxiety-ridden waiting months when you want to sell your house.

The typical indirect transaction costs (opportunity costs) for stocks are also very low.

Comparing Stock Transaction Costs To Housing Transaction Costs

Let's compare the transaction costs in buying and selling financial securities to those of a house. Aside from the direct real estate broker fees of 6% (for the \$100,000 equity investment in the \$500,000 house, this comes to \$30,000 for a round-trip transaction), you must add the other fees and waiting time. Chances are that you will be in for other transaction costs—say, another \$10,000.

Compared to other economic assets...

Cost Type	Explanation	Real Estate (House)	Financial Security (Stock)
Direct	Typical round-trip commission, etc.	≥6%	0-1%
Search/Research	Time to determine fair price	High	Zero
Search/Liquidity	Time waiting to find buyer	Variable	Zero

And houses are just one example: Many transactions of physical goods or labor services (but not all) can incur similarly high transaction costs.

... financial securities have such low transaction costs that they can be assumed to be almost zero for buy-and-hold investors.

In contrast, if you want to buy or sell 100 shares in, say, Microsoft stock, your transaction costs are relatively low. Because there are many buyers and many sellers, financial transaction costs are comparably tiny. Even for a \$100,000 equity investment in a medium-sized firm's stock, the transaction costs are typically only about \$300–\$500. It may not be a perfectly correct assumption that the market for trading large stocks is perfect, but it is not far off. It certainly is convenient to assume that financial transaction costs are zero. For an individual buying and selling ordinary stocks only rarely (a **buy-and-hold** investor), a zero-transaction-cost assumption is often quite reasonable. But if you are a **day trader**—someone who buys and sells stocks daily—our perfect market assumption would be inappropriate.

Q 11.11. What would you guess are the transaction costs for a round-trip transaction of \$10,000 in Microsoft shares, in percentage and in absolute terms?

Q 11.12. List important transaction cost components, both direct and indirect.

The ultimate rule.

Rates of return: Work with after-transaction-cost rates.

Net present value: Work with after-transaction-cost cash flows and with after-transaction opportunity costs of capital.

Transaction Costs in Returns and Net Present Values

As an investor, you usually care about rates of return *after* all transaction costs have been taken into account, not about pre-transaction-cost rates of return from quoted prices. Let's work out how you should take these transaction costs on both sides (buy and sell) into account.

Return to our housing example. If you purchase a house for \$1,000,000 and you sell it to the next buyer at \$1,100,000 through a broker, your rate of return is not 10%. At selling time, the broker charges you a 6% commission. There are also some other costs that reduce the amount of money you receive, not to mention your many opportunity costs. Say these costs amount to \$70,000 in total. In addition, even when you purchased the house, you most likely had to pay some extra costs (such as an escrow transfer fee) above and beyond the \$1,000,000—say, \$5,000. Your rate of return would therefore not be $\$1,100,000/\$1,000,000 - 1 = 10\%$, but only

$$r = \frac{(\$1,100,000 - \$70,000) - (\$1,000,000 + \$5,000)}{(\$1,000,000 + \$5,000)} \approx 2.5\%$$

$$\text{Rate of Return} = \frac{\text{Dollars Returned after Transaction Costs} - \text{Dollars Invested after Transaction Costs}}{\text{Dollars Invested after Transaction Costs}}$$

Note how the \$5,000 must be added to, not subtracted from, the price you originally paid. The price you paid was ultimately higher than \$1,000,000. The \$5,000 works against you. Incidentally, in order to make their returns look more appealing, many professional fund managers quote their investors' rates of return before taking their own fees (transaction costs) into account. They add a footnote at the bottom that satisfies the lawyers so that you cannot sue the fund for having been misled—you are supposed to know how to adjust the returns to take these transaction costs into account.

How do you take care of transaction costs in present value calculations? This is relatively straightforward. In the example, you put in \$1,005,000 and receive \$1,030,000—say, after one year:

$$NPV = -\$1,005,000 + \frac{\$1,030,000}{1 + \text{Opportunity Cost of Capital}}$$

The only thing you must still take care of is to quote your opportunity cost of capital also in after-transaction cost terms. You may not be able to get a 10% rate of return in comparable investments either, because you may also be required to pay a transaction cost on them. In this case, assume that your alternative investment with equal characteristics in the financial markets (not the housing markets) would earn an 8% per year rate of return, but with a 50-basis-point transaction cost. Your project would then have an appropriate NPV of

$$NPV = -\$1,005,000 + \frac{\$1,030,000}{1.075} \approx -\$46,860$$

Q 11.13. Compute your after-transaction-costs rate of return on buying a house for \$1,000,000 if you have to pay 0.5% transaction fees up front (to cover various escrow fees); and then pay a 6% broker's commission (plus 2% in waiting costs) at the end of one year when you sell (on the then selling price of the house). Assume a \$4,000/month effective dividend of enjoying living in the house. Assume that your opportunity cost of capital (not the bank-quoted interest rate) is 7% per year. At what rate of capital appreciation would the NPV be zero if you resold the house after one year?

The Value of Liquidity

When *future* transaction costs influence your upfront willingness to buy an asset, proper pricing gets even more interesting and complex. You might not want to purchase a house even if you expect to recoup your transaction costs, because you dislike the fact that you do not know whether it will be easy or hard to resell. After all, if you purchase a stock or bond instead, you know you can resell without much of a transaction cost whenever you want.

What would make you want to take the risk of sitting on a house for months without being able to sell it? To get you to buy a house would require the seller to compensate you. The seller would have to offer you a **liquidity premium**—an extra expected rate of return to compensate you for your willingness to hold an asset that you may find difficult to convert into cash if a need were to arise. The liquidity analogy comes from physics. In the same way that physical movement is impeded by physical friction, economic transactions are impeded by transaction costs.

Housing may be an extreme example, but liquidity effects appear to be important everywhere, even in financial markets with their low transaction costs. (Some financial markets are generally considered low-friction, or even close to frictionless.) Even finance professors and the best fund managers do not yet fully understand liquidity premiums, but we do know that they can be very important. In financial crises, like 2008, liquidity seems to have been the only thing that was really important. Let's look at some examples of where liquidity premiums seem to play important roles.

Anticipating future transaction costs, buyers demand a higher rate of return for more illiquid investments.

"Liquidity" is a common analogy that finance has borrowed from physics.

Liquidity (or lack thereof) is super-important in most markets, but we do not fully understand it yet.

Treasury Bonds

Believe it or not, even Treasuries have differences in liquidity! The most recently issued Treasury of a particular maturity is called **on-the-run**. These bonds account for more than half of the total daily trading volume, yet less than 5% of the outstanding market cap. Every bond trader who wants to trade a bond with roughly this maturity focuses on this particular bond. This makes it easier to buy and sell the on-the-run bond compared to a similar but not identical **off-the-run** bond. In 2016, the typical on-the-run bond traded for about **5 basis points less** than the equivalent off-the-run Treasury. In other words, you would have been able to buy the off-the-run bond at a much lower price than the on-the-run bond.

Even Treasuries have differences in liquidity: on-the-run and off-the-run bonds.

On-the-run is more liquid.

The reason why you might want to buy the on-the-run bond, even though it had a higher price, would be that you could resell it much more quickly and easily than the equivalent off-the-run bond. Of course, as the date approaches when this 10-year bond is about to lose its on-the-run designation and another bond is about to become the on-the-run 10-year bond, the old on-the-run premium drops in value.

Investors prefer on-the-run bonds because of their immediate liquidity.

In a perfect world, there should be no difference between these two types of bonds. Yet when a two-year bond is on-the-run, its bid-ask spread is on average about 1 basis point lower, and it offers on average 0.6 basis points less in yield. For a ten-year bond, both the bid-ask spread and the yield difference between the on-the-run and off-the-run Treasury are usually about 3 basis points. This can only be explained by an investor preference for the immediate liquidity of the current on-the-run bond.

Market = Liquidity Provider.

Liquidity Provision As a Business: Market Making

You can think of a market maker on an exchange as someone who is providing liquidity. As a retail investor, you can sell your securities to the market maker in an instant, and it is up to the market maker to find some other investor who wants to hold it long term. To provide this liquidity, the market maker earns the bid-ask spread—a part of the liquidity premium.

Liquidity provision is an essential business.

The provision of liquidity in markets of any kind is a common business. For example, you can think of antique stores or used car dealerships as liquidity providers that try to buy cheap (being

a standby buyer) and sell expensive (being a standby seller). Being a liquidity provider can require big risks and capital outlays. If it were easy, everyone could do it—and then competition would ensure that there would be no more money in liquidity provision!

Liquidity Runs

Liquidity crises are extremely interesting.

How the liquidity run in the 2008 Great Recession spread.

If you are liquid in a liquidity crisis, you can earn a lot of money.

The most remarkable empirical regularity about liquidity, however, is that every few years, investors in all markets suddenly seem to prefer only the most liquid securities. This is called a **flight to quality** or **run on liquidity**. In such situations, the spreads on almost all bonds—regardless of whether they are Latin American, European, corporate, mortgage-related, and so on—relative to Treasuries tend to widen all at the same time.

In early 2008, with the Great Recession, the U.S. economy was facing just such a run on liquidity. It started in the mortgage sector, then spread to many other bonds. Every fund and bank was afraid that its investors would pull their lines of credit. Thus, they themselves were pulling back all lines of credit that they had extended to their clients (often other banks and funds). Many were selling even highly rated securities for low prices (sometimes fire-sale prices), just to avoid being caught themselves in an even worse liquidity run. There were many extremely curious pricing oddities during the 2008 liquidity run, but they were difficult to exploit by arbitrageurs (because no one would trust lending them the money to execute these arbitrages). For example, two-year bonds issued by a federal government agency, GNMA, and thus always fully backed by the federal government, traded at a full 200 basis points higher than the equivalent Treasuries.

