Session 3

Overview

- In order to calculate the cost of equity, two models exist:
 - Gordon dividend model
 - Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM)

Summary

- The Gordon Dividend Model
- 2. Adjusting the Gordon Model to Account for All Cash Flows to Equity
- 3. « Supernormal Growth » and the Gordon Model
- 4. Using the CAPM to Determine the Cost of Equity
- 5. Using the SML to Calculate Intel's Cost of Equity
- 6. Three Approaches to Computing the Expected Return on the Market
- 7. Calculating the Cost of Debt
- 8. Computing the WACC: Three Cases

1. THE GORDON DIVIDEND MODEL

1. The Gordon dividend model

- The Gordon dividend model derives the cost of equity from:
 - The value of a share is the present value of the future anticipated dividend stream from the share, where the future anticipated dividends are discounted at the appropriate risk-adjusted cost of equity r_e

M.J. Gordon, « Dividends, Earnings, and Stock Prices », Review of Economics and Statistics 41, 1959

1. The Gordon dividend model

$$P_{o} = \frac{Div_{0}(1+g)}{1+r_{E}} + \frac{Div_{0}(1+g)^{2}}{(1+r_{E})^{2}} + \frac{Div_{0}(1+g)^{3}}{(1+r_{E})^{3}} + \frac{Div_{0}(1+g)^{4}}{(1+r_{E})^{4}} + \dots = \mathring{a} \frac{Div_{0}(1+g)^{t}}{(1+r_{E})^{t}}$$

- Provided that $|g| < r_e$, $\overset{\stackrel{\checkmark}{\circ}}{\underset{t=1}{\circ}} \frac{Div_0(1+g)^t}{(1+r_E)^t}$ can be reduced to $\frac{Div_0(1+g)}{r_E-g}$
- Given a constant anticipated dividend growth rate, we derive the Gordon model cost of equity:

$$Po = \frac{Div_0(1+g)}{r_e - g}$$

The Gordon-model cost of capital:

$$r_E = \frac{Div_0(1+g)}{P_0} + g$$

1. The Gordon dividend model

The Gordon model cost of equity



Kellogg dividends, May 1996 – May 2006



Computing Kellogg's r_e with the Gordon model



2. ADJUSTING THE GORDON MODEL TO ACCOUNT FOR ALL CASH FLOWS TO EQUITY

- The Gordon model is computed on a per-share basis and for dividends only. In addition to dividends, cash flows to equity include:
 - Share repurchase accounts for around 50% of the total cash disbursed by American corporations to their shareholders
 - The issuance of stock by the firm is an important negative cash flow to equity.

<u>Dittmar, A.L., and R. F. Dittmarm, 2004. « Stock Repurchase Waves: An Explanation of the Trends in Aggregate Corporate Payout Policy. »</u>

 The basic valuation model of Gordon now becomes:

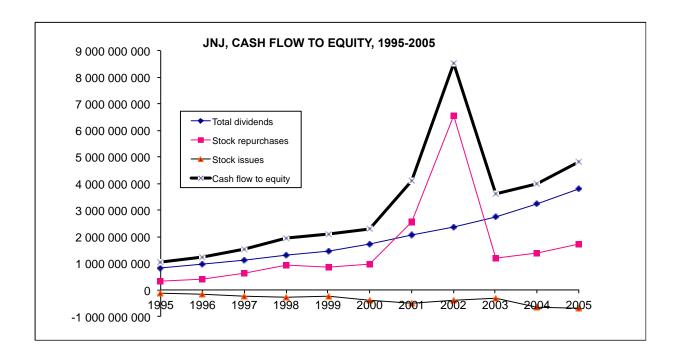
Market value of equity =
$$\overset{\not}{\underset{t=1}{\circ}} \frac{Cash \ flow \ to \ equity_0 * (1+g)^t}{(1+r_E)^t}$$

where g is the anticipated growth rate of cash flow to equity. This gives the formula for the cost of equity r_E as:

$$r_E = \frac{Cash\ flow\ to\ equity_0*(1+g)}{Market\ value\ of\ equity} + g,\ if\ |g| < r_E$$

Example with Johnson & Johnson:





 Is JNJ's r_E different when computed on a dividend-per-share basis versus total equity cash flows?



