State the meaning and significance of capital structure.


Describe concepts and factors for designing an optimal capital structure.

Discuss essential features of capital structure of an entity.

Discuss optimal capital structure.

Analyse the relationship between the performance of a company and its impact on the earnings of the shareholders i.e. EBIT-EPS analysis.

Discuss the meaning, causes and consequences of over and under capitalisation to an entity.
5.1 MEANING OF CAPITAL STRUCTURE

Capital structure is the combination of capitals from different sources of finance. The capital of a company consists of equity shareholders’ fund, preference share capital and long-term external debts. The source and quantum of capital is decided on the basis of the need of the company and the cost of the capital. However, the objective of a company is to maximise the value of the company and it is the prime objective while deciding the optimal capital structure.

Capital Structure decision refers to deciding the forms of financing (which sources to be tapped); their actual requirements (amount to be funded) and their relative proportions (mix) in total capitalisation.

\[
\text{Value of the firm} = \frac{\text{EBIT}}{\text{Overall cost of capital/Weighted average cost of capital}} \]

\[
K_o = (\text{Cost of debt} \times \text{weight of debt}) + (\text{Cost of equity} \times \text{weight of equity})
\]

\[
K_o = [(K_d \times D / (D+S)) + (K_e \times S/(D+S))]
\]

Where:
- \(K_o\) is the weighted average cost of capital (WACC)
- \(K_d\) is the cost of debt
- \(D\) is the market value of debt
• $S$ is the market value of equity
• $K_e$ is the cost of equity

Capital structure decision will decide weight of debt and equity and ultimately overall cost of capital as well as Value of the firm. So capital structure is relevant in maximizing value of the firm and minimizing overall cost of capital.

Whenever funds are to be raised to finance investments, capital structure decision is involved. A demand for raising funds generates a new capital structure since a decision has to be made as to the quantity and forms of financing. The process of financing or capital structure decision is depicted in the figure below.

![Financing Decision Process Diagram]

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5.2 CAPITAL STRUCTURE THEORIES

The following approaches explain the relationship between cost of capital, capital structure and value of the firm:

- **Capital Structure Relevance Theory**
- **Capital Structure Irrelevance Theory**
- **Net Income (NI) Approach**
- **Traditional Approach**
- **Net Operating Income (NOI) Approach**
- **Modigliani-Miller (MM) Approach**

(a) Net Income (NI) approach
(b) Traditional approach
(c) Net Operating Income (NOI) approach
(d) Modigliani-Miller (MM) approach

However, the following assumptions are made to understand this relationship.

- There are only two kinds of funds used by a firm i.e. debt and equity.
- The total assets of the firm are given. The degree of average can be changed by selling debt to purchase shares or selling shares to retire debt.
- Taxes are not considered.
- The payout ratio is 100%.
- The firm’s total financing remains constant.
- Business risk is constant over time.
- The firm has perpetual life.

### 5.2.1 Net Income (NI) Approach

According to this approach, capital structure decision is relevant to the value of the firm. An increase in financial leverage will lead to decline in the weighted average cost of capital (WACC), while the value of the firm as well as market price of ordinary share will increase. Conversely, a decrease in the leverage will cause an increase in the overall cost of capital and a consequent decline in the value as well as market price of equity shares.

From the above diagram, Ke and Kd are assumed not to change with leverage. As debt increases, it causes weighted average cost of capital (WACC) to decrease.
The value of the firm on the basis of Net Income Approach can be ascertained as follows:

\[
\text{Value of Firm (V)} = S + D
\]

Where,
- \( V \) = Value of the firm
- \( S \) = Market value of equity
- \( D \) = Market value of debt

\[
\text{Market value of equity (S)} = \frac{NI}{K_e}
\]

Where,
- \( NI \) = Earnings available for equity shareholders
- \( K_e \) = Equity Capitalisation rate

Under, NI approach, the value of the firm will be maximum at a point where weighted average cost of capital (WACC) is minimum. Thus, the theory suggests total or maximum possible debt financing for minimising the cost of capital. The overall cost of capital under this approach is:

\[
\text{Overall cost of capital} = \frac{\text{EBIT}}{\text{Value of the firm}}
\]

Thus according to this approach, the firm can increase its total value by decreasing its overall cost of capital through increasing the degree of leverage. The significant conclusion of this approach is that it pleads for the firm to employ as much debt as possible to maximise its value.

**ILLUSTRATION 1**

*Rupa Ltd's EBIT is ₹ 5,00,000. The company has 10%, 20 lakh debentures. The equity capitalization rate i.e. \( K_e \) is 16%.*

You are required to calculate:

(i) Market value of equity and value of firm
(ii) Overall cost of capital.

**SOLUTION**

(i) **Statement showing value of firm**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>₹</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EBIT</td>
<td>5,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Interest on debentures (10% of ₹ 20,00,000)</td>
<td>(2,00,000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earnings available for equity holders i.e. Net Income (NI)</td>
<td>3,00,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.6 FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equity capitalization rate (Ke)</th>
<th>16%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Market value of equity (S) = ( \frac{NI}{Ke} = \left( \frac{3,00,000}{16.00} \times 100 \right) )</td>
<td>18,75,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market value of debt (D)</td>
<td>20,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total value of firm (V) = S + D</td>
<td>38,75,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(ii) Overall cost of capital = \( \frac{EBIT}{Value\ of\ firm} = \frac{5,00,000}{38,75,000} = 12.90\% \)

5.2.2 Traditional Approach

This approach favours that as a result of financial leverage up to some point, cost of capital comes down and value of firm increases. However, beyond that point, reverse trends emerge. The principle implication of this approach is that the cost of capital is dependent on the capital structure and there is an optimal capital structure which minimises cost of capital.

At the optimal capital structure, the real marginal cost of debt and equity is the same. Before the optimal point, the real marginal cost of debt is less than real marginal cost of equity and beyond this optimal point the real marginal cost of debt is more than real marginal cost of equity.

The above diagram suggests that cost of capital is a function of leverage. It declines with \( K_d \) (debt) and starts rising. This means that there is a range of capital structure in which cost of capital is minimised.

Optimum capital structure occurs at the point where value of the firm is highest and the cost of capital is the lowest.

According to net operating income approach, capital structure decisions are totally irrelevant. Modigliani-Miller supports the net operating income approach but provides behavioural justification. The traditional approach strikes a balance between these extremes.

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Main Highlights of Traditional Approach

(a) The firm should strive to reach the optimal capital structure and its total valuation through a judicious use of the both debt and equity in capital structure. At the optimal capital structure, the overall cost of capital will be minimum and the value of the firm will be maximum.

(b) Value of the firm increases with financial leverage up to a certain point. Beyond this point the increase in financial leverage will increase its overall cost of capital and hence the value of firm will decline. This is because the benefits of use of debt may be so large that even after offsetting the effect of increase in cost of equity, the overall cost of capital may still go down. However, if financial leverage increases beyond an acceptable limit, the risk of debt investor may also increase, consequently cost of debt also starts increasing. The increasing cost of equity owing to increased financial risk and increasing cost of debt makes the overall cost of capital to increase.

ILLUSTRATION 2

Indra Ltd. has EBIT of ₹ 1,00,000. The company makes use of debt and equity capital. The firm has 10% debentures of ₹ 5,00,000 and the firm’s equity capitalization rate is 15%.

You are required to compute:
(i) Current value of the firm
(ii) Overall cost of capital.