Selling liquidity in order to collect the liquidity premium is also a very common method for Wall Street firms and hedge funds to make money—perhaps even *the* most common. If you know you will not need liquidity at sudden notice or that you want to hold bonds to maturity, it can make sense to buy less-liquid securities to earn the liquidity premium. A sample strategy might be to buy illiquid corporate bonds, financed with cheaper borrowed money. Most of the time, this strategy makes modest amounts of money consistently—except when a flight to liquidity occurs and liquidity spreads widen. Exactly such a situation led to the collapse of a well-known hedge fund named Long-Term Capital Management (LTCM) in 1998. After Russia defaulted on its debt, the spreads on almost every bond widened—the average corporate bond spread in the United States rose from about 4% to about 8% in one week! LTCM simply could not find any buyers for its large holdings of non-Treasury bonds. On the other hand, those funds that could hold onto their positions throughout the crisis or that provided extra liquidity (buying securities that were now very cheap) did extremely well when liquidity returned to normal and their illiquid securities went back up in price. The same fate probably befell many financial firms in the Great Recession. Their own financiers demanded their money back quickly, but there was no liquid market to unwind positions quickly.

Q 11.14. What is the difference between a liquidity premium and a transaction cost?

11.4 Taxes

The art of taxation consists in so plucking the goose as to get the most feathers with the least hissing.

Jean-Baptiste Colbert

Dilbert on tax code: 2013-04-06

Dilbert on Writing the Tax Code: 2013-04-10

Certainty? In this world nothing is certain but death and taxes. Benjamin Franklin

Our fourth violation of market perfection is taxes. They are pervasive and are often an economically large component of project returns. The actual tax code itself is very complex, and its details change every year, but the basics have remained in place for a long time and are similar in most countries. Let me summarize briefly what you need to know for this book.

Only a sketch of the complex tax code.

The Basics of (Federal) Income Taxes

The **Internal Revenue Service (IRS)** taxes individuals and corporations similarly. (There are some differences, but we don't have the space to discuss them.) Gross income is adjusted by a set of allowable deductions into taxable income, and a (progressive) tax rate is applied. **Before-tax expenses** (deductions) are better for taxpayers than **after-tax expenses**. For example, if you earn \$100,000 and there was only one 40% bracket, a \$50,000 before-tax expense would leave you

$$(\$100,000 - \$50,000) \cdot (1 - 40\%) = \$30,000$$

$$\text{Before-Tax Net Return} \cdot (1 - \text{Tax Rate}) = \text{After-Tax Net Return}$$

The tax code basics have been simple and stable, but the details are complex and ever-changing.

while the same \$50,000 as an after-tax expense would leave you with only

$$\$100,000 \cdot (1 - 40\%) - \$50,000 = \$10,000$$

Perhaps the most important deductible items for both corporations and individuals are interest payments, although individuals can deduct them only for mortgages. In addition, there are some other deductions such as pension contributions. There are also some nonprofit investors (such as pension funds) that are entirely tax-exempt.

➤ Other tax shelters, Sect. 18.7, Pg.504.

The tax code categorizes income into four different classes: ordinary income, interest income, dividend income, and capital gains. The tax rates on these classes differ, as does the ability to apply deductions on them to reduce the income tax burden.

Among the four classes of income, dividends receipts and capital gains are the two best in terms of tax treatment.

Ordinary income applies to most income that is not derived from financial investments (such as wages). Individuals are allowed only very few deductions on ordinary income, and the tax rate is the highest. The highest marginal Federal income tax rate was 39.6% in 2016. Most U.S. states also have an income tax, which can add up to another 10-15% on top of the Federal rate.

Interest income is basically treated like ordinary income.

Dividend income from shares in qualifying U.S. corporations are taxed at a lower rate, often about half that of ordinary income.

Capital gains on assets owned for one year or more are taxed at the lower rates, just like dividends. (Assets held for less than one year are taxed essentially at the same rate as ordinary income.) In addition, your capital losses are deductible against your capital gains. And unlike any other income, which is taxed every year, both short-term and long-term capital gains are taxed only when realized. Moreover, if you have moved for one year to a state with no income taxes, then you can realize your capital gain without paying state income tax—even if the appreciation itself has occurred mostly while you were living in a high-income tax state. (It is no accident that many senior citizens have been moving to Florida to avoid state income tax on their accumulated capital gains.)

The difference between marginal and average tax rates.

The tax picture here is rather incomplete.

From the perspective of an investor, capital gains are preferable to dividend income, and both are preferable to interest and ordinary income.

The **average tax rate** (the ratio of paid taxes to taxable income) is lower than the **marginal tax rate** (the rate on the last dollar of income), because lower marginal tax rates are applied to your first few dollars of income in the progressive U.S. tax system. For example, in 2016, the first \$9,275 were taxed at 10%, the next \$28,374 at 15%, and so on. Thus, ignoring a variety of subsequent adjustments, if you earned \$30,000, you would have paid taxes of

$$\text{Tax} = 10\% \cdot \$9,275 + 15\% \cdot (\$30,000 - \$9,275) \approx \$4,036$$

Therefore, your marginal tax rate—the one applicable to your last dollar of income—was 15%, while your average tax rate was about 13.5%. Economists almost always work only with marginal tax rates, because they are relevant to your earning a little more or less. For large corporations, the distinction is often minor, because beginning at around \$100,000 of income, the federal tax rate is about 34% (as of 2016). A corporation that earns or loses \$10 million has an average tax rate that is, for all practical purposes, the same as its marginal tax rate.

Of course, there are also other important taxes, such as state income taxes, Social Security and Medicare taxes, property taxes, sales taxes, and so on. In recent years, an alternative tax system, the **alternative minimum tax (AMT)**, has become as important as the standard federal income tax system. Because the AMT categorizes most income the same way, we won't distinguish between the standard income tax and the alternative minimum tax. If you have to file in multiple states, the details can become hair-raisingly complex. Professional athletes have to pay taxes in every state in which they have played a game, for example. Some retailers have to handle hundreds of (sales) tax authorities in the United States alone. It gets worse when multiple countries are involved. If you find yourself in such a situation, may the Force be with you!

IMPORTANT

- Remember that there are some tax-exempt investors, such as pension funds.
- You must understand how income taxes are computed (the principles, not the details), how to find the marginal tax rate, how to compute the average tax rate, and why the average tax rate is usually lower than the marginal tax rate.
- Expenses that can be paid from before-tax income are better than expenses that must be paid from after-tax income. Specifically, interest expenses are tax-deductible and thus better for the taxpayer.
- Capital gains and secondarily dividend income enjoy preferential tax treatment for the recipient, relative to interest and ordinary income.

Q 11.15. Is it better for the taxpayer to have a before-tax or an after-tax expense? Why?

Q 11.16. What types of income do taxpayers prefer? Why?

Q 11.17. Why is the marginal tax rate usually lower than the average tax rate?

The Effect of Taxes on Rates of Return

How does finance work if there are income taxes? Mechanically, taxes are similar to transaction costs—they take a “cut,” which makes investments less profitable. One difference between them is that income taxes are higher on more profitable transactions, whereas plain transaction costs are the same whether you made or lost money. And, of course, taxes often have many more nuances. A second and perhaps more important difference is that taxes are often orders of magnitude bigger and thus more important than ordinary transaction costs—except in illustrative textbook examples. For many investors and corporations, tax planning is an issue of first-order importance.

In the end, all investors should care about is after-tax returns, not before-tax returns. It should not matter whether you receive \$100 that has to be taxed at 50% or whether you receive \$50 that does not have to be taxed. This leads to a recommendation analogous to that for transaction costs—*work only in after-tax money*. For example, say you invest \$100,000 in after-tax money to earn a return of \$160,000. Your marginal tax rate is 25%. Taxes are on the net return of \$60,000, so your after-tax net return is

$$\begin{aligned} 75\% \cdot \$60,000 &= \$45,000 \\ (1 - \tau) \cdot \text{Before-Tax Net Return} &= \text{After-Tax Net Return} \end{aligned}$$

(The tax rate is commonly abbreviated with the Greek letter τ , tau.) In addition, you will receive your original investment back, so your after-tax rate of return is

$$r_{\text{after tax}} = \frac{\$145,000 - \$100,000}{\$100,000} = 45\%$$

Taxes are on profits, not on values or sales.
Nevertheless, they are often much larger than transaction costs.

Taxable investors (unlike tax-exempt investors) care about after-tax inflows and outflows.

State and municipal bonds' interest payments are legally exempt from (federal) income taxes.

Tax-Exempt Bonds and the Marginal Investor

In the United States, interest paid on bonds issued by smaller governmental entities is legally tax-exempt. (The Constitution’s authors did not want to have the federal government burden states’ or local governments’ efforts to raise money.) If you own one of these bonds, you do not need to declare the interest on your federal income tax forms, and sometimes not even on your state’s income tax form, either. (The arrangement differs from bond to bond.) The most prominent tax-exempt bonds are often just called **municipal bonds**, or **munis** for short. As their name suggests, many are issued by municipalities such as the City of Los Angeles (CA) or the City of Canton (OH). State bonds are also categorized as muni bonds, because they are also exempt from federal income tax. Unfortunately, unlike the U.S. Treasury, municipalities can and have gone bankrupt, so their bonds may not fully repay. (For example, Orange County California prominently defaulted in December 1994.) Still, many muni bonds are fairly safe AAA credit. Tax-exempt bonds are often best compared to taxable corporate bonds with similar bond ratings. The difference between the prevailing interest rates on equally risky taxable and tax-exempt bonds allows us to determine the effective tax rate in the economy.

