

Debt Overhang and Free Cash Flow Problems Implications for capital structure

Overview of the lecture:

- Debt Overhang and Underinvestment (Myers (1977))
- Benefits of Renegotiation with Existing Investors
- New Claims as Renegotiation
- Free cash flow problem (Jensen (1986))
- Free cash flow problem vs. debt overhang: implications for debt structure (Hart-Moore (1995))

Indirect Costs of Financial Distress

- Some evidence: firms in Financial Distress
 - Are constrained in their investment strategies, i.e., they have to pass up positive NPV investments
 - Follow short-sighted strategies to meet repayments
 - Need to sell assets below their value under best use
 - Are weakened in the product market competition (especially if competitors are financially strong)
 - Lose the confidence of stakeholders such as customers, key employees, suppliers.

THE DEBT OVERHANG PROBLEM

Myers (1977) shows how such indirect costs of financial distress can prevent a firm from exploiting valuable investment opportunities.

Main idea:

- (1) Risky debt makes equityholders reluctant to finance some $NPV > 0$ projects because they would have to share the returns with the existing creditors.**
- (2) Particularly so in financial distress, i.e., when a default is very likely.**
- (3) In principle, the claimholders could renegotiate to avoid inefficiency. Thus, the problem arises when renegotiation is imperfect.**

Model

Two dates ($t = 1, 2$), no discounting.

At $t = 1$, an entrepreneur is running a firm with:

- **Assets in place:**

- Generate $X \in \{X^F, X^S\}$ at $t = 2$
- with $\Delta X := X^S - X^F > 0$ and $p := \Pr[X = X^S]$

- **Existing investors:**

- Hold debt with face value K so that

$$R^F = \min\{K; X^F\} \quad \text{and} \quad R^S = \min\{K; X^S\}$$

- **Investment opportunity:**

- At $t = 1$, the entrepreneur considers undertaking a project
- Investing I increases p to $p + \Delta p$
- This investment has a positive NPV, i.e.,

$$\Delta p \Delta X - I > 0$$

- We assume that the entrepreneur has at least I available. You can think of I as either his own funds or the firm's free cash that he can either pay as dividend to himself or invest in the new opportunity.

At $t = 2$ – repayment

Assumption: The cash flow of the new investment cannot be contracted upon separately from that of the assets in place

Underinvestment

The existing debtholders' payoff is

$$R^F + \Pr [X = X^S] \Delta R$$

\Rightarrow if I is invested, their payoff increases by

$$\Delta p \Delta R$$

\Rightarrow the entrepreneur's payoff increases by

$$\underbrace{(\Delta p \Delta X - I)}_{\text{project's NPV}} - \underbrace{\Delta p \Delta R}_{\text{part accruing to existing debtholders}}$$

That is, the existing debt acts as a “**tax**” on investment.

\Rightarrow the entrepreneur invests iff

$$\Delta p \Delta X - I > \Delta p \Delta R$$

With risky debt ($\Delta R > 0$), the investment policy is distorted towards **underinvestment**. Indeed, projects such that

$$\Delta p \Delta R > \Delta p \Delta X - I > 0$$

should be undertaken, but are rejected.

Intuition:

- The entrepreneur would incur the investment's entire cost, but gets only part of its return.
- Holders of existing risky claim do not contribute to funding, but get additional $\Delta p \Delta R$.
- This transfer may prevent optimal investment policy.
- **NOTE:** With risk-free debt ($\Delta R = 0$), there is no distortion in the investment decision. Hence, to have the debt overhang problem we need $K > X^F$.

CAN RENEGOTIATION HELP?

Consider a project such that

$$\Delta p \Delta R > \Delta p \Delta X - I > 0$$

Since $K > X^F$, if $X = X^F$ the entrepreneur gets 0 and the debtholders get $R^F = X^F$

If the entrepreneur does not invest, his payoff is

$$p (X^S - R^S)$$

and the debtholders' payoff is

$$X^F + p (R^S - X^F)$$

Debt forgiveness can be Pareto improving.

Conditionally on the investment being made, the debtholders accept to reduce the face value of the debt from R^S to \hat{R} such that

$$X^F + (p + \Delta p) (\hat{R} - X^F) = X^F + p (R^S - X^F)$$

that is,

$$\hat{R} = \frac{pR^S + \Delta p X^F}{p + \Delta p}$$

If the entrepreneur has full bargaining power, the debtholders' payoff is unchanged but now the entrepreneur invests because he receives the project's entire NPV:

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= (p + \Delta p)(X^S - \hat{R}) - I \\
 &= (p + \Delta p)X^S - (pR^S + \Delta pX^F) - I \\
 &= \underbrace{p(X^S - R^S)}_{\substack{\text{entrepreneur's payoff} \\ \text{absent investment}}} + \underbrace{\Delta p\Delta X - I}_{\substack{\text{new investment's} \\ \text{NPV} > 0}}
 \end{aligned}$$

Note:

- If the entrepreneur did not have full bargaining power the result would not change

- Renegotiation (debt reduction) always restores the first best incentives (all $NPV > 0$ undertaken) only if the investment decision at $t = 1$ is verifiable
- When investment choice is not verifiable, a stronger condition than $\Delta p \Delta X - I > 0$ is needed to make sure that renegotiation leads to investment.