SOLUTION

(i) Calculation of total value of the firm

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>(₹)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EBIT</td>
<td>1,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Interest (@10% on ₹ 5,00,000)</td>
<td>50,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earnings available for equity holders</td>
<td>50,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equity capitalization rate i.e. $K_e$</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Value of equity holders = \( \frac{\text{Earnings available for equity holders}}{\text{Value of equity (S)}} \) = \( \frac{50,000}{0.15} \) = ₹ 3,33,333

Value of Debt (given) \( D \) = 5,00,000

Total value of the firm \( V = D + S (5,00,000 + 3,33,333) \) = 8,33,333

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5.8 FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT

(ii) Overall cost of capital = \( K_o = K_e = K_e \left( \frac{S}{V} \right) + K_d \left( \frac{D}{V} \right) \) or \( \frac{EBIT}{V} \)

\[
= 0.15 \left( \frac{33,333}{83,333} \right) + 0.10 \left( \frac{5,00,000}{83,333} \right)
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{83,333} [50,000 + 50,000] = 12.00\%
\]

5.2.3 Net Operating Income Approach (NOI)

NOI means earnings before interest and tax (EBIT). According to this approach, capital structure decisions of the firm are irrelevant. Any change in the leverage will not lead to any change in the total value of the firm and the market price of shares, as the overall cost of capital is independent of the degree of leverage. As a result, the division between debt and equity is irrelevant.

As per this approach, an increase in the use of debt which is apparently cheaper is offset by an increase in the equity capitalisation rate. This happens because equity investors seek higher compensation as they are opposed to greater risk due to the existence of fixed return securities in the capital structure.

The above diagram shows that \( K_o \) (Overall capitalisation rate) and (debt – capitalisation rate) are constant and \( K_e \) (Cost of equity) increases with leverage.

**ILLUSTRATION 3**

Amita Ltd’s operating income is `5,00,000. The firm’s cost of debt is 10% and currently the firm employs `15,00,000 of debt. The overall cost of capital of the firm is 15%.

You are required to determine:

(i) Total value of the firm.

(ii) Cost of equity.
**SOLUTION**

(i) **Statement showing value of the firm**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>(₹)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Net operating income/EBIT</td>
<td>5,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Interest on debentures (10% of ₹ 15,00,000)</td>
<td>(1,50,000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earnings available for equity holders</td>
<td>3,50,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total cost of capital ($k_0$) (given)</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value of the firm $V$ = $\frac{\text{EBIT}}{k_0}$ = $\frac{5,00,000}{0.15}$</td>
<td>33,33,333</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(ii) **Calculation of cost of equity**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>(₹)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Market value of debt ($D$)</td>
<td>15,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market value of equity ($S$) $S = V − D = ₹33,33,333 − ₹15,00,000$</td>
<td>18,33,333</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[K_e = \frac{\text{Earnings available for equity holders}}{\text{Value of equity ($S$)}}\]

Or,

\[= \frac{\text{EBIT} – \text{Interest paid on debt}}{\text{Market value of equity}} = \frac{₹3,50,000}{₹18,33,333} = 19.09\%\]

OR

\[k_0 = k_e \left(\frac{S}{V}\right) + k_d \left(\frac{D}{V}\right)\]

\[k_d = k_0 \left(\frac{V}{S}\right) - k_e \left(\frac{D}{S}\right)\]

\[= 0.15 \left(\frac{33,33,333}{18,33,333}\right) - 0.10 \left(\frac{15,00,000}{18,33,333}\right)\]

\[= \frac{1}{18,33,333} [(0.15 \times 33,33,333) – 0 (0.10 \times 15,00,000)]\]

\[= \frac{1}{18,33,333} [5,00,000 − 1,50,000] = 19.09\%\]
ILLUSTRATION 4

Alpha Limited and Beta Limited are identical except for capital structures. Alpha Ltd. has 50 per cent debt and 50 per cent equity, whereas Beta Ltd. has 20 per cent debt and 80 per cent equity. (All percentages are in market-value terms). The borrowing rate for both companies is 8 per cent in a no-tax world, and capital markets are assumed to be perfect.

(a) (i) If you own 2 per cent of the shares of Alpha Ltd., what is your return if the company has net operating income of ₹3,60,000 and the overall capitalisation rate of the company, $K_o$, is 18 per cent? (ii) What is the implied required rate of return on equity?

(b) Beta Ltd. has the same net operating income as Alpha Ltd. (i) What is the implied required equity return of Beta Ltd.? (ii) Why does it differ from that of Alpha Ltd.?

SOLUTION

(a) Value of the Alpha Ltd. = \( \frac{\text{NOI}}{K_o} = \frac{₹3,60,000}{18\%} = ₹20,00,000 \)

(i) Return on Shares on Alpha Ltd.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( ₹ )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Value of the company</td>
<td>20,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market value of debt (50%)</td>
<td>10,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market value of shares (50%)</td>
<td>10,00,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( ₹ )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Net operating income</td>
<td>3,60,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest on debt (8% × ₹10,00,000)</td>
<td>80,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earnings available to shareholders</td>
<td>2,80,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Return on 2% shares (2% × ₹2,80,000)</td>
<td>5,600</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(ii) Implied required rate of return on equity = \( \frac{₹2,80,000}{₹10,00,000} = 28\% \)

(b) (i) Calculation of Implied rate of return

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( ₹ )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total value of company</td>
<td>20,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market value of debt (20% × ₹20,00,000)</td>
<td>4,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market value of equity (80% × ₹20,00,000)</td>
<td>16,00,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.11

Net operating income | ₹3,60,000
Interest on debt (8% × ₹4,00,000) | ₹32,000
Earnings available to shareholders | ₹3,28,000

Implied required rate of return on equity = \( \frac{₹3,28,000}{₹16,00,000} = 20.5\% \)

(ii) It is lower than the Alpha Ltd. because Beta Ltd. uses less debt in its capital structure. As the equity capitalisation is a linear function of the debt-to-equity ratio when we use the net operating income approach, the decline in required equity return offsets exactly the disadvantage of not employing so much in the way of “cheaper” debt funds.

5.2.4 Modigliani-Miller Approach (MM)

The NOI approach is definitional or conceptual and lacks behavioral significance. It does not provide operational justification for irrelevance of capital structure. However, Modigliani-Miller approach provides behavioral justification for constant overall cost of capital and therefore, total value of the firm.

**MM Approach- 1958: without tax:**

This approach describes, in a perfect capital market where there is no transaction cost and no taxes, the value and cost of capital of a company remain unchanged irrespective of change in the capital structure. The approach is based on further additional assumptions like:

- Capital markets are perfect. All information is freely available and there are no transaction costs.
- All investors are rational.
- Firms can be grouped into ‘Equivalent risk classes’ on the basis of their business risk.
- Non-existence of corporate taxes.

Based on the above assumptions, Modigliani-Miller derived the following three propositions:
(i) Total market value of a firm is equal to its expected net operating income divided by the discount rate appropriate to its risk class decided by the market.

\[
\text{Value of levered firm } (V_g) = \text{Value of unlevered firm } (V_u)
\]

Value of a firm = \( \frac{\text{Net Operating Income (NOI)}}{K_o} \)

(ii) A firm having debt in capital structure has higher cost of equity than an unlevered firm. The cost of equity will include risk premium for the financial risk. The cost of equity in a levered firm is determined as under:

\[
K_e = K_o + (K_o - K_d) \frac{\text{Debt}}{\text{Equity}}
\]

(iii) The structure of the capital (financial leverage) does not affect the overall cost of capital. The cost of capital is only affected by the business risk.

It is evident from the above diagram that the average cost of the capital \( (K_o) \) is a constant and not affected by leverage.