For example, on June 20, 2016, [Bonds Online](#) reported

	2 Year	10 Year	20 Year
Tax-Exempt Muni, A	0.7%	1.7%	2.7%
Corporate Bonds, A	1.1%	2.7%	4.0%
Treasury	0.7%	1.6%	2.0%

In June 2016, taxable bonds offered 133 basis points per annum above munis. An investor in the 35% tax bracket should have preferred the tax-exempt muni bond.

Would tax-exempt or corporate 10-year bonds be better for you? Well, it depends. For argument’s sake, ignore default. If you invested \$100 into munis at a 1.7% interest rate, you

Investors above a critical tax rate should prefer the muni bond.

would receive \$1.70 of interest at year's end and Uncle Sam would get none of it. You would prefer the corporate bond. If you invested \$100 in corporate bonds, you would receive \$2.70. If your federal income tax rate is 0%, you would clearly prefer the \$2.70 to the \$1.70. However, if your marginal tax rate is 39.6%, Uncle Sam would collect $\$2.70 \cdot 39.6\% \approx \1.07 and leave you with $\$2.70 \cdot (1 - 39.6\%) \approx \1.63 . Because \$1.70 is better than the \$1.63, you would prefer the tax-exempt bond.

In economics, almost everything that is important is “on the margin.” Thus, economists like to think about a hypothetical marginal investor. This is an investor whose marginal income tax rate is such that she would be exactly indifferent between buying the tax-exempt bond and the taxable bond. Using the same calculations, for the 20-year bond, the marginal investor has a tax rate of

$$2.7\% = (1 - \tau_{\text{marginal}}) \cdot 4.0\% \Leftrightarrow \tau_{\text{marginal}} = 1 - \frac{2.7\%}{4.0\%} \approx 32.5\%$$

$$r_{\text{after tax}} = (1 - \tau_{\text{marginal}}) \cdot r_{\text{before tax}} \Leftrightarrow \tau_{\text{marginal}} = 1 - \frac{r_{\text{after tax}}}{r_{\text{before tax}}}$$

Any investor with a marginal income tax rate above 32.5% (such as a high-income retail investor) should prefer the tax-exempt bond. Any investor with a marginal income tax rate below 32.5% (such as your tax-exempt 401K) should prefer the taxable bond. When economists think more generally about how assets are priced, they also use this tax rate as the effective economy-wide one.

Q 11.18. What were the marginal investor's tax rates on 2-year and 10-year bonds in June 2016?

Q 11.19. If your tax rate is 20%, what interest rate do you earn in after-tax terms if the before-tax interest rate is 6%?

Q 11.20. If the marginal investor's tax rate is 30% and taxable bonds offer a rate of return of 6%, what rate of return do equivalent muni bonds offer?

Taxes in Net Present Values

Again, as with transaction costs, you should take care to work only with cash in the same units—here, this means cash that you can use for consumption. Again, it should not matter whether you receive \$100 that has to be taxed at 50% or whether you receive \$50 that does not have to be taxed. As far as NPV is concerned, you should compute everything in after-tax dollars. This includes all cash flows, whether they occur today or tomorrow, and whether they are inflows or outflows.

IMPORTANT

You must compute the after-tax opportunity cost of capital.

Perform all NPV calculations in *after-tax* money. This applies both to the expected cash flows and to the opportunity cost of capital.

Unfortunately, you cannot simply discount before-tax cash flows with the before-tax cost of capital (wrong!) and expect to come up with the same result as when you discount after-tax cash flows with the after-tax cost of capital (right!).

For example, consider a project that costs \$10,000 and returns \$13,000 next year. Your tax rate is 40%, and 1-year equivalently risky bonds return 25% if their income is taxable and 10% if their income is not taxable. First, you must decide what your opportunity cost of capital is. Section 11.4 showed that if you invest \$100 into taxables, you will receive \$125 but the IRS will confiscate $(\$125 - \$100) \cdot 40\% = \$10$. You will thus own \$115 in after-tax wealth. Tax-exempts grow only to \$110, so you prefer the taxable bond—it is the taxable equally risky bond that determines your opportunity cost of capital. Your equivalent after-tax rate of return is therefore 15%. This 15% is your after-tax “opportunity” cost of capital—it is your best alternative use of capital elsewhere.

Return to your \$10,000 project now. You know that your taxable project returns 30% taxable (\$3,000), while taxable bonds return 25% (\$2,500), so NPV should tell you to take this project. Uncle Sam will confiscate $40\% \cdot \$3,000 = \$1,200$, leaving you with \$11,800. Therefore, the NPV of your project is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{NPV} &= -\$10,000 + \frac{\$11,800}{1 + 15\%} \approx \$260.87 \quad (\text{after-tax cash flows and after-tax cost of capital}) \\ C_0 &+ \frac{E(C_1)}{1 + E(r_1)} \end{aligned}$$

Your opportunity cost of capital depends on your own tax rate.

You must discount your after-tax expected cash flows with your after-tax opportunity cost of capital.

It makes intuitive sense: If you had invested money into the bonds, you would have ended up with \$11,500. Instead, you will end up with \$11,800—the \$300 difference occurring next year. Discounted, the \$261 seems intuitively correct. Of course, there are an infinite number of ways of getting *incorrect* solutions, but let me point out a few. None of the following calculations that use the before-tax expected cash flows (and try different discount rates) give the same correct result of \$260.87:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{NPV} &\neq -\$10,000 + \frac{\$13,000}{1 + 25\%} = \$400 \quad (\text{taxable cash flows, taxable cost of capital}) \\ \text{NPV} &\neq -\$10,000 + \frac{\$13,000}{1 + 15\%} \approx \$1,304.35 \quad (\text{taxable cash flows, after-tax cost}) \\ \text{NPV} &\neq -\$10,000 + \frac{\$13,000}{1 + 10\%} \approx \$1,818.18 \quad (\text{taxable cash flows, muni-tax-exempt cost}) \end{aligned}$$

Here are incorrect shortcut attempts, working with before-tax cash flows and/or before-tax costs of capital.

You have no choice: To get the correct answer of \$260.87, *you cannot work with before-tax expected cash flows*. Instead, you need to go through the exercise of carefully computing after-tax cash flows and discounting with your after-tax opportunity cost of capital.

You know that computing after-tax cash flows is a pain. Can you at least compare two *equally* taxable projects in terms of their before-tax NPV? If one project is better than the other in before-tax terms, is it also better in after-tax terms? If yes, then you could at least do relative capital budgeting with before-tax project cash flows. This may or may not work, and here is why. Compare project SAFE, which costs \$1,000 and will provide \$1,500 this evening; and project UNSAFE, which costs \$1,000 and will provide either \$500 or \$2,500 this evening with equal probability. The expected payout is the same, and the cost of capital is practically 0% for 1 day. If you are in the 20% marginal tax bracket, project SAFE will leave you with \$500 in taxable earnings. The IRS will collect $20\% \cdot (\$1,500 - \$1,000) = \$100$, leaving you with +\$400 in after-tax net return. Project UNSAFE will either give you \$1,500 or -\$500 in taxable earnings.

In some, but not all, situations, you can compare two projects based on their before-tax NPVs.

- If the project succeeds, you would send $\$1,500 \cdot 20\% = \300 to the IRS. If the project fails, and if you can use the losses to offset gains from projects elsewhere, you would send $\$500 \cdot 20\% = \100 less to the IRS (because your taxable profits elsewhere would be reduced). In this case, projects SAFE and UNSAFE would have the same expected tax costs and after-tax cash flows: $\frac{1}{2} \cdot \$300 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot (-\$100) = \$100$.

- If you drop into a different tax bracket, say, 25%, when your (additional) net income is \$1,000 higher, then project UNSAFE becomes less desirable than project SAFE. For the \$1,500 income, the first \$500 would still cost you \$100 in tax, but the remaining \$1,000 would cost you \$250. Thus, your project's marginal tax obligation would be either \$350 or -\$100, for an expected tax burden of \$125. (The same logic applies if your losses would make you fall into a lower tax bracket—the UNSAFE project would become less desirable, because the tax reduction would be worth less.)
- If you have no capital gains elsewhere that you can reduce with the UNSAFE project capital loss, then the UNSAFE project would again be worth less. Corporations can ask for a tax refund on old gains, so the unrealized tax loss factor is less binding than it is for individuals, who may have to carry the capital loss forward until they have sufficient income again to use it—if ever.

Thus, whether you can compare projects on a before-tax basis depends on whether you have perfect symmetry in the applicable marginal tax rates across projects. If you do, then the project that is more profitable in after-tax terms is also more profitable in before-tax terms. This would allow you to simply compare projects by their before-tax NPVs. If gains and losses face different taxation—either because of tax bracket changes or because of your inability to use the tax losses elsewhere—then you cannot simply choose the project with the higher before-tax NPV. You will have to go through the entire after-tax NPV calculations and compare them.

IMPORTANT

You can only compare projects on a before-tax NPV basis if the tax treatment is absolutely symmetric. This requires consideration of your overall tax situation.

Two more tax-adjusting corporate valuation methods, WACC and APV, unfortunately have to wait.

You now know how to discount projects in the presence of income taxes. However, you do not yet know how to compute the proper discount rate for projects that are financed by debt and equity, because debt and equity face different tax consequences. Unfortunately, you will have to wait until Chapter 18 before we can do a good job discussing the two suitable methods—called adjusted present value (APV) and the weighted average cost of capital (WACC)—to handle differential taxation for different corporate securities.

Q 11.21. You have a project that costs \$50,000 and will return \$80,000 in 3 years. Your marginal capital gains tax rate on the \$30,000 gain will be 37.5%. Treasuries pay a rate of return of 8% per year; munis pay a rate of return of 3% per year. What is the NPV of your project?