3. « SUPERNORMAL GROWTH » AND THE GORDON MODEL

• In finance examples, violation of $|g| < r_e$ usually occurs for very fast growth rates, so that $g > r_F$.

• The original dividend discount formula shows that P_0 would have an infinite value since when $g > r_E$, $\mathring{a}_{t=1}^{\ell} \frac{Div_0(1+g)^t}{(1+r_E)^t} = \frac{1}{2}$

 Supposed that the firm is anticipated to pay high-growth dividends during periods 1,...,m and that for subsequent periods the growth rate of dividends will be lower...

Using algebra, we obtain:

Share value today
$$= \text{Present value of dividends}$$

$$= \sum_{t=1}^{m} \frac{\text{Div}_{0} * (1+g_{1})^{t}}{(1+r_{E})^{t}} + \sum_{t=m+1}^{\infty} \frac{\text{Div}_{5} * (1+g_{2})^{t-m}}{(1+r_{E})^{t}}$$

$$= \sum_{t=1}^{m} \frac{\text{Div}_{0} * (1+g_{1})^{t}}{(1+r_{E})^{t}} + \frac{1}{(1+r_{E})^{m}} \sum_{t=1}^{m} \frac{\text{Div}_{m} * (1+g_{2})^{t}}{(1+r_{E})^{t}}$$

$$= \sum_{t=1}^{m} \frac{\text{Div}_{0} * (1+g_{1})^{t}}{(1+r_{E})} + \frac{1}{(1+r_{E})^{m}} \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \frac{\text{Div}_{m} * (1+g_{2})^{t}}{(1+r_{E})^{t}}$$

$$= \frac{\text{Div}_{0} * \left(\frac{1+g_{1}}{1+r_{E}}\right) * \left[1 - \left(\frac{1+g_{1}}{1+r_{E}}\right)^{m}\right]}{1-\frac{1+g_{1}}{1+r_{E}}} + \frac{1}{(1+r_{E})^{m}} \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \frac{\text{Div}_{m} * (1+g_{2})^{t}}{(1+r_{E})^{t}}$$

$$= \frac{\text{Div}_{0} * \left(\frac{1+g_{1}}{1+r_{E}}\right) * \left[1 - \left(\frac{1+g_{1}}{1+r_{E}}\right)^{m}\right]}{1-\frac{1+g_{1}}{1+r_{E}}} + \frac{1}{(1+r_{E})^{m}} \frac{\text{Div}_{0} (1+g_{1})^{m} (1+g_{2})}{r_{E}-g_{2}}$$

The Gordon Model with two growth rates



- Computing the cost of equity for a firm with supernormal growth rates
 - The supernormal growth model can be used to compute the cost of equity $r_{\rm E}$ for companies whose historical equity payout data overstate any anticipation of future growth rates.

Example: Wachovia Bank



 Perhaps the large historical equity payout growth rate is unsustainable in the long run and will slow down to « normal » growth rates after a number of years.

$$P_0 = \text{Current equity value}$$

$$= \sum_{t=1}^{m} \frac{\text{Div}_0 (1 + g_{\text{High}})^t}{(1 + r_E)^t} + \sum_{t=m+1}^{\infty} \frac{\text{Div}_0 (1 + g_{\text{High}})^m (1 + g_{\text{Normal}})^{t-m}}{(1 + r_E)^t}$$
(Note that we now use P_0 to stand for total equity value at time 0 and Div₀ for total equity payouts at time 0.) As shown previously, we can simplify this expression as follows:
$$P_0 = \text{Div}_0 \left(\frac{1 + g_{\text{High}}}{1 + r_E} \right) * \frac{1 - \left(\frac{1 + g_{\text{High}}}{1 + r_E} \right)^m}{1 - \frac{1 + g_{\text{High}}}{1 + r_E}} + \text{Div}_0 \left(\frac{1 + g_{\text{High}}}{1 + r_E} \right)^m (1 + g_{\text{Normal}}) *$$

$$\frac{1}{r_E - g_{\text{Normal}}}$$

• Given the dividend growth rates g_{High} and g_{Normal} , the current dividend D0, and the number of years m of supernormal growth, the cost of equity r_F is the internal rate of return