The operational justification of Modigliani-Miller hypothesis is explained through the functioning of the arbitrage process and substitution of corporate leverage by personal leverage. Arbitrage refers to buying asset or security at lower price in one market and selling it at a higher price in another market. As a result, equilibrium is attained in different markets. This is illustrated by taking two identical firms of which one has debt in the capital structure while the other does not. Investors of the firm whose value is higher will sell their shares and instead buy the shares of the firm whose value is lower. They will be able to earn the same return at lower outlay with the same perceived risk or lower risk. They would, therefore, be better off.
The value of the levered firm can neither be greater nor lower than that of an unlevered firm according this approach. The two must be equal. There is neither advantage nor disadvantage in using debt in the firm’s capital structure.

The approach considers capital structure of a firm as a whole pie divided into equity, debt and other securities. No matter how the capital structure of a firm is divided (among debt, equity etc.), there is a conservation of investment value. Since the total investment value of a corporation depends upon its underlying profitability and risk, it is invariant with respect to relative changes in the firm’s financial capitalisation.

According to MM, since the sum of the parts must equal the whole, therefore, regardless of the financing mix, the total value of the firm stays the same.

The shortcoming of this approach is that the arbitrage process as suggested by Modigliani-Miller will fail to work because of imperfections in capital market, existence of transaction cost and presence of corporate income taxes.

**MM Approach- 1963: with tax**

In 1963, MM model was amended by incorporating tax, they recognised that the value of the firm will increase or cost of capital will decrease where corporate taxes exist. As a result, there will be some difference in the earnings of equity and debt-holders in levered and unlevered firm and value of levered firm will be greater than the value of unlevered firm by an amount equal to amount of debt multiplied by corporate tax rate.

MM has developed the formulae for computation of cost of capital \((K_o)\), cost of equity \((K_e)\) for the levered firm.

(i) Value of levered company = Value of an unlevered company + Tax benefit

\[ V_g = V_u + TB \]

(ii) Cost of equity in a levered company \((K_{eg})\) = \(K_{eu} + \frac{K_{eu} - K_d}{Debt + Equity} \) Debt

Where,

\( K_{eg} \) = Cost of equity in a levered company
\( K_{eu} \) = Cost of equity in an unlevered company
\( K_d \) = Cost of debt
\( t \) = Tax rate

(iii) WACC in a levered company \((Kog)\) = \(Keu(1-tL)\)

Where,

\( K_{og} \) = WACC of a levered company
\( K_{eu} \) = Cost of equity in an unlevered company
\( t \) = Tax rate
\( L = \frac{Debt}{Debt + Equity} \)
ILLUSTRATION 5: When value of levered firm is more than the value of unlevered firm

There are two company N Ltd. and M Ltd., having same earnings before interest and taxes i.e. EBIT of ₹ 20,000. M Ltd. is a levered company having a debt of ₹1,00,000 @ 7% rate of interest. The cost of equity of N Ltd. is 10% and of M Ltd. is 11.50%.

Find out how arbitrage process will be carried on?

SOLUTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company</th>
<th>M Ltd.</th>
<th>N Ltd.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EBIT (NOI)</td>
<td>₹ 20,000</td>
<td>₹ 20,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Debt (D)</td>
<td>₹ 1,00,000</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kₑ</td>
<td>11.50%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K₅</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Value of equity (S) = \( \frac{\text{NOI - Interest}}{\text{Cost of equity}} \)

\[ S_M = \frac{20,000 - 7,000}{11.50\%} = ₹ 1,13,043 \]

\[ S_N = \frac{20,000}{10\%} = ₹ 2,00,000 \]

\[ VM = 1,13,043 + 1,00,000 \{V = S + D\} = ₹ 2,13,043 \]

\[ VN = ₹ 2,00,000 \]

Arbitrage Process

If you have 10% shares of M Ltd., your value of investment in equity shares is 10% of ₹1,13,043 i.e. ₹ 11,304.30 and return will be 10% of (₹20,000 – ₹7,000) = ₹ 1,300.

Alternate Strategy will be:

Sell your 10% share of levered firm for ₹ 11,304.30 and borrow 10% of levered firms debt i.e. 10% of ₹ 1,00,000 and invest the money i.e. 10% in unlevered firms stock:

Total resources /Money we have = ₹11,304.30 + ₹10,000 = ₹21,304.3 and you invest 10% of ₹2,00,000 = ₹ 20,000

Surplus cash available with you is = ₹21,304.3 – ₹20,000 = ₹ 1,304.3

Your return = 10% EBIT of unlevered firm – Interest to be paid on borrowed funds i.e. = 10% of ₹ 20,000 – 7% of ₹ 10,000 = ₹2,000 – ₹700 = ₹ 1,300

i.e. your return is same i.e. ₹ 1,300 which you are getting from N Ltd. before investing in M Ltd. but still you have ₹ 1,304.3 excess money available with you. Hence, you are better off by doing arbitrage.

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ILLUSTRATION 6: When value of unlevered firm is more than the value of levered firm

There are two companies U Ltd. and L Ltd., having same NOI of ₹20,000 except that L Ltd. is a levered company having a debt of ₹1,00,000 @ 7% and cost of equity of U Ltd. & L Ltd. are 10% and 18% respectively.

Show how arbitrage process will work.

SOLUTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company</th>
<th>U Ltd.</th>
<th>L Ltd.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NOI</td>
<td>₹ 20,000</td>
<td>₹ 20,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Debt capital</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>₹ 1,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kₐ</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kₑ</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Value of equity capital (s) = \( \left( \frac{\text{EBIT} - \text{Interest}}{Kₑ} \right) \)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{U Ltd.} & : \left( \frac{20,000 - 7,000}{0.10} \right) = \text{₹} 2,00,000 \\
\text{L Ltd.} & : \left( \frac{20,000 - 7,000}{0.18} \right) = \text{₹} 72,222
\end{align*}
\]

Total value of the firm V = S + D

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{U Ltd.} & : \text{₹} 2,00,000 \\
\text{L Ltd.} & : \text{₹} 1,72,222 \\
\text{(₹} 72,222 + ₹1,00,000 & )
\end{align*}
\]

Assume you have 10% shares of unlevered firm i.e. investment of 10% of ₹ 2,00,000 = ₹20,000 and Return @ 10% on ₹ 20,000. Investment will be 10% of earnings available for equity i.e. 10% × 20,000 = ₹ 2,000.

Alternative strategy:

Sell your shares in unlevered firm for ₹ 20,000 and buy 10% shares of levered firm’s equity plus debt

i.e. 10% equity of levered firm = 7,222
10% debt of levered firm = 10,000
Total investment = 17,222

Your resources are ₹ 20,000

Surplus cash available = Surplus – Investment = 20,000 – 17,222 = ₹ 2,778

Your return on investment is:

7% on debt of ₹ 10,000 = 700
10% on equity i.e. 10% of earnings available for equity holders i.e. (10% × 13,000) = 1,300

Total return = 2,000
i.e. in both the cases the return received is ₹ 2,000 and still you have excess cash of ₹ 2,778. Hence, you are better off i.e you will start selling unlevered company shares and buy levered company’s shares thereby pushing down the value of shares of unlevered firm and increasing the value of levered firm till equilibrium is reached.

5.2.5 The Trade-off Theory

The trade-off theory of capital structure refers to the idea that a company chooses how much debt finance and how much equity finance to use by balancing the costs and benefits. Tradeoff theory of capital structure basically entails offsetting the costs of debt against the benefits of debt.

Trade-off theory of capital structure primarily deals with the two concepts - cost of financial distress and agency costs. An important purpose of the trade-off theory of capital structure is to explain the fact that corporations usually are financed partly with debt and partly with equity.

It states that there is an advantage to financing with debt, the tax benefits of debt and there is a cost of financing with debt, the costs of financial distress including bankruptcy costs of debt and non-bankruptcy costs (e.g. staff leaving, suppliers demanding disadvantageous payment terms, bondholder/stockholder infighting, etc).