Q 11.22. You are in the 33.3% tax bracket. A project will return \$14,000 in 1 year for a \$12,000 investment—a \$2,000 net return. The equivalent tax-exempt bond yields 15%, and the equivalent taxable bond yields 20%. What is the NPV of this project?

Q 11.23. It is not uncommon for individuals to forget about taxes, especially when investments are small and payoffs are large but rare. Say you are in the 30% tax bracket. Is the NPV of a \$1 lottery ticket that pays off taxable winnings of \$10 million with a chance of 1 in 9 million positive or negative? How would it change if you could buy the lottery ticket with before-tax money?

Tax Timing

In many situations, the IRS does not allow reinvestment of funds generated by a project without an interim tax penalty. This can be important when you compare one long-term investment to multiple short-term investments that are otherwise identical. For example, consider a farmer in the 40% tax bracket who buys grain (seed) that costs \$300 and that triples in value every year.

- If the IRS considers this farm to be *one long-term two-year project*, the farmer can use the first harvest to reseed, so \$300 seed turns into \$900 in one year and then into a \$2,700 harvest in two years. Uncle Sam considers the profit to be \$2,400 and so collects taxes of \$960. The farmer is left with an after-tax cash flow of $\$2,700 - \$960 = \$1,740$.
- If the IRS considers this production to be *two consecutive 1-year projects*, then the farmer's after-tax profits are lower. He ends up with \$900 at the end of the first year. Uncle Sam collects $40\% \cdot (\$900 - \$300) = \$240$, leaving the farmer with \$660. Replanted, the \$660 grows to \$1,980, of which the IRS collects another $40\% \cdot (\$1,980 - \$660) = \$528$. The farmer is left with an after-tax cash flow of $\$1,980 - \$528 = \$1,452$.

The discrepancy between \$1,740 and \$1,452 is due to the fact that the long-term project can avoid the interim taxation. Similar issues arise whenever an expense can be reclassified from “reinvested profits” (taxed, if not with some credit at reinvestment time) into “necessary maintenance.”

It is often better if you are taxed only at the very end, rather than in the interim.

Q 11.24. Assume that your marginal tax rate is 25%. Assume that the IRS would tax payments only when made. (Sorry, in real life, the IRS nowadays does tax zero-bonds even when they do not yet pay out anything.)

1. What is the future value of a 10-year zero-bond priced at a YTM of 10%? How much does the IRS get to keep?
2. What is the future value of a 10-year annual level-coupon bond priced at a YTM of 10%, assuming that coupons are immediately reinvested at the same 10%?
3. What would it be worth to you today to be taxed only at the end (via the zero-bond) and not in the interim (via the coupon bond)? Which is better?

11.5 Entrepreneurial Finance

Now that you understand how to work with market imperfections, for what types of firms do they matter most? Market imperfections are probably mild for large, publicly traded corporations. These types of firms typically face only modest interest rate spreads between their (risky) borrowing and lending rates. Of course, their *promised* borrowing interest rates are a little higher than what they can receive investing their money in Treasury bonds. Yet, given that they still have some possibility of going bankrupt, large firms' required *expected* borrowing costs of capital are probably fairly close to the *expected* rates of return they could earn if they invested in bonds with characteristics similar to the bonds that they themselves have issued. Thus, large public corporations can often pretend to live in a reasonably perfect market. This also means that they have the luxury of separating their project choices from their financial needs.

For large companies, a perfect market assumption with equal borrowing and lending rates is reasonable.

In the world of individuals, entrepreneurs, and small companies, however, it is quite plausible that the costs of capital are often higher than equivalent expected savings interest rates. In fact, the most important difference between “ordinary corporate finance” and “entrepreneurial finance” is the degree to which their capital markets are perfect. Almost all entrepreneurs find it very difficult to convey credibly their intent and ability to pay back loans. And any credit that entrepreneurs receive is usually also very illiquid: Lenders cannot easily convert it into cash,

► [Altman study of bond default rates](#), Sect. 6.2, Pg.114.

For entrepreneurs, a perfect market assumption is problematic.

The expected costs of capital are often very high for entrepreneurs needing capital.

► Separation of Decisions,
Sect. 4.1, Pg.56.

Be careful: Don't believe entrepreneurial claims!
Often, high borrowing rates are just promised, not expected.

The courts apply an ad hoc discount to the values of entrepreneurial companies based on their limited access to capital.

Adding Market Imperfection Premium.

► Default Premium Deconstruction,
Sect. 6.2, Pg.113.

► Risk Premium Deconstruction,
Sect. 9.6, Pg.208.

should the need arise. Therefore, they demand a high liquidity spread, too. Many entrepreneurs even end up having to resort to financing projects with credit cards, which may charge 1,000 basis points or more above Treasury.

In sum, small firms often face extraordinarily high differentials between expected borrowing and lending rates. Entrepreneurs' high borrowing costs can thus prevent them from taking many projects that they would have undertaken if they had the money already on hand. Cash-on-hand can become a prime determinant of all their decisions. More established firms or wealthier entrepreneurs should optimally take more projects than poorer entrepreneurs. Yes, the world is not fair.

However, be careful in the real world before you believe the claims of entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurs also tend to have notoriously overoptimistic views of their prospects. Even venture capital—the financing vehicle for many high-tech entrepreneurial ventures—may advertise rates of return of 30% per year or more, but they seem to have managed to return only a couple of percentage points above the risk-free rate over the last 30 years *on average*. Adjusting for the correct default rates may actually mean that entrepreneurs face only high *promised* borrowing costs, not high *expected* borrowing costs. Thus, the large quoted spread between entrepreneurs' borrowing and lending rates, which is really all that you can easily observe, likely has a large component that is due not to information disagreements but simply to credit risk.

This issue of how to deal with market imperfections for small firms also arises frequently in the courts, where a cost-of-capital estimate is necessary to compute the value for an entrepreneurial enterprise—for example, for purposes of assessing the inheritance tax or resolving disputes among former business partners. (Such valuation services are an important revenue business for many finance professors and consulting firms.) It has become customary and court-sanctioned to compute first the value of an equivalent publicly traded business or company as if it faced a perfect market, and then to apply a **private discount** of around 10% to 30% to this hypothetical private firm value in order to reflect its limited access to capital. The amount of this discount is ad hoc, but it is better than no attempt at all.

Q 11.25. What are the two possible reasons why entrepreneurs often have to finance their projects with credit cards, which can charge interest rates as high as 1,000 basis points above Treasury?

11.6 Deconstructing Quoted Rates of Return—Imperfect Market Premiums

In Sections 6.2 and 9.6, you learned that you could decompose quoted rates of return into a time premium, a default premium, and a risk premium. Market imperfections can create additional premiums.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Promised Rate of Return} &= \text{Time Premium} + \text{Default Premium} \\ &+ \text{Risk Premium} + \text{Imperfect Market Premiums} \\ \text{Expected Rate of Return} &= \underbrace{\text{Time Premium} + \text{Risk Premium}}_{\text{provided by the CAPM}} \\ &+ \text{Imperfect Market Premiums} \end{aligned}$$

Quantifying imperfect market premiums is not easy, but we will try anyway. Unfortunately, there is not much that can be said about one of the imperfect market premiums—the premium compensating for differences in opinions. The nature of information disagreements is that they are idiosyncratic. But this does not mean that they are unimportant. As noted earlier,

imperfections can be so large, even in financial markets, that they may destroy a financial market's viability. Fortunately, the other three imperfections—taxes, transaction costs, and shallow markets—create premiums that are often a little easier to quantify than the premium associated with information disagreements.

Tax differences are often modest across assets in the *same* class. However, when there are assets that are treated differently from a tax perspective, the one with the worse treatment has to offer a higher rate of return. For example, municipal bonds are excluded from federal taxation. Therefore, non-municipal bonds have to offer a higher rate of return relative to these tax-exempt bonds. Similarly, unlike federal Treasury bonds, the holders of corporate bonds are subject to state income taxes. This means that corporate bonds need to pay a premium relative to Treasuries—a **tax premium**.

Transaction costs and deep markets also play important roles. The resulting premiums are often lumped under the general term “liquidity premiums.” The idea is that when given a choice between a very liquid security (that you can resell in an instant to many different investors in case you need money) and a very illiquid security, you will demand an extra rate of return to buy the less liquid one. We can thus extend our earlier premiums analysis to the following:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Promised Rate of Return} &= \text{Time Premium} + \text{Default Premium} + \text{Risk Premium} \\ &\quad + \text{Liquidity Premium} + \text{Tax Premium} \\ \text{Actual Earned Rate} &= \text{Time Premium} + \text{Default Realization} + \text{Risk Premium} \\ &\quad + \text{Liquidity Premium} + \text{Tax Premium} \\ \text{Expected Rate of Return} &= \text{Time Premium} + \text{Expected Risk Premium} \\ &\quad + \text{Liquidity Premium} + \text{Tax Premium}\end{aligned}$$

Again, there could be other premiums that should go into this formula, such as information premiums or bond contract feature premiums. I omit them because I don't have empirical evidence to show you. In addition, our concept of a clean decomposition is a little problematic in itself, because these premiums overlap. For example, it is quite possible that there are covariance-risk aspects to liquidity. (In other words, it could be that liquidity spreads increase when the market goes down, which would mean that they have a positive market beta.) Thus, a part of the quoted spread could be considered either as a risk premium or as a liquidity premium. Nevertheless, the basic decomposition in the above formulas is useful.

Let's go back to corporate bonds. You already learned in Section 6.2 that many corporate bonds have significant default risk, which means that they have to offer a default premium (relative to Treasuries, of course). Let me now tell you that, depending on credit rating, they have market betas between about 0.1 (investment-grade bonds) and 0.5 (junk bonds). This means that junk bonds may have to offer meaningfully large premiums to compensate investors for market risk, but for investment-grade bonds, any beta premium would be trivial.