That is, unconditional debt forgiveness (without the entrepreneur's commitment to invest) might not restore efficiency. Indeed, to satisfy the entrepreneur's IC constraint, it must be that

$$\Delta p \Delta X - I > \Delta p \Delta \hat{R}$$

where $\Delta \hat{R} = \hat{R} - X^F$

Though $\Delta \hat{R} < \Delta R$, this condition may not hold even though $\Delta p \Delta X - I > 0$ holds.

Essence of the overhang problem:

Existing risky claims reduces the incentives to invest.

Crucial assumptions

- Claims cannot be (perfectly) renegotiated
- Cash flow from new investment cannot be separated from cash flow of assets in place
- All the above reasoning is not specific to the debt-like contracts. Underinvestment arises as soon as existing claims are risky (i.e., $\Delta R \neq 0$). The crucial implicit assumption is that the existing investors' claims **cannot be diluted**, i.e. **senior** to any new claims (see below). This is a typical feature of debt contracts.

NEW CLAIMS AS RENEGOTIATION

- **Can issuing new equity help if the existing claims are debt? No**

With competitive capital markets, the entrepreneur needs to promise new investors a repayment with $PV = I$.

\Rightarrow Nothing changes, $\Delta p \Delta R$ still goes to the existing investors. Hence, the maximum you can promise to the new investors is $\Delta p \Delta X - \Delta p \Delta R$, meaning no investment iff

$$\Delta p \Delta X - \Delta p \Delta R < I$$

- – The face value of debt is unchanged by the new issue
 - Debt is senior to equity \implies the new issue does not modify the existing debtholders' claim
 - The overhang problem is unchanged.

- **Can issuing new equity help if the existing claims are equity and existing investors are passive? Yes**

- Investment financed with new shares β . New investors break even

$$\frac{\beta}{1 + \beta} [(p + \Delta p) \Delta X + X^F] = I$$

- Existing shareholders (including entrepreneur) share the positive NPV.

Entrepreneur with fraction α gets

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{\alpha}{(1+\beta)}[(p+\Delta p)\Delta X + X^F] \\ &= \alpha\left(1 - \frac{\beta}{1+\beta}\right)[(p+\Delta p)\Delta X + X^F] \\ &= \alpha[(p+\Delta p)\Delta X + X^F] - \alpha I \\ &> \alpha[p\Delta X + X^F] \end{aligned}$$

and old shareholders get

$$(1-\alpha)[(p+\Delta p)\Delta X + X^F] - (1-\alpha)I > (1-\alpha)[p\Delta X + X^F]$$

Intuition: the new issue modifies the existing shareholders' claim.

That is, old shareholders' claim gets diluted from 1 to $\frac{1}{1+\beta}$. The new equity can be viewed as "forcing" forgiveness.

Implications

Main insights:

- Debt Overhang is a renegotiation problem
- Firms in financial distress find it hard to raise new funds, even for positive NPV investments (Note: Similar problem for countries)

Ex-Post Way to Mitigate Overhang Problem:

- Issue more senior claims
 - Avoids the “tax”. But it may not be feasible (covenants).
 - If new senior claims can be issued,
 - * existing debtholders may lose
 - * even negative NPV projects might be undertaken (will be discussed in sections)

Ex-Ante Ways to Mitigate Overhang Problem:

- Less debt
- Issue shorter maturity claims: If debt matures prior to investment decision, problem disappears.
 - If firm value + investment option exceeds debt claim, pay off debtors and invest, if positive NPV (in this case you can always raise money in the market to pay off debtors).
 - If reverse holds, debtors take control and invest if positive NPV.
- Separate project financing: No tax on new project by existing investors
- Debt structure which is more easily renegotiated
 - Bank rather than public debt
 - Fewer rather than many banks

FREE CASH FLOW PROBLEM VS. DEBT OVERHANG: IMPLICATIONS FOR DEBT STRUCTURE

- We just saw that too much long-term debt can lead to under-investment
- We will see now that if manager has too much cash and too *little* debt he may *overinvest* (Jensen (1986), Hart-Moore (1995))
- A combination of short-term debt and long-term debt can optimally mitigate the combination of the two problems

Managers as empire builders

How can investors design the capital structure to limit the manager's ability to do inefficient investment?