The marginal benefit of further increases in debt declines as debt increases, while the marginal cost increases, so that a firm that is optimizing its overall value will focus on this trade-off when choosing how much debt and equity to use for financing. Modigliani and Miller in 1963 introduced the tax benefit of debt. Later work led to an optimal capital structure which is given by the trade-off theory. According to Modigliani and Miller, the attractiveness of debt decreases with the personal tax on the interest income. A firm experiences financial distress when the firm is unable to cope with the debt holders’ obligations. If the firm continues to fail in making payments to the debt holders, the firm can even be insolvent. The first element of Trade-off theory of capital structure, considered as the cost of debt is usually the financial distress costs or bankruptcy costs of debt. The direct cost of financial distress refers to the cost of insolvency of a company. Once the proceedings of insolvency start, the assets of the firm may be needed to be sold at distress price, which is generally much lower than the current values of the assets. A huge amount of administrative and legal costs is also associated with the insolvency. Even if the company is not insolvent, the financial distress of the company may include a number of indirect costs like - cost of employees, cost of customers, cost of suppliers, cost of investors, cost of managers and cost of shareholders.

The firms may often experience a dispute of interests among the management of the firm, debt holders and shareholders. These disputes generally give birth to agency problems that in turn give rise to the agency costs. The agency costs may affect the capital structure of a firm. There may be two types of conflicts - shareholders-managers
conflict and shareholders-debtholders conflict. The introduction of a dynamic Trade-off theory of capital structure makes the predictions of this theory a lot more accurate and reflective of that in practice.

5.2.6 Pecking order theory

This theory is based on Asymmetric information, which refers to a situation in which different parties have different information. In a firm, managers will have better information than investors. This theory states that firms prefer to issue debt when they are positive about future earnings. Equity is issued when they are doubtful and internal finance is insufficient.

The pecking order theory argues that the capital structure decision is affected by manager’s choice of a source of capital that gives higher priority to sources that reveal the least amount of information.

Myres has given the name ‘PECKING ORDER’ theory as here is no well defined debt-equity target and there are two kind of equity internal and external. Now Debt is cheaper than both internal and external equity because of interest. Further internal equity is less than external equity particularly because of no transaction/issue cost, no tax etc.

Pecking order theory suggests that managers may use various sources for raising of fund in the following order.

1. Managers first choice is to use internal finance
In absence of internal finance they can use secured debt, unsecured debt, hybrid debt etc.

Managers may issue new equity shares as a last option.

So briefly under this theory rules are

**Rule 1:** Use internal financing first.
**Rule 2:** Issue debt next
**Rule 3:** Issue of new equity shares at last

---

**5.3 FACTORS DETERMINING CAPITAL STRUCTURE**

**5.3.1 Choice of source of funds**

A firm has the choice to raise funds for financing its investment proposals from different sources in different proportions. It can:

(a) Exclusively use debt (in case of existing company), or  
(b) Exclusively use equity capital, or  
(c) Exclusively use preference share capital (in case of existing company), or  
(d) Use a combination of debt and equity in different proportions, or  
(e) Use a combination of debt, equity and preference capital in different proportions, or  
(f) Use a combination of debt and preference capital in different proportion (in case of existing company).

The choice of the combination of these sources is called capital structure mix. But the question is which of the pattern should the firm choose?
5.3.2 Factors affecting capital structure

While choosing a suitable financing pattern, certain fundamental principles should be kept in mind, to design capital structure, which are discussed below:

(1) **Financial leverage of Trading on Equity:** The use of long-term fixed interest bearing debt and preference share capital along with equity share capital is called financial leverage or trading on equity. The use of long-term debt increases the earnings per share if the firm yields a return higher than the cost of debt. The earnings per share also increase with the use of preference share capital but due to the fact that interest is allowed to be deducted while computing tax, the leverage impact of debt is much more. However, leverage can operate adversely also if the rate of interest on long-term loan is more than the expected rate of earnings of the firm. Therefore, it needs caution to plan the capital structure of a firm.

(2) **Growth and stability of sales:** The capital structure of a firm is highly influenced by the growth and stability of its sale. If the sales of a firm are expected to remain fairly stable, it can raise a higher level of debt. Stability of sales ensures that the firm will not face any difficulty in meeting its fixed commitments of interest repayments of debt. Similarly, the rate of the growth in sales also affects the capital structure decision. Usually, greater the rate of growth of sales, greater can be the use of debt in the financing of firm. On the other hand, if the sales of a firm are highly fluctuating or declining, it should not employ, as far as possible, debt financing in its capital structure.

(3) **Cost Principle:** According to this principle, an ideal pattern or capital structure is one that minimises cost of capital structure and maximises earnings per share (EPS). For example, Debt capital is cheaper than equity capital from the point of its cost and interest being deductible for income tax purpose, whereas no such deduction is allowed for dividends.

(4) **Risk Principle:** According to this principle, reliance is placed more on common equity for financing capital requirements than excessive use of debt. Use of more and more debt means higher commitment in form of interest payout. This would lead to erosion of shareholders’ value in unfavourable business situation. There are two risks associated with this principle:

(i) **Business risk:** It is an unavoidable risk because of the environment in which the firm has to operate and it is represented by the variability of earnings before interest and tax (EBIT). The variability in turn is influenced by revenues and expenses. Revenues and expenses are affected by demand of firm products, variations in prices and proportion of fixed cost in total cost.

(ii) **Financial risk:** It is a risk associated with the availability of earnings per share caused by use of financial leverage. It is the additional risk borne by the shareholders when a firm uses debt in addition to equity financing.
Generally, a firm should neither be exposed to high degree of business risk and low degree of financial risk or vice-versa, so that shareholders do not bear a higher risk.

(5) **Control Principle:** While designing a capital structure, the finance manager may also keep in mind that existing management control and ownership remains undisturbed. Issue of new equity will dilute existing control pattern and also it involves higher cost. Issue of more debt causes no dilution in control, but causes a higher degree of financial risk.

(6) **Flexibility Principle:** By flexibility it means that the management chooses such a combination of sources of financing which it finds easier to adjust according to changes in need of funds in future too. While debt could be interchanged (If the company is loaded with a debt of 18% and funds are available at 15%, it can return old debt with new debt, at a lesser interest rate), but the same option may not be available in case of equity investment.

(7) **Other Considerations:** Besides above principles, other factors such as nature of industry, timing of issue and competition in the industry should also be considered. Industries facing severe competition also resort to more equity than debt.

Thus, a finance manager in designing a suitable pattern of capital structure must bring about satisfactory compromise between the above principles. The compromise can be reached by assigning weights to these principles in terms of various characteristics of the company.

### 5.4 **KEY CONCEPTS FOR DESIGNING OPTIMAL STRUCTURE**

The capital structure decisions are so significant in financial management, as they influence debt – equity mix which ultimately affects shareholders return and risk. Since cost of debt is cheaper, firm prefers to borrow rather than to raise from equity. So long as return on investment is more than the cost of borrowing, extra borrowing increases the earnings per share. However, beyond a limit, it increases the risk and share price may fall because shareholders may assume that their investment is associated with more risk.

For an appropriate debt -equity mix, let us discuss some key concepts:-

#### 5.4.1 Leverages

There are two leverages associated with the study of capital structure, namely operating leverage and financial leverage.

However, the determination of optimal level of debt is a formidable task and is a major policy decision. Determination of optimal level of debt involves equalising between return and risk. EBIT-EPS analysis is a widely used tool to determine level of debt
in a firm. Through this analysis, a comparison can be drawn for various methods of financing by obtaining indifference point. It is a point to the EBIT level at which EPS remains unchanged irrespective of level of debt-equity mix. The concepts of leverages and EBIT-EPS analysis would be dealt in detail separately for better understanding.