However, many corporate bonds are difficult to resell quickly—most have to be traded over-the-counter, and not on an organized exchange. Therefore, they have to offer their buyers a liquidity premium. Finally, corporate bonds are subject to state income taxes. This means that they have to offer a tax premium.

Tax premiums are usually similar within the same “asset class.”

Let me expand the imperfect market premium into its component premiums.

► **Credit Ratings,**
Sect. 6.2, Pg.114.

Corporate bonds:
CAPM-type market covariance risk may matter for junk bonds but would be trivial for AAA-grade bonds.

Liquidity premiums could be high for all types of risky bonds. Tax premiums are probably similar among all taxable bonds.

Differences in expected rates of return by credit rating suggest that riskier and less liquid bonds earn more than safer bonds—but not as much as it seems.

Historical Performance

In the Ed Altman study you first saw in Section 6.2, the historical average rates of return on corporate bonds from 1971 to 2003 were as follows:

The typical investment-grade bond promised about 200 basis points above the equivalent Treasury bond. However, investors ended up with only about 20-40 basis points above the Treasury. Thus, about 170 basis points was the default premium.

The typical junk bond promised a spread of about 500 basis points per annum above the 10-year Treasury bond. However, investors ended up with a spread of “only” about 220 basis points. The default premium was therefore about 280 basis points.

This suggests that the default premium is the most important premium in stated corporate bond yields. Only about 20-40 basis points for investment-grade and about 220 basis points for junk bonds still remain to be explained by the sum of the risk, liquidity, trading, tax, and other premiums.

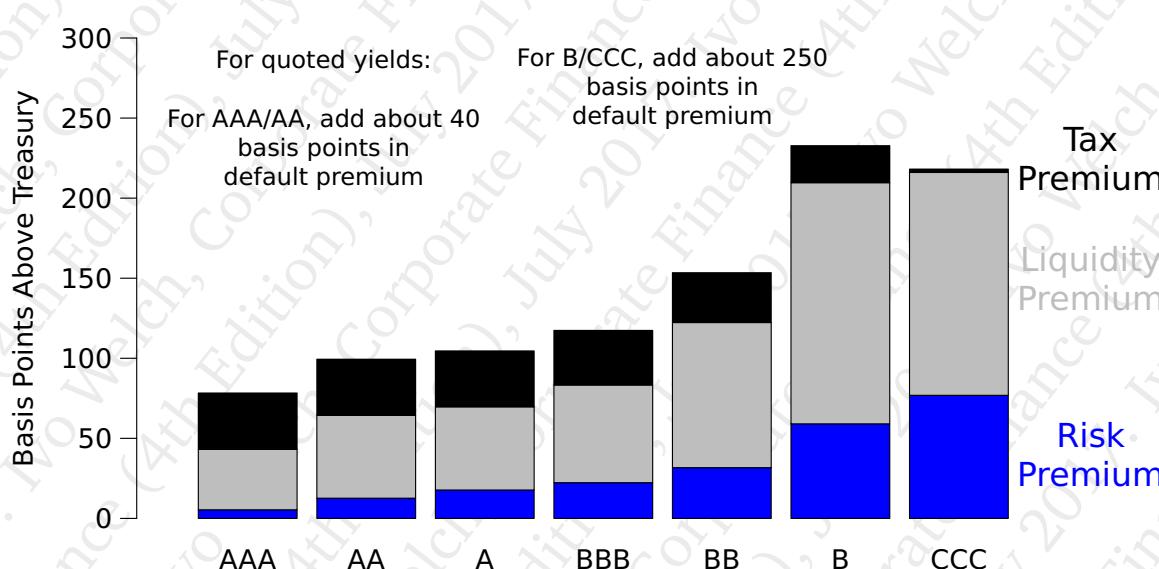


Exhibit 11.1: *The Components of Expected Rates of Return in Corporate Bonds, 1985-2003.* These are estimates of expected yield premiums for long-term corporate bonds. For highly rated bonds, the liquidity and tax premiums are much larger than the risk premium. For very low-rated bonds, the liquidity premium becomes relatively more important, followed by the risk premium and then the tax premium. To obtain stated (quoted) bond yields, you would have to add the default premium. The time premium has been taken out because all spreads are relative to the prevailing time-equivalent Treasury yield. For example, the average AAA bond would have quoted 7.2% when the average Treasury bond yielded 6%. The default premium would have added about 40 basis points, with the remaining 80 basis points having been compensation for risk, liquidity, and taxes. Original source: De Jong and Driessen, 2005.

De Jong and Driessen produced a similar study on bonds from 1985 to 2003. Unlike Altman, they decomposed the *average* (expected) rates of return into a liquidity risk premium, a market risk premium, and a tax premium. Exhibit 11.1 shows that about 40 basis points for AAA and 250 basis points for CCC bonds were pure default premiums that you would not have earned on average. With betas of around 0.1, the market risk premium was negligibly small for AAA and AA bonds, but then was higher for CCC-rated bonds, accounting for as much as 1% yield per year. The liquidity premium was about 50 basis points for highly rated bonds, and 100-150 basis points for junk bonds. Incidentally, many institutional investors are only allowed to hold investment-grade bonds. Thus, dropping from investment grade to speculative grade incurs a large liquidity penalty. You can see this in the sudden and unusually steep rise in yield for BB and B bonds. Over the last 10 years, this “step-up” has been even more dramatic. Finally, the state income tax premium was about 20-30 basis points for all bonds, except for the CCC bonds (which may simply be a data glitch).

Exhibit 11.1 decomposes expected rates of return into market risk premiums, liquidity premiums, and tax premiums.

A third piece of evidence is more informal. Since 1991, Vanguard has sold its VFITX government bond fund, its VFICX investment grade corporate bond fund, and its VWEHX junk-bond corporate bond fund. All three buy and hold intermediate-term bonds, with maturities and durations of about 5-6 years. A typical quoted spread over VFITX was about 130 bp for VFICX and 400 bp for VWEHX. Yet, from 2006 to 2016—that is including the Great Recession—VFICX beat VFITX by a more modest 80bp (6.1% vs. 5.3%) and VWEHX beat VFITX by 120 bp. After taxes on distributions, these realized performance spreads shrink to 20 bp and -20 bp. You read this correctly—over the last 10 years, taxable investors holding government bonds did no worse than investors holding high-yield junk bonds, despite the much higher risk and much higher promised yields on the latter.

Q 11.26. An AAA-rated bond promising to pay \$100,000 costs \$90,090. Time-equivalent Treasuries offer 8%.

1. Let's assume for a moment—just for this question—that the financial markets are neither risk-neutral nor perfect. What can you say about other premia in the AAA bond's quoted interest rate? (These premiums will be explained in future chapters; they include the risk premium, the default premium, and the liquidity premium.)
2. Let's assume for a moment that the financial markets are now risk-neutral. What can you say about other premiums in the AAA quoted interest rate? (These premiums will be explained in future chapters; they include the risk premium, the default premium, and the liquidity premium.)
3. Assuming that the liquidity premium is 0.5%, what can you say about the risk premium, the default premium, and the liquidity premium?

Q 11.27. How important are the various premiums for investment-grade bonds and junk bonds? (Omit the time premium.)

Life is tough—it does not always offer simple solutions.

► Inflation,
Sect. 5.2, Pg.82.

If you get lucky, you may get good estimates ignoring market inefficiencies altogether. Adjust a little maybe just intuitively.

You must learn how to think for yourself. I can now only teach you the method, not the solution.

Now work an example of how both taxes and inflation could interact.

11.7 Multiple Effects: How to Work Novel Problems

Of course, in the messy real world, you can suffer many problems (such as inflation, transaction costs, disagreements, sole potential buyers, and taxes) all at once, not just in isolation. In fact, there are so many possible real-world problems that no one can possibly give you a formula for each one. Thus, it is important that you approach the real world keeping a multitude of issues in mind.

1. Ask yourself in a given situation whether the assumption of a perfect market is reasonably appropriate. For example, in the case of large and possibly tax-exempt companies, you may consider it reasonable to get away with assuming a perfect market, and just work out the “perfect market” answer—a simple NPV, for example. Then think about the direction in which market imperfections would push you, judge the magnitude, and make an intuitive adjustment. You can thereby often work out a good answer without the enormous complications that the perfectly correct answer would require.
2. If you conclude that you are a long way from home (i.e., from a perfect market), then you must first determine which market imperfections are most important. Then you must work out a good solution by yourself. If you had hoped for the one magic bullet that tells you how to solve every different kind of problem you might encounter, I have to disappoint you. There are just too many possibilities, and the task is often hard. Probably the best way to answer such new and thorny questions is to internalize the method of “thinking by numerical example.” You really must be able to work out formulas for yourself when you need them.