Assumptions:

- We will look at the optimal capital structure decisions from the investors' viewpoint.
 - Thus, manager's private benefits are excluded from efficiency considerations.
 - Implicitly: manager's individual rationality constraint does not bind.

- The manager's utility is strictly increasing in the assets under his control (level of investment he makes).
 - Thus, the agency problem cannot be solved by putting manager on incentive scheme, either because he does not respond to monetary incentive or because such a scheme is too costly.
- The manager cannot divert resources for his own use.
 - Given the manager's preferences, agency problem reduces to inefficient expansion (or continuation).
- Contractual incompleteness
 - The efficient investment decision to be taken at some later date is not contractible at the initial date.
- No renegotiation is possible between the manager and the investors (e.g. because there are many small dispersed investors)

We will consider two models of how debt can constrain the manager's empire-building tendencies.

FREE CASH FLOW THEORY OF DEBT (Jensen (1986))

Jensen (1986)

Main Ideas:

- (1) Managers control resources inside the firm.
- (2) They might misallocate some, especially Free Cash Flow (cash remaining after all NPV>0 projects).
- (3) Debt payments reduce the resources under manager control by pumping them out of the firm.

Model

- At $t = 0$, assets are put in place and the entrepreneur designs the firm's capital structure:
 - Short-term debt K_1 due at $t = 1$
 - Long-term debt K_2 due at $t = 2$ (will play no role in *this* model)
- At $t = 1$, the firm is run by a manager.
 - A cash flow X_1 is generated
 - The manager can decide the investment level I_1
- At $t = 2$,
 - A cash flow $X_2 \in \{0, X_2^S\}$ is generated
 - with $\Pr [X_2 = X_2^S] \equiv p + \Delta(I_1)$
 - $\Delta' > 0$, $\Delta'' < 0$, $\Delta'(0) > \frac{1}{X_2^S}$, $\Delta'(X_1) < \frac{1}{X_2^S}$

First Best:

$$I_1^* \equiv \arg \max (p + \Delta(I_1))X_2^S - I_1 \implies \Delta'(I_1^*) = \frac{1}{X_2^S}$$

Restraining Overinvestment:

Assumption: The manager invests as much as he can and does not respond to monetary incentives.

Or formally, he gets private benefits $Z(I_1)$ with $Z' > 0$

Not responding to monetary incentives means that there is no incentive scheme, e.g. no share α , such that

- the investors can afford to give it to the manager and
- it induces the manager to lower I_1 , i.e. the solution of

$$\max_{I_1} \alpha[(p + \Delta(I_1))X_2^S - I_1] + Z(I_1)$$

is equivalent to the solution of

$$\max_{I_1} Z(I_1)$$

Note:

- If private benefits were included in efficiency calculations, first best would solve

$$\arg \max (p + \Delta(I_1))X_2^S - I_1 + Z(I_1)$$

- will not change the essence of the story unless $Z(I_1)$ grows too fast (otherwise indeed it would be optimal to have as big I_1 as possible).

Problem: Allocate control over X_1 such that optimal reinvestment decision (non-contractible) is chosen.

Assumption: The manager “controls” funds inside the firm.

Assumption: “Free Cash Flow” $\equiv (X_1 - I_1^*) > 0$.

At $t = 1$, the manager reinvests all the available funds, as he bears none of the costs:

$$I_1 = X_1 - K_1$$

Hence, he overinvests unless

$$K_1 \geq X_1 - I_1^*$$

and it is optimal to set:

$$K_1^* = X_1 - I_1^*$$

- Thus, optimal short-term debt (repayment obligation) implements
 - Investor control over the Free Cash Flow
 - Manager control over the remaining funds
- Debt is a commitment to payout

Note: If renegotiation of K_1 is costless, there is no efficiency loss associated with $K_1 > X_1 - I_1^*$, as K_1 will always be renegotiated to its efficient level K_1^* .

Comments

Implications:

- The Free Cash Flow problem is particularly severe for “cash cows”, i.e., firms which are cash rich but have poor investment opportunities.
- Debt should be negatively correlated with measures of growth potential such as Tobin’s q .
- Jensen interprets (some) LBOs as a means to increase the leverage of firms with too much Free Cash Flow.

Debt?

- More a theory of financial contract maturity
 - Any security implementing a payout $X_1 - I_1^*$ prevents over-investment.
 - Thus, debt reasoning implicitly relies on assumption that other securities entail less credible penalty for defaulting on payout $X_1 - I_1^*$.

Outside Finance?