5.4.2 Coverage Ratio
The ability of the firm to use debt in the capital structure can also be judged in terms of coverage ratio namely EBIT/Interest. Higher the ratio, greater is the certainty of meeting interest payments.

5.4.3 Cash flow Analysis
It is a good supporting tool for EBIT-EPS analysis in framing a suitable capital structure. To determine the debt capacity, cash flow under adverse conditions should be examined. A high debt equity ratio is not risky if the company has the ability to generate cash flows. It would, therefore, be possible to increase the debt until cash flows equal the risk set out by debt.

The main drawback of this approach is that it fails to take into account uncertainty due to technological developments or changes in political climate.

These approaches as discussed above do not provide solution to the problem of determining an appropriate level of debt. However, with the information available a range can be determined for an optimum level of debt in the capital structure.

5.5 ESSENTIAL FEATURES OF A SOUND CAPITAL MIX
A sound or an appropriate capital structure should have the following essential features:

(i) Maximum possible use of leverage.
(ii) The capital structure should be flexible.
(iii) To avoid undue financial/business risk with the increase of debt.
(iv) The use of debt should be within the capacity of a firm. The firm should be in a position to meet its obligation in paying the loan and interest charges as and when due.
(v) It should involve minimum possible risk of loss of control.
(vi) It must avoid undue restrictions in agreement of debt.
(vii) The capital structure should be conservative. It should be composed of high grade securities and debt capacity of the company should never be exceeded.
(viii) The capital structure should be simple in the sense that it can be easily managed and also easily understood by the investors.
(ix) The debt should be used to the extent that it does not threaten the solvency of the firm.
5.6 OPTIMAL CAPITAL STRUCTURE

The theory of optimal capital structure deals with the issue of the right mix of debt and equity in the long term capital structure of a firm. This theory states that if a company takes on debt, the value of the firm increases up to a point. Beyond that point if debt continues to increase then the value of the firm will start to decrease. Similarly, if the company is unable to repay the debt within the specified period then it will affect the goodwill of the company in the market and may create problems for collecting further debt. Therefore, the company should select its appropriate capital structure with due consideration to the factors mentioned earlier.

5.7 EBIT-EPS ANALYSIS

5.7.1 Relationship between EBIT - EPS

The basic objective of financial management is to design an appropriate capital structure which can provide the highest earnings per share (EPS) over the company’s expected range of earnings before interest and taxes (EBIT).

EPS measures a company’s performance for the shareholders. The level of EBIT varies from year to year and represents the success of a company’s operations. EBIT-EPS analysis is a vital tool for designing the optimal capital structure of a company.

The objective of this analysis is to find the EBIT level that will equate EPS regardless of the financing plan chosen.

The financial leverage affects the pattern of distribution of operating profit among various types of investors and increases the variability of the EPS of the firm. Therefore, in search for an appropriate capitals structure for a firm, the financial manager must analyse the effects of various alternative financial leverages on the EPS. Given a level of EBIT, EPS will be different under different financing mix depending upon the extent of debt financing. The effect of leverage on the EPS emerges because of the existence of fixed financial charge i.e., interest on debt financial fixed dividend on preference share capital. The effect of fixed financial charge on the EPS depends upon the relationship between the rate of return on assets and the rate of fixed charge. If the rate of return on assets is higher than the cost of financing, then the increasing use of fixed charge financing (i.e., debt and preference share capital) will result in increase in the EPS. This situation is also known as favourable financial leverage or Trading on Equity. On the other hand, if the rate of return on assets is less than the cost of financing, then the effect may be negative and, therefore, the increasing use of debt and preference share capital may reduce the EPS of the firm.

The fixed financial charge financing may further be analyzed with reference to the choice between the debt financing and the issue of preference shares. Theoretically, the choice is tilted in favour of debt financing for two reasons: (i) the explicit cost of
debt financing i.e., the rate of interest payable on debt instruments or loans is generally lower than the rate of fixed dividend payable on preference shares, and (ii) interest on debt financing is tax-deductible and therefore the real cost (after-tax) is lower than the cost of preference share capital.

Thus, the analysis of the different types of capital structure and the effect of leverage on the expected EPS will provide a useful guide to selection of a particular level of debt financing. The EBIT-EPS analysis is of significant importance and if undertaken properly, can be an effective tool in the hands of a financial manager to get an insight into the planning and designing of the capital structure of the firm.

**ILLUSTRATION 7**

Suppose that a firm has an all equity capital structure consisting of 100,000 ordinary shares of ₹10 per share. The firm wants to raise ₹250,000 to finance its investments and is considering three alternative methods of financing – (i) to issue 25,000 ordinary shares at ₹10 each, (ii) to borrow ₹2,50,000 at 8 per cent rate of interest, (iii) to issue 2,500 preference shares of ₹100 each at an 8 per cent rate of dividend. If the firm’s earnings before interest and taxes after additional investment are ₹3,12,500 and the tax rate is 50 per cent, the effect on the earnings per share under the three financing alternatives will be as follows:

**Table: EPS under alternative financing favorable EBIT:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Particulars</th>
<th>Equity Financing (₹)</th>
<th>Debt Financing (₹)</th>
<th>Preference Financing (₹)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EBIT</td>
<td>3,12,000</td>
<td>3,12,550</td>
<td>3,12,550</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Interest</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PBT</td>
<td>3,12,500</td>
<td>2,92,500</td>
<td>3,12,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Taxes</td>
<td>1,56,250</td>
<td>1,46,250</td>
<td>1,56,250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAT</td>
<td>1,56,250</td>
<td>1,46,250</td>
<td>1,56,250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Preference dividend</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earning available to ordinary shareholders</td>
<td>1,56,250</td>
<td>1,46,250</td>
<td>1,36,250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shares outstanding</td>
<td>1,25,000</td>
<td>1,00,000</td>
<td>1,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPS</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>1.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The firm is able to maximize the earnings per share when it uses debt financing. Though the rate of preference dividend is equal to the rate of interest, EPS is high in case of debt financing because interest charges are tax deductible while preference dividends are not. With increasing levels of EBIT, EPS will increase at a faster rate with a high degree of leverage.
FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT

However, if a company is not able to earn a rate of return on its assets higher than the interest rate (or the preference dividend rate), debt (or preference financing) will have an adverse impact on EPS. Suppose the firm in illustration above has an EBIT of ₹75,000/-, then EPS under different methods will be as follows:

Table: EPS under alternative financing methods: Unfavourable EBIT:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Particulars</th>
<th>Equity Financing (₹)</th>
<th>Debt Financing (₹)</th>
<th>Preference Financing (₹)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EBIT</td>
<td>75,000</td>
<td>75,000</td>
<td>75,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Interest</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PBT</td>
<td>75,000</td>
<td>55,000</td>
<td>75,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Taxes</td>
<td>37,000</td>
<td>27,500</td>
<td>37,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAT</td>
<td>37,500</td>
<td>1,46,250</td>
<td>1,56,250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Preference dividend</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earning available to ordinary shareholders</td>
<td>1,56,250</td>
<td>27,500</td>
<td>17,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shares outstanding</td>
<td>1,25,000</td>
<td>1,00,000</td>
<td>1,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPS</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is obvious that under unfavourable conditions, i.e. when the rate of return on the total assets is less than the cost of debt, the earnings per share will fall with the degree of leverage.

5.7.2 Financial Break-even and Indifference Analysis

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Financial break-even point is the minimum level of EBIT needed to satisfy all the fixed financial charges i.e. interest and preference dividends. It denotes the level of EBIT for which the company’s EPS equals zero.