Solving a Problem with Inflation and Taxes

For example, let’s see how you could approach a situation with both taxes and inflation. Always start by making up some numbers you find easy to work with. Let’s say you are considering an investment of \$100. Further, assume that you will earn a 10% rate of return on your \$100 investment and Uncle Sam will take $\tau = 40\%$ (or \$4 on your \$10 return). Therefore, you get \$110 before taxes but end up with only \$106 in nominal terms. What you have just calculated is

$$\begin{aligned} \$100 \cdot [1 + 10\% \cdot (1 - 40\%)] &= \$106 \\ C_0 \cdot [1 + r_{\text{nominal,before tax}} \cdot (1 - \tau)] &= C_1 \end{aligned}$$

Now you need to determine what your \$106 is really worth, so you must introduce inflation. Pick some round number, say, a rate of $\pi = 5\%$ per annum. Consequently, in purchasing power, the \$106 is worth:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\$106}{1 + 5\%} &\approx \$100.95 \\ \frac{C_1}{1 + \pi} &= P_0 \end{aligned}$$

Your after-tax, post-inflation, real rate of return is $\$100.95/\$100 - 1 = 0.95\%$. Knowing the numerical result, you need to translate your numbers into a formula. You computed

$$\begin{aligned} r_{\text{after tax, real}} &= \frac{\$100.95 - \$100}{\$100} &= \frac{\frac{\$100 \cdot [1 + 10\% \cdot (1 - 40\%)]}{1 + 5\%} - \$100}{\$100} \\ &= \frac{10\% \cdot (1 - 40\%) - 5\%}{1 + 5\%} &\approx 0.95\% \\ r_{\text{after tax, real}} &= \frac{P_0 - C_0}{C_0} &= \frac{\frac{C_0 \cdot [1 + r_{\text{nominal,before tax}} \cdot (1 - \tau)]}{1 + \pi} - C_0}{C_0} \\ &= \frac{r_{\text{nominal,before tax}} \cdot (1 - \tau) - \pi}{1 + \pi} & \end{aligned} \tag{11.1}$$

This is, of course, not a formula that anyone remembers. However, it is a useful illustration of how you should approach and simplify complex questions—numerical example first, formula second.

Taxes on Nominal Returns?

Here is an interesting question: If the real rate of return remains constant, does it help or hurt an investor if inflation goes up? Let's assume that the real rate of return is a constant 20%. If inflation is 50%, then the nominal rate of return is 80% (because $(1 + 50\%) \cdot (1 + 20\%) = 1 + 80\%$): You get \$180 for a \$100 investment. Now add income taxes to the tune of 40%. The IRS sees \$80 in interest, taxes \$32, and leaves you with \$48. Your \$148 will thus be worth $\$148/(1 + 50\%) \approx \98.67 in real value. Instead of a 20% increase in real purchasing power when you save money, you now suffer a $\$98.67/\$100 - 1 \approx -1.3\%$ change in real purchasing power. Despite a high real interest rate, Uncle Sam ended up with more, and you ended up with less purchasing power than you started with. The reason is that although Uncle Sam claims to tax only interest gains, you can actually lose in *real* terms because the interest tax is on *nominal* interest payments. Contrast this with the same scenario without inflation. In this case, if the real rate of return were still 20%, you would have earned \$20, Uncle Sam would have taxed you \$8, and you could have kept \$112 in real value.

If the real interest rate stays constant, does inflation hurt an investor?
Yes, because taxes are assessed on nominal returns.

If real before-tax interest rates remain constant, because the IRS taxes nominal returns, not real returns, you get the following results:

- Higher inflation and interest rates hurt *taxable* savers.
- Higher inflation and interest rates help *taxable* borrowers.

(Economic forces of demand and supply for capital may therefore have to adjust, so that real rates of return increase when inflation increases.)

IMPORTANT

Yikes.

For much of postwar U.S. history, real rates of return on short-term government bonds have indeed been *negative* for taxed investors.

Q 11.28. Assume that you have both taxes and inflation. You are in the 20% tax bracket, and the inflation rate is 5% per year. A 1-year project offers you \$3,000 return for a \$20,000 investment. Taxable bonds offer a rate of return of 10% per year. What is the NPV of this project? Extra credit if you can derive the formula yourself!

Q 11.29. (Advanced) Assume that the inflation rate is 100% per year and the nominal rate of interest is 700% per year. (This was also our apples example from Section 5.2.) Now, assume that there is also a 25% default rate. That is, 1 in 4 apples are returned with worms inside and will therefore not be sellable (and be worth \$0). What is your real rate of return? What is the formula?

Q 11.30. (Advanced) Assume there is a 10% nominal rate of return, a tax rate of 40%, and an inflation rate of 5%. (In the taxes-and-inflation example from Formula 11.1 we worked out that the post-inflation, after-tax rate of return was 0.95%.) Now, add a default rate, d , of 2%, where all money is lost (-100% return). What is the real, post-inflation, after-tax, post-default rate of return? (Hint: Losses are tax-deductible, too. Assume that the default rate reduces the nominal rate of return (on which taxes are charged) because you do not just take 1 such loan, but 1 million, which practically assures you of the exact default rate without any sampling variation.)

Q 11.31. If the private sector is a net saver (e.g., leaving the public sector as a net borrower), does Uncle Sam have an incentive to reduce or increase inflation?

Summary

This chapter covered the following major points:

- If markets are perfect, there are infinitely many buyers and sellers, no disagreements (opinions), no transaction costs, and no taxes.
- In perfect markets, *promised* borrowing and lending rates can be different, but *expected* borrowing and lending rates cannot. In imperfect markets, even *expected* borrowing and lending rates can be different.
- If markets are not perfect, capital budgeting decisions can then depend on the cash position of the project owner. NPV and interest rate computations can still be used, although you have to exert special care in working with correct and meaningful inputs (especially for the cost of capital). This is usually best done by thinking in terms of concrete examples first, then translating them into formulas later.
- Transaction costs can be direct (such as commissions) or indirect (such as search or waiting costs). It is often useful to think of round-trip transaction costs.
- Financial assets' transaction costs tend to be very low, so that it is reasonable in many (but not all) circumstances just to ignore them.
- In the real world, buyers often prefer more liquid investments. To induce them to purchase a less liquid investment may require offering them some additional expected rate of return.
- Many financial markets have such low transaction costs and are often so liquid that they are believed to be close to perfect—there are so many buyers and so many sellers that it is unlikely that you would pay too much or too little for an asset. Such assets are likely to be worth what you pay for them.
- The tax code is complex. For the most part, individuals and corporations are taxed similarly. You must understand the following:
 - How income taxes are computed (the principles, not the details)
 - The fact that expenses that can be paid from before-tax income are better than expenses that must be paid from after-tax income
- How to compute the average tax rate
- How to obtain the marginal tax rate
- That capital gains enjoy preferential tax treatment
- Why the average and marginal tax rates differ, and why the marginal tax rate is usually higher than the average tax rate
- Taxable interest rates can be converted into equivalent tax-exempt interest rates, given the appropriate marginal tax rate.
- Tax-exempt bonds are usually advantageous for investors in high-income tax brackets. You can compute the critical tax rate for the investor who is indifferent between the two.
- You should do all NPV calculations with after-transaction-cost and after-tax cash flows and costs of capital.
- Long-term projects often suffer less interim taxation than short-term ones.
- Entrepreneurial finance can be viewed as the finance of imperfect markets. Small and startup firms suffer market imperfections more than large and established firms.
- Market imperfections are often responsible for large differences in required costs of capital. Limited diversification, liquidity, tax premia, etc., can be responsible for higher costs of capital for many projects. Their magnitude can be much higher than the CAPM-type risk premia that compensate investors for cash-flow covariance with the stock market.
- Quoted rates of return on financial instruments contain not only the time premium, default premium, and risk premium, but also many imperfect market premiums (such as tax premiums and liquidity premiums). For many bonds, the CAPM-style risk premium is very small compared to other premiums.
- The IRS taxes nominal returns, not real returns. This means that higher inflation rates are bad for savers and good for borrowers.

Keywords

AMT, 258. After-tax expense, 257. Alternative minimum tax, 258. Ask price, 252. Average tax rate, 258. Before-tax expense, 257. Bid price, 252. Buy-and-hold, 253. Collateral, 249. Competitive market, 244. Covenants, 249. Day trader, 253. Entrepreneurial finance, 241. Flight to quality, 256. HFT, 253. High-frequency traders, 253. IRS, 257. Internal Revenue Service, 257. Liquidity premium, 255. Marginal tax rate, 258. Muni, 259. Municipal bond, 259. Off-the-run, 255. On-the-run, 255. Opportunity cost, 252. Private discount, 264. Round-trip costs, 251. Run on liquidity, 256. Spread, 252. Tax premium, 265.

Answers

Q 11.1 In a perfect market, borrowing and lending rates are identical. An important implication of equal borrowing and lending rates is that there is a unique price for which a product would be selling (which we can then call its value).

Q 11.2 A competitive market is only one of the four conditions of a perfect market.

Q 11.3 There is no perfect capital market in this world. However, the concept of a perfect market helps you evaluate what departures from a perfect market really mean—and even what kind of departures you should be thinking about.

Q 11.4 The perfect market assumptions are: (a) no differences in information, (b) no market power, (c) no transaction costs, and (d) no taxes.

Q 11.5 For the \$1,000 cost project:

1. You would have to borrow \$100 at an interest rate of 10% in order to take the project. If you take the project, you will therefore have $\$1,000 \cdot 1.08 - \$110 = \$970$ next period. If instead you invest \$900 at the 4% savings rate, you will receive only \$936. You should definitely take the project.
2. There is a trade-off between investing a smaller sum in the bank and a larger sum in the project now. Say you invest I . If you put it into the bank, you receive $I \cdot (1 + 4\%) = I \cdot 1.04$. If you put I into the project, you receive $\$1,000 \cdot 1.08$ from the project, and borrow $(\$1,000 - I)$ at an interest rate of 10%. Therefore, you must solve

$$I \cdot 1.04 = \$1,000 \cdot 1.08 - (\$1,000 - I) \cdot 1.1$$

The solution is $I \approx \$333.33$, which means that if you want to consume more than \$1,666.67, you should not take the project. Check: [1] If you consume \$1,700, you have a remaining \$300 to invest. The bank would pay \$312 next year. The project would pay off \$1,080, but you would have to borrow \$700 and pay back \$770, for a net of \$310. You should not take the project. [2] If you consume \$1,600, you have a remaining \$400 to invest. The bank would pay \$416 next year. The project would pay off \$1,080, but you would have to borrow \$600 and pay back \$660, for a net of \$420. You should take the project.

