

Fall 2008  
International Corporate Finance I

LECTURE 5 and 6  
**Valuing Risky Investment  
Project**

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1

**Evaluating risky investment  
projects**

- Alternative approaches:
  - Use tracking portfolios to value investment projects.
  - Use risk-adjusted discount rate value investment projects.
  - Actually, they are the same.
- Effects of leverage
  - Calculating WACC

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2

## Use tracking portfolio to value investment projects

- Find some asset or combination of assets that perfectly tracks the cash flows of the investment project.
- Apply no-arbitrage condition.
- The price of a tracking portfolio is the value of the investment project.

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## Arbitrage: Formal definition

- An arbitrage opportunity is:
  - A riskless profit opportunity that any individual who prefers more wealth to less will exploit.
- “Riskless” profit opportunity
  - The opportunity never loses money today or tomorrow.
  - The opportunity sometimes makes money today or tomorrow.
- No-arbitrage condition: there is no arbitrage opportunity

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## Examples of arbitrage trading (1)

- Suppose it was possible to buy the value set (hamburger+drink+potato) at the fast food restaurant and sell them individually at the ICU campus without a cost.
- Individually, items (hamburger=100, cola=200, potato=150) cost 450 as a total. Buying them as the value set costs only 430. So there would be 20 yen profit per trading.

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## Examples of arbitrage trading (2): Currency forward contract

- Two investment opportunities
  - Invest 100 thousand yen to one-year JGB
  - Convert 100 thousand yen to dollar and invest to one-year US treasury bill.
- If the FX had been fixed, both investment opportunities are riskless. So  $i_{JA} = i_{US}$
- Even with flexible FX rate, we can use the forward contract and perfectly hedge the FX risk.

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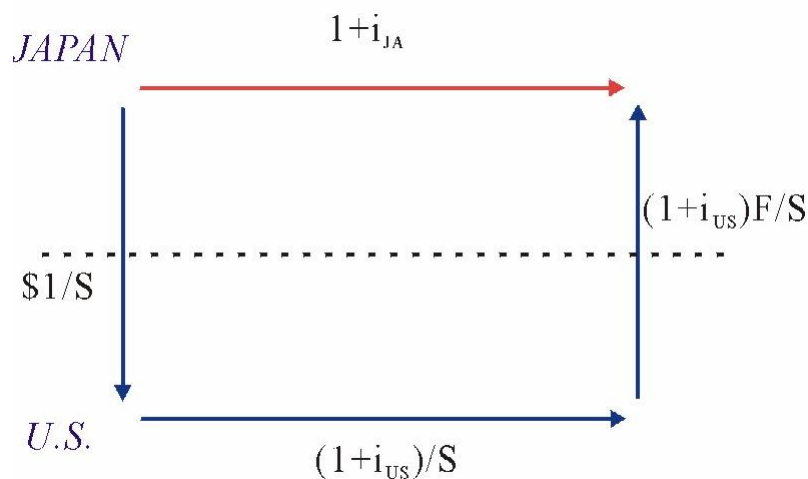
6

1. Convert 100 thousand yen in your hand to US dollar at the spot market for the rate of  $\$1 = \text{¥}S$ . You have  $100/S$  thousand US dollar now.
2. Invest  $100/S$  thousand dollar to US treasury bill today. After one year you will receive  $(1 + i_{US})(100 \text{ thousand}/S)$  dollar.
3. You sell  $(1 + i_{US})(100 \text{ thousand}/S)$  dollar today at the forward market, so that you will be able to convert your investment back to Japanese yen without any risk. Let  $F$  be the FX rate for the forward contract. Then after one-year, you'll have  $F(1 + i_{US})(100 \text{ thousand}/S)$  yen in your hand.