 Wachovia, two-stage gordon model and its function



```
Function TwoStageGordon(PO, DivO, Highgrowth,
Highgrowthyrs, Normalgrowth)
    High = 4
    Low = 0
     Do While (High - Low) > 0.0000001
     Estimate = (High + Low) / 2
     factor = (1 + Highgrowth) / _
       (1 + Estimate)
     Term1 = Div0 * factor * _
       (1 - factor ^ Highgrowthyrs) / _
       (1 - factor)
     Term2 = Div0 * factor ^ Highgrowthyrs
       (1 + Normalgrowth) / _
       (Estimate - Normalgrowth)
     If (Term1 + Term2) > PO Then
         Low = (High + Low) / 2
         Else: High = (High + Low) / 2
     End If
     TwoStageGordon = Estimate
End Function
```

4. USING THE CAPITAL ASSET PRICING MODEL TO DETERMINE THE COST OF EQUITY $R_{\rm E}$

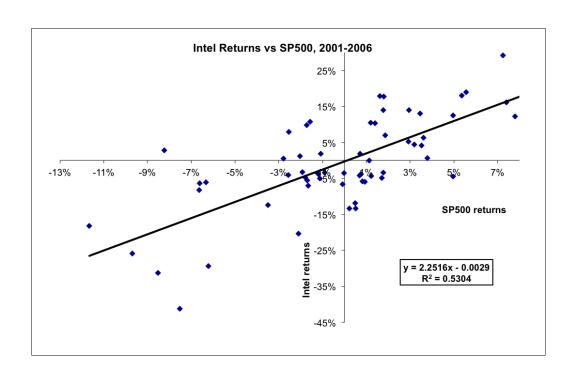
 The CAPM derives the firm's cost of capital from its covariance with the market return (see chapter 7 in Benninga for more details).

• The firm's cost of equity is $r_E = r_f + b[E(r_M) - r_f]$ where rf is the market risk-free rate of interest, R(rM) is the expected return on the market portfolio, and b is a firm-specific risk measure

$$\frac{Cov(r_{Stock}, r_{M})}{Var(r_{M})}$$

Computing the beta for Intel





Computing the beta for Intel



- \mathcal{D}_{Intel} shows the sensitivity of its stock return to the market return
- a_{Intel} shows that irrespective of changes in the S&P500, the monthly return on Intel over the period was -0,29%
- R² of the regression shows that 53% of the variation in Intel's returns is accounted for by bariability in the S&P500

Function tintercept

Function tslope

```
Function tslope(yarray, xarray)

tslope = Application.Index(Application.

LinEst(yarray, xarray, , 1), 1, 1) /

Application.Index(Application.

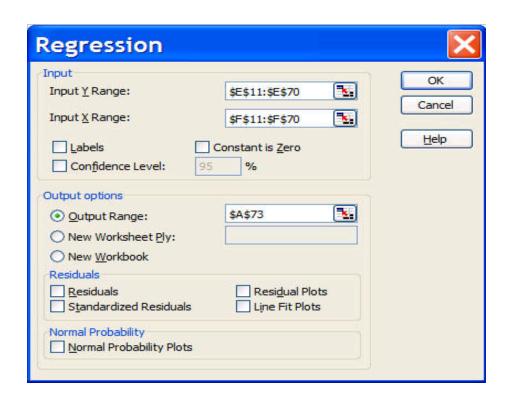
LinEst(yarray,

xarray, , 1), 2, 1)

End Function
```

- Using Excel's data analysis add-in
 - Tool/data analysis/regression





5. USING THE SECURITY MARKET LINE (SML) TO CALCULATE INTEL'S COST OF EQUITY

5. Using the security market line...

- In the CAPM, the security market line (SML) is used to calculate the risk-adjusted cost of capital
 - Method 1: the classic security market line
 - Method 2: the tax-adjusted security market line

5. Using the security market line...

- Method1: The classic security line market (ignoring taxes)
 - Cost of equity, $r_E = r_f + b[E(r_M) r_f]$ R_f is the risk-free rate of return in the economy (i.e. the yield of Treasury bills, could be found with Yahoo finance data)