Q 11.6 False. A perfect market is still socially valuable, because sellers and buyers receive surpluses. The buyer surplus is the difference between the value that the good has to a particular buyer and the price at which this buyer can acquire it. (A similar argument applies to the seller—the non-marginal producer can sell the good for a higher dollar amount than it costs to provide the good.) It is only the “marginal” buyer and seller that get no surplus. All inframarginal buyers and sellers are better off.

Q 11.7 Yes, banks can quote different borrowing and lending rates even in a perfect market! Stated interest rates include a default premium. A perfect market is about equality of *expected* rates, not about equality of *promised* rates.

Q 11.8 True. In a perfect and risk-neutral market, the default rates may be quite different, but the expected rates of return on all investments should be the same.

Q 11.9 For the bond that pays \$100 99% of the time:

1. The expected payoff is \$99. The discounted expected payoff is $\$99/1.05 \approx \94.286 . The promised yield is therefore $\$100/\$94.286 - 1 \approx 6.06\%$.
2. This borrower would believe the value to be $\$100/1.05 \approx \95.238 . Therefore, the borrower believes he has to overpay by about 95 cents.

Q 11.10 Covenants, collateral, and credit ratings are all common mechanisms to aid the lender in determining the probability of default. Even if disclosure is not required, good borrowers would still want to do so. Therefore, no bank would trust a borrower who is not disclosing as much information as possible. To get credit, it is in the interest of the borrower to volunteer information.

Q 11.11 Microsoft is a large stock, just like Intel. Therefore, a round-trip transaction would probably cost a bid-ask spread of between 0.1% and 0.3%. On a \$10,000 investment, the bid-ask cost would be around \$20, and broker fees would probably be around \$10 to \$30 with a discount broker. Thus, \$50 (or 0.5%) is a reasonable estimate.

Q 11.12 Direct transaction cost components: broker costs, market maker or exchange costs (bid-ask spread), and other cash expenses (e.g., advertising costs and postage). Indirect transaction cost components: time taken to do research and/or searching for a buyer or seller, opportunity costs, anxiety, and so on.

Q 11.13 For this house transaction cost question, you first need to assume a proper discount rate for the \$4,000/month rent. At a 7% effective interest rate per year, your true monthly rate is $1.07^{1/12} - 1 \approx 0.5654\%$ per month). A reasonable assumption to value the rent stream is as a 1-year annuity, whose value is $\$4,000/r \cdot [1 - 1/(1+r)^{12}] \approx \$46,281$ today. Therefore,

$$-(\$1,000,000 + \$5,000) + \$46,281 + \frac{x \cdot (1 - 8\%)}{1.07} = 0$$

Solve this to $x \approx \$1,115,031$, so your capital appreciation must be 11.5% per annum for this project to be zero NPV for you.

Q 11.14 A liquidity premium is an upfront lower price to compensate you for transaction costs later on. This can allow you to earn a higher expected rate of return on the investment.

Q 11.15 A taxpayer prefers to have a before-tax expense, because it reduces the amount that Uncle Sam considers as income, which Uncle Sam would then want to tax.

Q 11.16 The first preference of taxpayers is to receive income in the form of capital gains (especially as long-term capital gains, which is usually under the control of the taxpayer). Their second preference is to receive income in the form of dividends. Both are much better forms of income than interest income or ordinary income. They are both taxed at lower rates under the U.S. tax code. (In 2016, long-term capital gains and qualifying dividends were taxed at 20% for tax payers in the 39.6% tax bracket. In addition, capital gains can most easily be offset by capital losses elsewhere, and there is no interim taxation before the capital gains realization.)

Q 11.17 The marginal tax rate is usually *not* lower but higher. The average tax rate is usually lower, because the first few dollars of income are taxed at lower tax rates.

Q 11.18 For the 2-year bonds, $1 - 0.7/1.1 \approx 36\%$; for the 10-year bonds, $1 - 1.7/2.7 \approx 37\%$.

Q 11.19 For every \$100, you receive \$6. Uncle Sam takes 20% of \$6, or \$1.20. Your after-tax rate of return is $\$4.80/\$100 = 4.8\%$. You could have also computed $(1 - 20\%) \cdot 6\% = 4.8\%$ directly.

Q 11.20 If the marginal investor's tax rate is 30% and taxable bonds offer a rate of return of 6%, then munis should offer $r = 70\% \cdot 6\% = 4.2\%$ to earn the marginal investor the same after-tax income.

Q 11.21 First, you need to compute your best opportunity cost of capital if you do not take your project.

- The Treasury will pay \$108 before tax. You could therefore earn $\$108 - 0.375 \cdot \$8 = \$105$ after taxes. This is an after-tax rate of return of 5%.
- The muni will pay only \$103 after taxes. This is an after-tax rate of return of 3%.

Comparing the two, your opportunity cost of capital—that is, your best investment opportunity elsewhere—is 5% *in after-tax terms*. Now, move on to your project. You will have to pay \$11,250 in taxes on \$30,000, so you will have \$18,750 net return left after taxes, which comes to an after-tax amount of $\$80,000 - \$11,250 = \$68,750$. Your project NPV is therefore $-\$50,000 + \$68,750/1.05^3 \approx +\$9,389$. This is a great project!

Q 11.22 Your opportunity cost of capital is determined by the tax-exempt bond, because $66.67\% \cdot 20\% < 15\%$. Your project's \$2,000 will turn into $66.67\% \cdot \$2,000 \approx \$1,334$ after-tax earnings, or $\$13,334$ after-tax cash flow. Therefore, your NPV is $-\$12,000 + \$13,334/(1 + 15\%) \approx -\405.22 . Check: The after-tax rate of return of the project's cash flow is $\$13,334/\$12,000 - 1 \approx 11.11\%$. This is less than 15%. You are better off investing in tax-exempt bonds.

Q 11.23 The \$1 is paid from after-tax income, so leave it as is. The \$10 million is taxed, so you will only receive \$7 million. With a 1 in 9 million chance of winning, the expected payoff is $\$7,000,000 \cdot 1/9,000,000 + \$0 \cdot 8,999,999/9,000,000 \approx 78$ cents. Therefore, the NPV is negative for any cost of capital. If you could pay with before-tax money, the ticket would cost you only 70 cents in terms of after-tax money, so for interest rates below $\$0.7778/\$0.70 - 1 \approx 11.1\%$ or so, the lottery would be a positive-NPV investment. (This assumes that you are risk-neutral, on average, for such a small idiosyncratic investment.)

Q 11.24 For comparing the zero bonds and coupon bonds, assume that you start with \$1,000 of money:

1. The 10% zero-bond would have a single before-tax payout of $\$1,000 \cdot 1.10^{10} \approx \$2,593.74$, for which the IRS would collect $\$1,593.74 \cdot 25\% \approx \398.44 in year 10. This means that you would keep an after-tax zero-bond payout of $\$2,195.30$.
2. The 10% coupon bond has an after-tax rate of return of 7.5% per annum, because it is always taxed at 25% in the very same year. Reinvestment yields an after-tax rate of return of 7.5% ($\$75$ in the first year on $\$1,000$). After 10 years, you are left with $\$1,000 \cdot 1.075^{10} \approx \$2,061.03$.
3. The tax savings on the zero-bond are \$134 in 10 years. Therefore, the zero-bond is better.

Q 11.25 Entrepreneurs pay interest rates as high as 1,000 basis points for one of two reasons: First, default rates are high. (This is not necessarily a difference in expected rates of return.) Second, market imperfections (especially information differences about default probabilities and liquidity premiums) are high. Banks cannot easily determine which entrepreneurs are for real and which ones will go bankrupt and take the bank's money with them. The entrepreneurs may or may not be better at knowing whether their inventions will work. (This can be a market imperfection.)

Q 11.26 For this bond:

1. The total promised rate of return is $\$100,000/\$90,090 - 1 = 11\%$. The time premium is the Treasury yield of 8%, which leaves 3%. The sum of the three remaining premiums (risk, default, liquidity) would be 3%. You cannot deconstruct the three without more information.
2. Risk-neutrality means that the risk premium would be zero. Therefore, you now know the default premium and liquidity premium sum to 3%.
3. Risk-neutrality means that the risk premium would be zero. You now know the liquidity premium, too. This means that the default premium is 2.5%.

Q 11.27 From Altman's evidence: The default premium seems more important than the other non-time premiums. From de Jong's evidence, ranking the remaining premiums: For investment-grade bonds, the liquidity and tax premiums seem to explain most of the return above the Treasury. Risk premiums are very small. For junk bonds, liquidity and risk premiums can become large. The risk premium is typically still lower than the liquidity premium. The tax premium becomes relatively small.

Q 11.28 What is your after-tax rate of return on taxable bonds? \$100 will grow to \$110 at a 10% interest rate before tax, minus the 20% that Uncle Sam collects. Uncle Sam takes $1.1 \cdot \$100 = \110 , subtracts \$100, and then leaves you with only 80% thereof:

$$\begin{aligned} r_{\text{after tax}} &= \frac{80\% \cdot (\$110 - \$100)}{\$100} = 8\% \\ r_{\text{after tax}} &= \frac{(1 - \tau) \cdot (C_1 - C_0)}{C_0} \end{aligned}$$

where τ is your tax rate of 20%. $(C_1 - C_0)/C_0$ is the before-tax rate of return, so this is just

$$\begin{aligned} r_{\text{after tax}} &= 80\% \cdot 10\% = 8\% \\ &= (1 - \tau) \cdot r_{\text{before tax}} \end{aligned}$$

Now, in before-tax terms, your project offers a 15% rate of return. In after-tax terms, the project offers $80\% \cdot \$3,000 = \$2,400$ net return. On your investment of \$20,000, this is a 12% after-tax rate of return. (On the same \$20,000, the taxable bond would offer only $80\% \cdot (\$22,000 - \$20,000) = \$1,600$ net return (8%). So, you know that the NPV should be positive.) Therefore, the project NPV is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{NPV} &= -\$20,000 + \frac{\$20,000 + 80\% \cdot (\$23,000 - \$20,000)}{1 + 8\%} \\ &\approx \$740.74 \\ \text{NPV} &= C_0 + \frac{C_0 + (1 - \tau) \cdot (C_1 - C_0)}{1 + r_{\text{after tax}}} \end{aligned}$$

You can now easily substitute any other cash flows or interest rates into these formulas to obtain the NPV. Note that everything is computed in nominal dollars, so you do not need the information about the inflation rate! (And you needed it in nominal, because taxes are computed based on nominal gains, not real gains.)