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## Covered interest parity

- Both investment opportunities do not include any uncertainty. So they are supposed to yield the same payoff.
  - Investment to JGB
  - Investment to US treasury bill, FX rate risk perfectly hedged.
- Rates of return from two investment opportunities must be same.
  - $1 + i_{JA} = (1 + i_{US})(F/S)$
  - Approximately,  $i_{JA} = i_{US} + fd$   
where  $fd = (F-S)/S$

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## Comparison method

- Find a **comparison** firm whose cash flows closely track the cash flows of the project of your interest.
- For simplicity, we assume both the project and a comparison firm are financed solely by equities, no debts.
  - Latter, we discuss why this assumption is important.
- Compare expected return of the project and a comparison firm.
- If  $E[r_{project}] \geq E[r_{comp.}]$ , you should invest to the project.

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10

## Problem of tracking portfolio approach

- Maybe there is no close comparison firm.
- Tracking errors can be very large.
- If there are tracking errors, use asset pricing models.
- Use any asset pricing model to calculate risk-adjusted discount rate or “risk premium”.

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## Use CAPM to determine risk-adjusted discount.

- The Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM): A Primer
- $E[r_i] - r_f = \beta_i (E[r_M] - r_f)$ 
  - $r_i$ : return of asset  $i$ ;  $r_f$ : return of riskless asset
  - $r_M$ : return of market portfolio
  - $\beta_i = \text{Cov}(r_i, r_M) / \text{Var}(r_M)$
  - Please do read about the derivation of CAPM by yourself.

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12

## Interpretation of CAPM

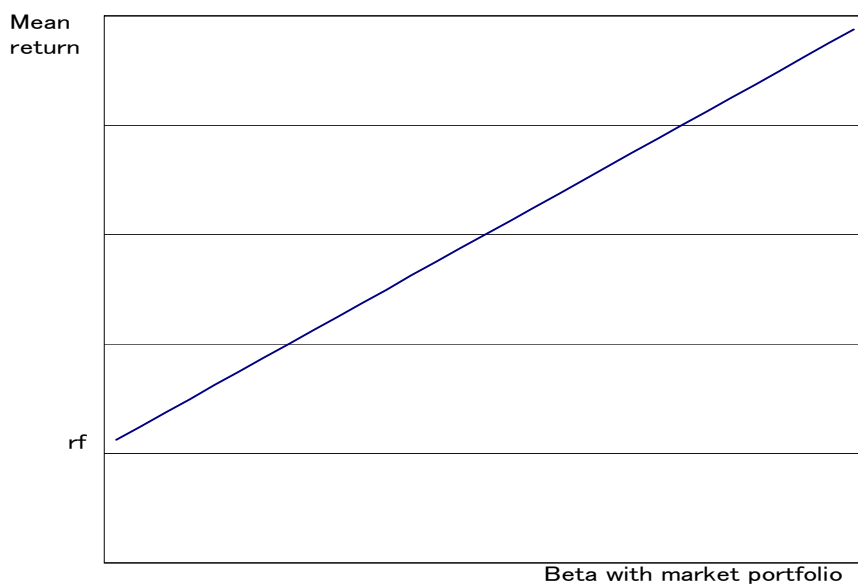
$$E[r_i] - r_f = \beta_i (E[r_M] - r_f)$$

- Relation between expected excess returns of asset  $i$  and market portfolio.
- Higher the covariance with market portfolio, higher the expected excess return.
- What is relevant for valuation is covariance risk, not variance.
- If correlation is zero, no matter how large the variance was,  $E[r_i] - r_f = 0$ .

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## Implementation of CAPM

- $E[r_i] - r_f = \beta_i (E[r_M] - r_f) + \varepsilon_i$
- Regression of “excess return of asset  $i$ ” on “excess return of market portfolio”
  - No constant term.
  - $Y_i = \beta_i X_M + e_i$

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## Why is the market portfolio a benchmark?

- By investing to many different assets, one can diversify risks.
- The risks that will disappear by diversification are not be priced, i.e. risk premium is zero.
- Only covariance with most diversified portfolio matters.
- Most diversified portfolio = the market portfolio

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## A digression: What is risk premium?