If the EBIT is less than the financial breakeven point, then the EPS will be negative but if the expected level of EBIT is more than the breakeven point, then more fixed costs financing instruments can be taken in the capital structure, otherwise, equity would be preferred.

EBIT-EPS breakeven analysis is used for determining the appropriate amount of debt a company might carry.

Another method of considering the impact of various financing alternatives on earnings per share is to prepare the EBIT chart or the range of Earnings Chart. This chart shows the likely EPS at various probable EBIT levels. Thus, under one particular alternative, EPS may be ₹ 2 at a given EBIT level. However, the EPS may go down if another alternative of financing is chosen even though the EBIT remains at the same level. At a given EBIT, earnings per share under various alternatives of financing may be plotted. A straight line representing the EPS at various levels of EBIT under the alternative may be drawn. Wherever this line intersects, it is known as break-even point. This point is a useful guide in formulating the capital structure. This is known as EPS equivalency point or indifference point since this shows that, between the two given alternatives of financing (i.e., regardless of leverage in the financial plans), EPS would be the same at the given level of EBIT.

The equivalency or indifference point can also be calculated algebraically in the following manner:

\[
\frac{(EBIT - 1_1)(1 - T)}{E_1} = \frac{(EBIT - 1_2)(1 - T)}{E_2}
\]

Where,
- \(EBIT\) = Indifference point
- \(E_1\) = Number of equity shares in Alternative 1
- \(E_2\) = Number of equity shares in Alternative 2
- \(I_1\) = Interest charges in Alternative 1
- \(I_2\) = Interest charges in Alternative 2
- \(T\) = Tax-rate
- Alternative 1 = All equity finance
- Alternative 2 = Debt-equity finance.
5.7.3 Limitations of EBIT-EPS Analysis

If maximization of the EPS is the only criterion for selecting the particular debt-equity mix, then that capital structure which is expected to result in the highest EPS will always be selected by all the firms. However, achieving the highest EPS need not be the only goal of the firm. The main shortcomings of the EBIT-EPS analysis may be noted as follows:

(i) The EPS criterion ignores the risk dimension: The EBIT-EPS analysis ignores as to what is the effect of leverage on the overall risk of the firm. With every increase in financial leverage, the risk of the firm and therefore that of investors also increases. The EBIT-EPS analysis fails to deal with the variability of EPS and the risk return trade-off.

(ii) EPS is more of a performance measure: The EPS, basically, depends upon the operating profit which, in turn, depends upon the operating efficiency of the firm. It is a resultant figure and it is more a measure of performance rather than a measure of decision making.

Debt-Equity Indifference Point

ILLUSTRATION 8

Best of Luck Ltd., a profit making company, has a paid-up capital of ` 100 lakhs consisting of 10 lakhs ordinary shares of ` 10 each. Currently, it is earning an annual pre-tax profit of ` 60 lakhs. The company’s shares are listed and are quoted in the range of ` 50 to ` 80. The management wants to diversify production and has approved a project which will cost ` 50 lakhs and which is expected to yield a pre-tax income of ` 40 lakhs per annum. To raise this additional capital, the following options are under consideration of the management:

(a) To issue equity share capital for the entire additional amount. It is expected that the new shares (face value of ` 10) can be sold at a premium of ` 15.

(b) To issue 16% non-convertible debentures of ` 100 each for the entire amount.

(c) To issue equity capital for ` 25 lakhs (face value of ` 10) and 16% non-convertible debentures for the balance amount. In this case, the company can issue shares at a premium of ` 40 each.

You are required to advise the management as to how the additional capital can be raised, keeping in mind that the management wants to maximise the earnings per share to maintain its goodwill. The company is paying income tax at 50%.
SOLUTION

Calculation of Earnings per share under the three options:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Particulars</th>
<th>Options</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Option I: Issue Equity shares only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Equity Shares (nos):</td>
<td>10,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Existing</td>
<td>10,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Newly issued</td>
<td>2,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(₹ 50,00,000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16% Debentures ₹</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profit Before Interest and Tax:</td>
<td>₹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Existing pre-tax profit</td>
<td>60,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- From new projects</td>
<td>40,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,00,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Interest on 16% Debentures</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(16% × ₹50,00,000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profit Before Tax</td>
<td>1,00,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax at 50%</td>
<td>50,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profit After Tax</td>
<td>50,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earnings Per Share (EPS)</td>
<td>4.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(PAT / No. of Shares)</td>
<td>(₹ 50,00,000 / 12,00,000)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Advise: Option II i.e. issue of 16% Debentures is most suitable to maximize the earnings per share.

ILLUSTRATION 9

*Shahji Steels Limited requires ₹ 25,00,000 for a new plant. This plant is expected to yield earnings before interest and taxes of ₹ 5,00,000. While deciding about the financial plan, the company considers the objective of maximizing earnings per share. It has three alternatives to finance the project - by raising debt of ₹ 2,50,000 or ₹ 10,00,000 or ₹ 15,00,000 and the balance, in each case, by issuing equity shares. The company's share*
is currently selling at ₹ 150, but is expected to decline to ₹ 125 in case the funds are borrowed in excess of ₹ 10,00,000. The funds can be borrowed at the rate of 10 percent upto ₹ 2,50,000, at 15 percent over ₹ 2,50,000 and upto ₹ 10,00,000 and at 20 percent over ₹ 10,00,000. The tax rate applicable to the company is 50 percent. Which form of financing should the company choose?

**SOLUTION**

Plan I = Raising Debt of ₹ 2.5 lakh + Equity of ₹ 22.5 lakh.

Plan II = Raising Debt of ₹ 10 lakh + Equity of ₹ 15 lakh.

Plan III = Raising Debt of ₹ 15 lakh + Equity of ₹ 10 lakh.

**Calculation of Earnings per share (EPS):**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Particulars</th>
<th>Financial Plans</th>
<th>Plan I</th>
<th>Plan II</th>
<th>Plan III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expected EBIT</td>
<td>₹ 5,00,000</td>
<td>₹ 5,00,000</td>
<td>₹ 5,00,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Interest (a)</td>
<td>₹ (25,000)</td>
<td>₹ (1,37,500)</td>
<td>₹ (2,37,500)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earnings before taxes</td>
<td>₹ 4,75,000</td>
<td>₹ 3,62,500</td>
<td>₹ 2,62,500</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Taxes @ 50%</td>
<td>₹ (2,37,500)</td>
<td>₹ (1,81,250)</td>
<td>₹ (1,31,250)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earnings after taxes (EAT)</td>
<td>₹ 2,37,500</td>
<td>₹ 1,81,250</td>
<td>₹ 1,31,250</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of shares (b)</td>
<td>15,000</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>8,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earnings per share (EPS)</td>
<td>15.83</td>
<td>18.13</td>
<td>16.41</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Financing Plan II (i.e. Raising debt of ₹ 10 lakh and issue of equity share capital of ₹ 15 lakh) is the option which maximises the earnings per share.