Q 11.29 First, a simple version of the answer: Your one real apple becomes eight nominal pseudo-apples (at 700%), which is four real apples after 100% inflation. One goes bad, so you are left with three apples, i.e., a rate of return of 200%. Now, the more complete version: Your numeraire is one apple (1a) that costs \$1. You will get \$8 in nominal terms, next year ($a \cdot (1 +$

$r_{\text{nominal,before tax}} = a \cdot (1 + 700\%) = 8 \cdot a$). This will buy apples that cost \$2 each ($(1 + \pi) = (1 + 100\%) = \2), that is, four apples $(a \cdot (1 + r_{\text{nominal,before tax}})/(1 + \pi) = 1a \cdot (1 + 700\%)/(1 + 100\%) = 4a$). However, one of the apples ($d = 25\%$) is bad, so you will get only three apples ($a_1 = a_0 \cdot (1 + r_{\text{nominal,before tax}})/(1 + \pi) \cdot (1 - d) = 1 \cdot a_0 \cdot (1 + 700\%)/(1 + 100\%) \cdot 75\% = 3 \cdot a_0$). Therefore, the real rate of return is $(a_1 - a_0)/a_0$, or

$$\begin{aligned} r_{\text{real,after tax,post default}} &= \frac{(1a \cdot \frac{1+700\%}{1+100\%} \cdot 75\%) - 1a}{1a} \\ &= 300\% - 1 = 200\% \\ r_{\text{real,after tax,post default}} &= \frac{[1a \cdot \frac{1+r_{\text{nominal,before tax}}}{1+\pi} \cdot (1 - d)] - 1a}{1a} \end{aligned}$$

The "1a" of course cancels, because the formula applies to any number of apples or other goods.

Q 11.30 Instead of 10%, you earn only $98\% \cdot 10\% + 2\% \cdot (-100\%) = 7.8\%$. Translated into a formula, this is $(1 - d) \cdot r_{\text{nominal,before tax}} + d \cdot (-100\%) = r_{\text{nominal,before tax}} - d \cdot (1 + r_{\text{nominal,before tax}}) = 10\% - 2\% \cdot (1 + 10\%) = 7.8\%$. Now, using the formula from Page 268,

$$\begin{aligned} r_{\text{after tax, real, post default}} &= \frac{V_0 - C_0}{C_0} \\ &= \frac{C_0 \cdot [1 + r_{\text{nominal,before tax}} \cdot (1 - \tau)] - C_0}{1 + \pi} \\ &= \frac{r_{\text{nominal,before tax}} \cdot (1 - \tau) - \pi}{1 + \pi} \end{aligned}$$

replace the nominal interest rate $r_{\text{nominal,before tax}}$ with the default reduced nominal rate $r_{\text{nominal,before tax}} - d \cdot (1 + r_{\text{nominal,before tax}})$, so the new formula is

$$\begin{aligned} r_{\text{post default, after tax, real}} &= \frac{V_0 - C_0}{C_0} \\ &= \frac{C_0 \cdot [1 + (r_{\text{nominal,before tax}} - d \cdot (1 + r_{\text{nominal,before tax}})) \cdot (1 - \tau)] - C_0}{1 + \pi} \\ &= \frac{(r_{\text{nominal,before tax}} - d \cdot (1 + r_{\text{nominal,before tax}})) \cdot (1 - \tau) - \pi}{1 + \pi} \\ &= \frac{7.8\% \cdot (1 - 40\%) - 5\%}{1 + 5\%} \approx -0.30\% \end{aligned}$$

Q 11.31 Uncle Sam would benefit from an increase in inflation, because he taxes nominal rates of return, not real rates of return. In the real world, interest rates would also have to rise to compensate private savers for this extra "tax" on money.

End of Chapter Problems

Q 11.32. Evaluate whether supermarkets operate in perfect markets.

Q 11.33. What are the perfect market assumptions?

Q 11.34. Your borrowing rate is 15% per year. Your lending rate is 10% per year. The project costs \$5,000 and has a rate of return of 12%.

1. Should you take the project if you have \$2,000 to invest?
2. If you have \$3,000 to invest?
3. If you have \$4,000 to invest?

Q 11.35. An entrepreneur is quoted a loan rate of 12% at the local bank, while the bank pays depositors 6% per annum.

1. If in bankruptcy the entrepreneur will not pay back anything, but otherwise everything will be repaid, then what does the bank believe the probability of failure to be?
2. What is the quoted default premium?
3. Compute the expected default premium. (Note that when you lose all your money plus the default premium, your rate of return can be below -100%. This is not only reasonable but necessary to get an average default premium that is what it should be.)

Q 11.36. "If the world is risk-neutral, then the promised and expected rates of return may be different but the expected rates of return on all loans should be equal." Evaluate.

Q 11.37. Go to the Edgar page on the SEC's website. Look up the *El Torito* company (also *Real Mex Restaurants, Inc*) S-4 filing on 2004-06-09. Describe the covenants and requirements to which El Torito is obligated. (Note: This may take a while, but reading this S-4 will introduce you to how these agreements look in the real world.)

Q 11.38. The bid quote on a corporate bond is \$212; the ask is \$215. You expect this bond to return its promised 15% per annum for sure. In contrast, T-bonds offer only 6% per annum but have no spread. If you have to liquidate your position in 1 month, what would a \$1 million investment be worth in either instrument? Which instrument should you buy?

Q 11.39. Look up on a financial website what the cost of a round-trip transaction on \$10,000 worth of shares in Exxon Mobil Corp would cost you today.

Q 11.40. You have discovered an investment strategy that can beat the market by 300 basis points per year. Assume that the stock market is expected to return 9% per annum. Unfortunately, to implement your strategy, you will have to turn over your portfolio three times a year. Think of this as rebalancing (selling and buying) 25% of your portfolio every month. You have very good traders, who can execute trades at a cost of only 7.5 cents per transaction (15 cents round-trip) on a \$30 stock. Does this strategy make sense?

Q 11.41. A day trader has \$10 million in assets. She buys and sells 30% of her portfolio every day. Assume that this day trader is very good and incurs single round-trip transaction costs of only 10 cents on a \$30 stock. Roughly, by how much does this day trader's strategy have to beat the benchmark in order to make this a profitable activity? Assume that the trader could earn \$200,000 in equivalent alternative employment and that there are 252 trading days per year.

Q 11.42. Search online for the current federal income tax rates on the four different types of income for individual taxpayers and corporate taxpayers.

1. What are these rates?
2. Assume that a corporation has just earned \$2 million in ordinary income, \$1 million in interest income, and \$3 million in realized long-term capital gains (net). Focusing only on the basics and ignoring deductions, what is its tax obligation? What are its marginal tax rates? What is its average tax rate?
3. Assume that you (an individual) have just earned \$2 million in ordinary income, \$1 million in interest income, and \$3 million in realized long-term capital gains (net). Focusing only on the basics and ignoring deductions, what is your income tax obligation? What is your marginal tax rate? What is your average tax rate?
4. How much would your state income tax, Social Security, and Medicare add to your tax bill? Is your state income tax payment a before-tax or an after-tax expense?

Q 11.43. If your tax rate is 40%, what interest rate do you earn in after-tax terms if the before-tax interest rate is 6%?

Q 11.44. On September 28, 2007, tax-exempt AAA-rated 10-year muni bonds traded at a yield of 3.99%. Corporate 10-year AAA-rated bonds traded at 5.70%. What was the marginal investor's tax rate?

Q 11.45. Go to the Vanguard website and look up VWITX and VBIIX.

1. What is the current yield from the tax-exempt Vanguard bond fund?
2. What is your state income tax treatment?
3. How does it compare to the most similar Vanguard taxable bond fund?
4. What tax rate would an investor have to suffer in order to be indifferent between the two bond funds?

Q 11.46. Consider a real estate project that costs \$1,000,000. Thereafter, it will produce \$60,000 in taxable ordinary income before depreciation every year. Favorable tax treatment means that the project will produce \$100,000 in tax depreciation write-offs each year for 10 years (nothing thereafter). For example, if you had \$500,000 in ordinary income in year 2 without this project, you would now have only \$400,000 in ordinary income instead. At the end of 10 years, you can sell this project for \$800,000.

All of this \$800,000 will be fully taxable as write-up at your capital gains tax rate of 20%. If your ordinary income tax is 33% per annum, if taxable bonds offer a rate of return of 8% per annum, and if tax-exempt munis offer a rate of 6% per annum, what would be the NPV of this project?

Q 11.47. You are in the 25% tax bracket. A project will return \$20,000 next year for a \$17,000 investment—a \$3,000 net return. The equivalent tax-exempt bond yields 14%, and the equivalent taxable bond yields 20%. What is the NPV of this project?

Q 11.48. The lottery gives you a 1 in 14 million chance of winning the jackpot. It promises \$20 million to the lucky winner. A ticket costs \$1. Alas, the lottery forgot to mention that winnings are paid over 20 years (with the first \$1 million payment occurring immediately), that inflation is 2% per year, and that winnings are taxable. Is the lottery a good investment? (Assume that you are in a 40% marginal income tax bracket and that the appropriate nominal discount rate is 10% per year.)