- Riskless asset:  $r_f$
- Risky asset:  $r_i$        $E[r_i], \text{Var}(r_i)$
- $\text{Var}(r_i) > 0 \rightarrow r_i > r_f$
- The condition that both riskless and risky assets are invested:  

$$U(W \cdot r_f) = E[U(W \cdot r_i)]$$
- Let “ $q$ ” be the premium required for a risky asset over riskless asset return so that the condition above is satisfied:  

$$E[r_i] = r_f + q$$

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## Determination of risk premium by CAPM

- Volatility of security  $i$   
 $= \beta_i \times \text{market risk} + \text{“idiosyncratic risk”}$
- $E[r_i] - r_f = \text{Risk premium of security } i$   
 $= \beta_i \times \text{“risk premium of market risk”}$   
 $= \beta_i (E[r_M] - r_f)$
- The project should be invested if and only if:  

$$E[r_{\text{project}}] \geq E[r_{\text{comp.}}]$$

$$= r_f + \beta_{\text{comp.}} (E[r_M] - r_f)$$

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18

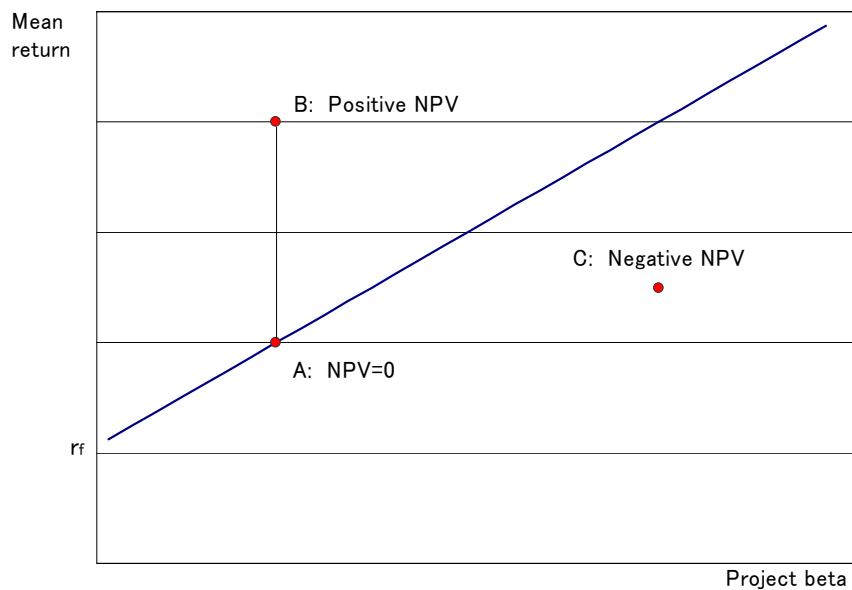
## Graphical expression

- If the project was located on or at the left-side of SML, the investment project should be accepted.
- Given the estimated project beta, expected return is sufficiently large.

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## Risk-adjusted discount rate

- Forecast future cash flow:  $E[CF]$
- Estimate the project's beta:  $\beta$
- Use  $\beta$  to calculate risk premium
- Discount forecasted future cash flow  $E[CF]$  by risk-adjusted discount rate

$$PV = \frac{E[CF]}{1 + r_f + \beta(R_M - r_f)}$$

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## Important points

- Tracking portfolio approach is implicit in risk-adjusted discount rate method.
- We assumed full equity finance, i.e. no leverage, in the discussions so far.

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## The effect of leverage

- In general comparison firms are financed by both equities and debts (leverage).
- In such a case, beta of comparison firm's business is different from the firm's equity beta.
- We still make an important simplifying assumption:
  - Modigliani=Miller's theorem (MM theorem) is satisfied so that the financial structure does not affect the firm's value.