- Implicitly, the model so far assumes
 - either that the shareholders control the firm's access to outside finance at $t = 1$
 - or that this is contractible at $t = 0$
- Otherwise, the manager could try to raise debt at $t = 1$ due at $t = 2$
- Even if the manager controls access to outside finance, raising funds at $t = 1$ can be prevented via using long-term debt (see next model)

LONG-TERM DEBT AS A RESTRAINT TO OVERINVESTMENT

Hart and Moore (1995)

Main Ideas:

- (1) Managers control the firm's access to outside finance
- (2) They might raise excessive funds for empire building.
- (3) Long-term debt reduces the firm's access to outside finance (by using up the firm's debt capacity).

Same model as before except:

Assumption: $X_1 = 0$ and $K_1 = 0$.

$X_1 = 0$ for simplicity, $X_1 < I_1^*$ would suffice.

Assumption: At $t = 1$, the manager can raise new debt due at $t = 2$, senior to equity but junior to the existing long-term debt K_2 .

At $t = 1$, the manager can raise funds by issuing claims against $[p + \Delta(I_1)](X_2^S - K_2)$

As he wants to invest as much as possible, the manager always exhausts the firm's remaining debt capacity:

$$I_1 = [p + \Delta(I_1)](X_2^S - K_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow I_1(K_2)$$

Choice of K_2 at $t = 0$ involves following trade-off:

- Benefit of high levels of K_2 : This reduces the income that can be pledged to new investors. Hence it reduces manager's ability to overinvest through the reduction in the amount of funds that can be raised.
- Cost of high levels of K_2 : Given new investors at date $t = 1$ are junior, debt overhang may occur: the firm may be unable to raise enough funds for efficient investment level, i.e.,

$$[p + \Delta(I_1^*)](X_2^S - K_2) < I_1^*.$$

Optimal level of K_2 strikes balance between these two conflicting objectives.

In this simple model, there exists a unique K_2^* that implements first best

$$I_1(K_2^*) = I_1^*$$

Notice that $\frac{dK_2^*}{dI_1^*} < 0$, $\frac{dK_2^*}{dp} > 0$ (Note: p has no effect on I_1^*)

In the original model of Hart and Moore (1995), returns from assets in place X_1 , X_2 , investment cost and project return are uncertain at date 0, while their realizations are known at date $t = 1$, prior to the investment decision.

- As a result, there is generally over- or underinvestment depending on the realizations of X_1 , X_2 and the project's NPV.

In addition, Hart and Moore assume that $X_1 < I_1^*$, and liquidation at $t = 1$ is inefficient ($E[X_2] > L$).

- Hence, $K_1 = 0$ is optimal (we just assumed $K_1 = 0$)
 - Inefficient liquidation is avoided.
 - Since the manager needs to raise additional funds to (over-)invest, only the sum of $X_1 + X_2$ matters for the investment decision.
 - See Hart's book (1995) and Hart and Moore (1995) for details

SUMMARY OF THE TWO MODELS:

- To curb the manager's empire-building tendencies, long-term debt is of primary importance: It is a means of regulating inflow of new capital and thereby limiting the level of investment that the manager can undertake.
 - For $X_1 < I_1^*$, overinvestment can be avoided by long-term debt.
 - * Even in the absence of short-term debt, i.e., $K_1 = 0$, the manager has to raise additional funds to overinvest $I > I_1^*$. Hence, there is no need to have $K_1 > 0$.
 - For $X_1 \geq I_1^*$, Free Cash Flow problem is added to manager's empire-building tendencies. Overinvestment can be avoided only with combination of both short-term and long-term debt.
 - With risky date 1 cash flow, say $X_1^S > I_1^* > X_1^F$, the choice of debt is determined by following consideration:
 - * To avoid overinvestment, K_1 and K_2 should be set high, while preventing inefficient liquidation requires to set K_1 and K_2 low.

Comments

Hart and Moore (1995) and Jensen (1986) provide argument why public companies issue senior non-postponable debt. Hard debt has an important role when managers are (assumed to be) self-interested.

Non-postponable short-term debt forces managers to disgorge funds, rather than to invest in unprofitable projects and triggers liquidation when assets are more valuable elsewhere.

Senior long-term debt prevents manager from financing unprofitable investments by borrowing against future earnings.

Implications:

- Profitability of investment project and leverage are inversely related (as $\Delta(I_1)$ becomes steeper, I_1^* increases, since $\Delta'(I_1^*) = \frac{1}{X_2^S}$)

$$-\frac{dK_2^*}{dI_1^*} < 0$$

- Profitability of assets in place and leverage are positively related

$$-\frac{dK_2^*}{dp} > 0$$

- Recall that the manager controls financing at $t = 1$ but not $t = 0$. Is it plausible?
- If he controls financing also at $t = 0$, why would he self-restrain?

- Potential answer: under takeover pressure (see next lecture, Zwiebel (1996))