**Working Notes:**

(a) **Calculation of interest on Debt.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plan</th>
<th>Interest Calculation</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>₹ 2,50,000 x 10%</td>
<td>₹ 25,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>₹ 2,50,000 x 10%</td>
<td>₹ 25,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>₹ 7,50,000 x 15%</td>
<td>₹ 1,12,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>₹ 7,50,000 x 15%</td>
<td>₹ 1,12,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>₹ 5,00,000 x 20%</td>
<td>₹ 1,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>₹ 2,50,000</td>
<td>₹ 1,37,500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) **Number of equity shares to be issued**

Plan I : \[ \frac{₹ 22,50,000}{₹ 150 \, (Market \, price \, of \, share)} = 15,000 \, shares \]

Plan II : \[ \frac{₹ 15,00,000}{₹ 150} = 10,000 \, shares \]

Plan III : \[ \frac{₹ 10,00,000}{₹ 125} = 8,000 \, shares \]

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5.8 COST OF CAPITAL, CAPITAL STRUCTURE AND MARKET PRICE OF SHARE

The financial leverage has a magnifying effect on earnings per share, such that for a given level of percentage increase in EBIT, there will be more than proportionate change in the same direction in the earnings per share. The financing decision of the firm is one of the basic conditions oriented to the achievement of maximisation for the shareholders’ wealth. The capital structure should be examined from the view point of its impact on the value of the firm. If the capital structure affects the total value of the firm, a firm should select such a financing mix (a combination of debt and equity) which will maximise the market value of the firm. Such an optimum leverage not only maximises the value of the company and wealth of its owners, but also minimises the cost of capital. As a result, the company is able to increase its economic rate of investment and growth.

In theory, capital structure can affect the value of the firm by affecting either its expected earnings or cost of capital or both. While financing mix cannot affect the total earnings, it can affect the share of earnings belonging to the share holders. But financial leverage can largely influence the value of the firm through the cost of capital.

5.9 OVER-CAPITALISATION AND UNDER-CAPITALISATION

5.9.1 Over- Capitalisation

It is a situation where a firm has more capital than it needs or in other words assets are worth less than its issued share capital, and earnings are insufficient to pay dividend and interest. This situation mainly arises when the existing capital is not effectively utilized on account of fall in earning capacity of the company while company has raised funds more than its requirements. The chief sign of over-capitalisation is the fall in payment of dividend and interest leading to fall in value of the shares of the company.

Causes of Over-Capitalisation: Over-capitalisation arises due to following reasons:

(i) Raising more money through issue of shares or debentures than company can employ profitably.
(ii) Borrowing huge amount at higher rate than rate at which company can earn.
(iii) Excessive payment for the acquisition of fictitious assets such as goodwill etc.
(iv) Improper provision for depreciation, replacement of assets and distribution of dividends at a higher rate.
(v) Wrong estimation of earnings and capitalisation.
5.30 FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT

Consequences of Over-Capitalisation: Over-capitalisation results in the following consequences:
(i) Considerable reduction in the rate of dividend and interest payments.
(ii) Reduction in the market price of shares.
(iii) Resorting to “window dressing”.
(iv) Some companies may opt for reorganization. However, sometimes the matter gets worse and the company may go into liquidation.

Remedies for Over-Capitalisation: Following steps may be adopted to avoid the negative consequences of over-capitalisation:
(i) Company should go for thorough reorganization.
(ii) Buyback of shares.
(iii) Reduction in claims of debenture-holders and creditors.
(iv) Value of shares may also be reduced. This will result in sufficient funds for the company to carry out replacement of assets.

5.9.2 Under Capitalisation
It is just reverse of over-capitalisation. It is a state, when its actual capitalisation is lower than its proper capitalisation as warranted by its earning capacity. This situation normally happens with companies which have insufficient capital but large secret reserves in the form of considerable appreciation in the values of the fixed assets not brought into the books.

Consequences of Under-Capitalisation: Under-capitalisation results in the following consequences:
(i) The dividend rate will be higher in comparison to similarly situated companies.
(ii) Market value of shares will be higher than value of shares of other similar companies because their earning rate being considerably more than the prevailing rate on such securities.
(iii) Real value of shares will be higher than their book value.

Effects of Under-Capitalisation: Under-capitalisation has the following effects:
(i) It encourages acute competition. High profitability encourages new entrepreneurs to come into same type of business.
(ii) High rate of dividend encourages the workers’ union to demand high wages.
(iii) Normally common people (consumers) start feeling that they are being exploited.
(iv) Management may resort to manipulation of share values.
(v) Invite more government control and regulation on the company and higher taxation also.
Remedies: Following steps may be adopted to avoid the negative consequences of under capitalization:

(i) The shares of the company should be split up. This will reduce dividend per share, though EPS shall remain unchanged.
(ii) Issue of Bonus Shares is the most appropriate measure as this will reduce both dividend per share and the average rate of earning.
(iii) By revising upward the par value of shares in exchange of the existing shares held by them.

5.9.3 Over-Capitalisation vis-à-vis Under-Capitalisation

From the above discussion it can be said that both over capitalisation and under capitalisation are not good. However, over capitalisation is more dangerous to the company, shareholders and the society than under capitalisation. The situation of under capitalisation can be handled more easily than the situation of over-capitalisation. Moreover, under capitalisation is not an economic problem but a problem of adjusting capital structure. Thus, under capitalisation should be considered less dangerous but both situations are bad and every company should strive to have a proper capitalisation.

SUMMARY

- Capital Structure: Capital structure refers to the mix of a firm’s capitalisation (i.e. mix of long term sources of funds such as debentures, preference share capital, equity share capital and retained earnings for meeting total capital requirement). While choosing a suitable financing pattern, certain factors like cost, risk, control, flexibility and other considerations like nature of industry, competition in the industry etc. should be considered.

- Capital Structure Theories: The following approaches explain the relationship between cost of capital, capital structure and value of the firm:
  - Net income approach
  - Net operating income approach
  - Modigliani-Miller approach
  - Traditional approach
  - Trade-off Theory
  - Pecking Order Theory
Optimal Capital Structure (EBIT-EPS Analysis): The basic objective of financial management is to design an appropriate capital structure which can provide the highest earnings per share (EPS) over the firm’s expected range of earnings before interest and taxes (EBIT). PS measures a firm’s performance for the investors. The level of EBIT varies from year to year and represents the success of a firm’s operations. EBIT-EPS analysis is a vital tool for designing the optimal capital structure of a firm. The objective of this analysis is to find the EBIT level that will equate EPS regardless of the financing plan chosen.

Over Capitalisation: It is a situation where a firm has more capital than it needs or in other words assets are worth less than its issued share capital, and earnings are insufficient to pay dividend and interest.

Under Capitalisation: It is just reverse of over-capitalisation. It is a state, when its actual capitalization is lower than its proper capitalization as warranted by its earning capacity.

**TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE**

**MCQs based Questions**

1. Which of the following statements is false in the context of explaining the concept of capital structure of a firm:
   (a) It resembles the arrangements of the various parts of a building
   (b) It represents the relation between fixed assets and current assets
   (c) Combinations of various long-terms sources
   (d) The relation between equity and debt

2. The assumptions of M-M hypothesis of capital structure do not include the following:
   (a) Capital markets are imperfect
   (b) Investors have homogeneous expectations
   (c) All firms can be classified into homogeneous risk classes
   (d) The dividend-payout ratio is cent percent, and there is no corporate tax

3. Which of the following is irrelevant for optimal capital structure?
   (a) Flexibility,
   (b) Solvency,
   (c) Liquidity,
   (d) Control.

4. Financial Structure refer to
   (a) All Financial resources,
5. An EBIT-EPS indifference analysis chart is used for
   (a) Evaluating the effects of business risk on EPS
   (b) Examining EPS results for alternative financial plans at varying EBIT levels
   (c) Determining the impact of a change in sales on EBIT
   (d) Showing the changes in EPS quality over time

6. The term “capital structure” means
   (a) Long-term debt, preferred stock, and equity shares.
   (b) Current assets and current liabilities.
   (c) Net working capital
   (d) Shareholders’ equity.

7. The cost of monitoring management is considered to be a (an):
   (a) Bankruptcy cost.
   (b) Transaction cost.
   (c) Agency cost.
   (d) Institutional cost.