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## Equity vs debt

- Cost of debt financing = interest rate payment on debt
- "Firm's value" minus "firm's debt value" = Value of firm's equities
- Cost of equity financing: Equity's expected return (interest rate + risk premium)
- Risk premium is required so that equity holders will bear the volatility of stock prices.

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## Calculating WACC : simple case

- WACC=Weighted average cost of capital
- “Cost of equity financing” x “the amount financed by equities”
- “Cost of debt financing” x “the amount financed by debts”
- Summing them up, then divide by total amount = WACC

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## Algebraic derivation (1)

- The firm's total value:  $V$
- The firm's future cash flow:  $CF$
- The firm's cost of capital (= expected return from its business):  $r_{Firm}$
- The firm's total value:  $V = CF / r_{Firm}$
- Capital structure of the firm:  $V = E + D$
- $r_{Firm} = CF/V = CF/(E+D)$

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## Algebraic derivation (2)

- Equity holders' future cash flow:  $CF - r_{Debt}D$
- So,  $E = (CF - r_{Debt}D) / r_{Stock}$
- $CF = r_{Stock}E + r_{Debt}D$ 
  - LHS: Future cash flow from the firm's business
  - RHS: The amount required to payout for stock holders and debt holders.

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## WACC: general formula

- Divide both LHS and RHS by  $V = E + D$
- Firm's cost of capital =  
"Ratio of equity finance" x "Equity cost of capital"  
+ "Ratio of debt finance" x "interest rate on debt"

$$r_{Firm} = \left( \frac{E}{E + D} \right) r_{Stock} + \left( \frac{D}{E + D} \right) r_{Debt}$$

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## The role of MM theorem

- We assumed MM is satisfied:
  - MM says the firm's value is not affected by its financial structure.
  - So  $r_{Firm}$  is constant.
- $r_{Stock}$  and  $r_{Debt}$  are determined in market and can be observed.
- We should use  $r_{Firm}$  to evaluate investment project, but  $r_{Firm}$  cannot be observed directly.

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## Firm's capital structure

- Capital structure on the balance sheet (stock value)
- Contingent claims for the firm's profits
- Simple case: Equity vs Debt
  - Preferred stock
  - Subordinate debt
  - Convertible bonds, warrants

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## Equity vs Debt

- Cost of capital for debt = Interest rate on corporate bond and/or bank borrowing
- Firm's value—Debts = Equity value
- Equity cost of capital : risk-free rate plus equity premium
- Equity premium = Additional cost the firm has to pay so that investors will bear the volatility of equities.

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## Modigliani-Miller theorem

- Foundation of Modern Corporate Finance
- Referred as “MM” hereafter
- Corporate Finance Doesn't Matter!

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## Exactly, MM theorem says

- Proposition 1
  - Capital structure is irrelevant as long as the firm's investment decisions are taken as given.

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## Little more precisely,

- Proposition 1: If
  - No taxes/transaction costs
  - Efficient Capital Markets
  - No bankruptcy costs
- Then, the value of the firm is independent from its capital structure.
  - e.g., debt–equity ratio, dividend policy, and etc.

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Example: Tsukuba Corporation, no debt  
 Share price is 1 million yen  
 Total value 100 million yen (100 shares)

	GREAT	GOOD	OK	BAD
EBIT	20	15	10	5
#of shares	100	100	100	100
EPS	0.2	0.15	0.10	0.05
ROE	20%	15%	10%	5%

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### Scenario 1

Tsukuba Co. repurchased a half of its own shares by borrowing: interest rate 10%

	GREAT	GOOD	OK	BAD
EBIT	20	15	10	5
Interest	5	5	5	5
EAIT	15	10	5	0
#of shares	50	50	50	50
EPS	0.3	0.2	0.1	0
ROE	30%	20%	10%	0%

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### Scenario 2:

Investor X borrowed 0.1million yen at interest rate=10% and bought one share of Tsukuba Co.