 $E(r_M)$ is the expected rate of return on the market : equals to the historic average of the market return, defined as the average return of a broad-based market portfolio

Computing the cost of equity for intel



5. Using the security market line...

- Method2: The tax-adjusted security market line
 - Cost of equity $= r_f f(1 T_C) + b[E(r_M) r_f(1 T_C)]$ T_C is the corporate tax rate The intercept is $r_f f(1 - T_C)$ instead of r_f The slope is $E(r_M) - r_f(1 - T_C)$ instead of $E(r_M) - r_f$



6. THREE APPROACHES TO COMPUTING THE EXPECTED RETURN ON THE MARKET $E(R_M)$

- The historical return on a major market index
- The historical market risk premium
- The Gordon model

- 1: The historical return on a major market index
 - A simple approach is to take the average of the historical returns of a major market index (i.e. Vanguard's 500 Index Fund used as a proxy for the market)



- 2: The historical market risk premium
 - We had to the preceding Vanguard data (method1) data from the St. Louis Federal Reserve Bank on three-month Treasury bill rates

Vanguard 500 index – Treasury Bills



 Computing the cost of equity for Intel using the market risk premium

- 3: The Gordon model (calculate directly the future ancitipated market yield)
 - From $r_E = \frac{Div_0(1+g)}{P} + g$, we can obtain for the market portfolio $r_M = \frac{Div_0(1+g)}{P_0} + g$
 - Assuming that the firm pays out a constant proportion a of its earning per share, and with g to be the growth of the firm,

$$E(r_M) = \frac{a * EPS_0(1+g)}{P_0} + g = \frac{a * (1+g)}{P_0 / EPS_0} + g$$

with P₀/EPS₀ the price-earnings ratio of the market

Using the prince/earnings multiple to compute E(r_M)



7. CALCULATING THE COST OF DEBT

7. Calculating the cost of debt

- The cost of debt r_D is the marginal cost to the firm of borrowing an additional dollar. Several methods exist to calculate it.
 - Method 1: approximation of the average cost of the firm's existing debt
 - Method 2: using the yield of similar-risk, newly issued corporate securities

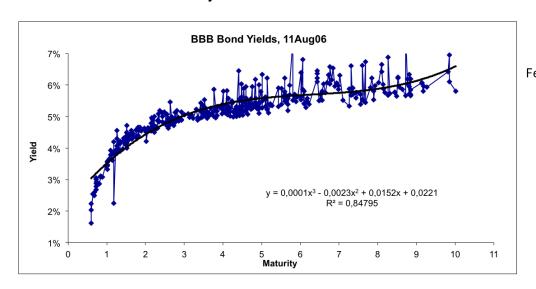
7. Calculating the cost of debt

- Method1: approximation of the average cost of the firm's existing debt
 - It is important to include all financial debt, without distinguishing between short-term and long-term items.
 - Liquid assets (cash and cash equivalents) are negative debt and should be subtracted from the firm's debt



7. Calculating the cost of debt

- Method 2: using the yield of similar risk, newly issued corporte securities
 - From Kraft's financial statements, in August 2006, the company was rated BBB+ (see page 68 for more details)
 - It is possible to impute the marginal cost of Kraft's debt from a yield curve





Computing the cost of borrowing for Kraft

8. COMPUTING THE WACC: THREE CASES

• Kraft Corporation: large divergence between the Gordon $r_{\rm E}$ and the CAPM $r_{\rm E}$

 Tyson Foods: no change in its dividend payout per share for four years

Cascade Corporation: negative leverage

Kraft

• Cost of equity r_E based on dividends



• Cost of equity r_F based on cash flow to equity



• Computing the cost of equity r_E using the market price/earnings multiple

Feuille de calcul

Computing the WACC



Tyson Foods

• Cost of equity r_E based on dividends



• Cost of equity r_F based on cash flow to equity



• Cost of equity r_F using the market price/earnings multiple



Computing the cost of debt



Computing the WACC



- Cascade Corporation
 - Cost of equity r_F based on dividends



• Cost of equity r_F based on cash flow to equity



• Cost of equity r_F using the market price/earnings multiple



Computing the cost of debt



Computing the WACC