	GREAT	GOOD	OK	BAD
EBIT	20	15	10	5
Share Payoff	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.1
Interest	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Net profits	0.3	0.2	0.1	0

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## ROE is same for Scenario 1 and 2

- Two ways to understand proposition 1
  - Value additivity
  - Arbitrage
- Cost of capital is independent from the amount of the firm's leverage.

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## Implications for cost of capital (Discount rate for the firm's business)

$$r_c = \left( \frac{E}{E + D} \right) r_E + \left( \frac{D}{E + D} \right) i$$

- Firm's cost of capital =  
 "Ratio of equity finance" x "Equity cost of capital"  
 + "Ratio of debt finance" x "interest rate on debt"

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39

## Timberland Co.'s cost of capital

- Timberland Co.'s debt and equity

	Book value		Market value	
	Amount	Shares	Amount	Shares
Debt	100.0	27.3%	100.0	16.5%
Equity	266.2	72.7%	505.7	83.5%
Total	366.2	100.0%	605.7	100.0%

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## Timberland Co.'s debt

- Yield of Timberland Co.'s corporate bonds: 7%
- Exemption of corporate tax for interest rate payment
- Corporate tax rate: 35%
- $(1 - 0.35) \times 0.07 = 0.046$
- $r_{\text{debt}} = (1 - \tau) \times r$

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41

## Timberland Co.'s equity

- Use CAPM to calculate equity premium
- $r_{\text{stock}} = \text{JGB rate} + \text{risk premium}$   
 $= \text{JGB rate}$   
 $+ \beta \times \text{risk premium on market portfolio}$
- $\beta = 1.49$
- $r_{\text{stock}} = 5.1\% + 1.49 \times 7.5\% = 16.3\%$

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## Timberland Co.'s WACC

	Amount	Shares	After tax cost	Weighted cost
Debt	100.0	16.5%	4.6%	0.8%
Equity	505.7	83.5%	16.3%	13.6%
			<b>WACC</b>	<b>14.4%</b>

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43

## Cost of equity financing > cost of debt financing

- Is it possible to decrease the firm's cost of capital by increasing debt financing and decreasing equity financing?
- (If MM holds) **No!**
- When capital structure changes, riskiness of equity will change too, i.e.  $\beta$  will change.
- As long as MM theorem holds, the firm's cost of capital will not change.

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$$\sigma_{Firm} = \left( \frac{D}{D+E} \right) \sigma_{Debt} + \left( \frac{E}{D+E} \right) \sigma_{Stock}$$

$$\beta_{Firm} = \left( \frac{D}{D+E} \right) \beta_{Debt} + \left( \frac{E}{D+E} \right) \beta_{Stock}$$

But, beta for debt is zero. So reversing these relations, we have

$$\sigma_{Stock} = \left( 1 + \frac{D}{E} \right) \sigma_{Firm}$$

$$\beta_{Stock} = \left( 1 + \frac{D}{E} \right) \beta_{Firm}$$

## Relaxing the assumptions of MM

- Exemption of corporate tax on interest rate payment
- 100% debt financing is optimal
- The possibility of bankruptcy
- 100% equity financing is optimal

## With bankruptcy risk

- Debt ratio:  $D/(D+E)$
- $D/(D+E) \rightarrow 0$      $\beta_{Stock} \rightarrow \beta_{Firm}$
- $D/(D+E) \rightarrow 1$ : Beyond the threshold level, the probability of bankruptcy will be positive and beta for debt will be positive.

$$\beta_{Firm} = \left( \frac{D}{D+E} \right) \beta_{Debt} + \left( \frac{E}{D+E} \right) \beta_{Stock}$$

$$\beta_{Stock} = \left( 1 + \frac{D}{E} \right) \beta_{Firm} + \left( \frac{D}{E} \right) \beta_{Debt}$$