8. The traditional approach towards the valuation of a firm assumes:
   (a) That the overall capitalization rate changes in financial leverage.
   (b) That there is an optimum capital structure.
   (c) That total risk is not changed with the changes in the capital structure.
   (d) That markets are perfect.

9. Market values are often used in computing the weighted average cost of capital because
   (a) This is the simplest way to do the calculation.
   (b) This is consistent with the goal of maximizing shareholder value.
   (c) This is required by SEBI.
   (d) This is a very common mistake.

10. A firm’s optimal capital structure:
    (a) Is the debt-equity ratio that results in the minimum possible weighted average cost of capital.
    (b) 40 percent debt and 60 percent equity.
    (c) When the debt-equity ratio is .50.
    (d) When Cost of equity is minimum
Theoretical based Questions
1. What is Capital Structure?
2. Explain in brief the assumptions of Modigliani-Miller theory
4. Explain the principles of "Trading on equity".
5. Discuss the concept of Debt-Equity or EBIT-EPS indifference point, while determining the capital structure of a company.
6. Discuss financial break-even and EBIT-EPS indifference analysis.

Practical Problems
1. Ganesha Limited is setting up a project with a capital outlay of ₹ 60,00,000. It has two alternatives in financing the project cost.
   Alternative-I : 100% equity finance by issuing equity shares of ₹ 10 each
   Alternative-II : Debt-equity ratio 2:1 (issuing equity shares of ₹ 10 each)
   The rate of interest payable on the debts is 18% p.a. The corporate tax rate is 40%. Calculate the indifference point between the two alternative methods of financing.
2. Ganapati Limited is considering three financing plans. The key information is as follows:
   (a) Total investment to be raised ₹ 2,00,000
   (b) Plans of Financing Proportion:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plans</th>
<th>Equity</th>
<th>Debt</th>
<th>Preference Shares</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
   (c) Cost of debt 8%
   Cost of preference shares 8%
   (d) Tax rate 50%
   (e) Equity shares of the face value of ₹ 10 each will be issued at a premium of ₹ 10 per share.
   (f) Expected EBIT is ₹ 80,000.
   You are required to determine for each plan:
   (i) Earnings per share (EPS)
   (ii) The financial break-even point.
   (iii) Indicate if any of the plans dominate and compute the EBIT range among the plans for indifference.
3. Yoyo Limited presently has ₹36,00,000 in debt outstanding bearing an interest rate of 10 per cent. It wishes to finance a ₹40,00,000 expansion programme and is considering three alternatives: additional debt at 12 per cent interest, preference shares with an 11 per cent dividend, and the issue of equity shares at ₹16 per share. The company presently has 8,00,000 shares outstanding and is in a 40 per cent tax bracket.

(a) If earnings before interest and taxes are presently ₹15,00,000, what would be earnings per share for the three alternatives, assuming no immediate increase in profitability?

(b) Develop an indifference chart for these alternatives. What are the approximate indifference points? To check one of these points, what is the indifference point mathematically between debt and common?

(c) Which alternative do you prefer? How much would EBIT need to increase before the next alternative would be best?

4. Alpha Limited requires funds amounting to ₹80 lakh for its new project. To raise the funds, the company has following two alternatives:

(i) To issue Equity Shares of ₹100 each (at par) amounting to ₹60 lakh and borrow the balance amount at the interest of 12% p.a.; or

(ii) To issue Equity Shares of ₹100 each (at par) and 12% Debentures in equal proportion.

The Income-tax rate is 30%.

Find out the point of indifference between the available two modes of financing and state which option will be beneficial in different situations.

5. One-third of the total market value of Sanghmani Limited consists of loan stock, which has a cost of 10 per cent. Another company, Samsui Limited, is identical in every respect to Sanghmani Limited, except that its capital structure is all-equity, and its cost of equity is 16 per cent. According to Modigliani and Miller, if we ignored taxation and tax relief on debt capital, what would be the cost of equity of Sanghmani Limited?

ANSWERS/SOLUTIONS

Answers to the MCQs based Questions
1. (b) 2. (a) 3. (b) 4. (a) 5. (b) 6. (a) 7. (c) 8. (b) 9. (b) 10. (a)

Answers to Theoretical based Questions
1. Please refer paragraph 5.1
2. Please refer paragraph 5.2.4
3. Please refer paragraph 5.2.3
Answers to Practical problems

1. Calculation of Indifference point between the two alternatives of financing.

   Alternative-I By issue of 6,00,000 equity shares of ₹10 each amounting to ₹60 lakhs. No financial charges are involved.

   Alternative-II By raising the funds in the following way:

   Debt = ₹ 40 lakhs
   Equity = ₹ 20 lakhs (2,00,000 equity shares of ₹10 each)

   Interest payable on debt = \[ 40,00,000 \times \frac{18}{100} = ₹ 7,20,000 \]

   The difference point between the two alternatives is calculated by:

   \[ \frac{(EBIT - I_1)(1 - T)}{E_1} = \frac{(EBIT - I_2)(1 - T)}{E_2} \]

   Where,

   - EBIT = Earnings before interest and taxes
   - I_1 = Interest charges in Alternative-I
   - I_2 = Interest charges in Alternative-II
   - T = Tax rate
   - E_1 = No. of Equity shares in Alternative-I
   - E_2 = No. of Equity shares in Alternative-II

   Putting the values, the break-even point would be as follows:

   \[ \frac{(EBIT - 0)(1 - 0.40)}{6,00,000} = \frac{(EBIT - 7,20,000)(1 - 0.40)}{2,00,000} \]

   \[ \frac{(EBIT)(0.60)}{6,00,000} = \frac{(EBIT - 7,20,000)(0.60)}{2,00,000} \]

   \[ \frac{EBIT (0.60)}{3} = \frac{0.60 (EBIT - 7,20,000)}{1} \]

   \[ EBIT = 3EBIT - 21,60,000 \]

   \[ -2 EBIT = -21,60,000 \]
EBIT = \( \frac{21,60,000}{2} \)

\[ \text{EBIT} = 10,80,000 \]

Therefore, at EBIT of ₹10,80,000 earnings per share for the two alternatives is equal.

2. **(i) Computation of Earnings per share (EPS)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plans</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Earnings before interest and tax (EBIT)</td>
<td>80,000</td>
<td>80,000</td>
<td>80,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Interest charges</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>(8,000)</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earnings before tax (EBT)</td>
<td>80,000</td>
<td>72,000</td>
<td>80,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Tax (@ 50%)</td>
<td>(40,000)</td>
<td>(36,000)</td>
<td>(40,000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earnings after tax (EAT)</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>36,000</td>
<td>40,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Preference Dividend</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>(8,000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earnings available for Equity shareholders (A)</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>36,000</td>
<td>32,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of Equity shares (B)</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>5,000</td>
<td>5,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPS ₹ [(A) ÷ (B)]</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.20</td>
<td>6.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(ii) **Calculation of Financial Break-even point**

Financial break-even point is the earnings which are equal to the fixed finance charges and preference dividend.

Plan A : Under this plan there is no interest or preference dividend payment hence, the Financial Break-even point will be zero.

Plan B : Under this plan there is an interest payment of ₹8,000 and no preference dividend, hence, the Financial Break-even point will be ₹8,000 (Interest charges).

Plan C : Under this plan there is no interest payment but an after tax preference dividend of ₹8,000 is paid. Hence, the Financial Break-even point will be before tax earnings of ₹16,000 (i.e. ₹8,000 ÷ 0.5 = ₹16,000.)

(iii) **Computation of indifference point between the plans.**

The indifference between two alternative methods of financing is calculated by applying the following formula.
\[
\frac{(EBIT - I_1)(1 - T)}{E_1} = \frac{(EBIT - I_2)(1 - T)}{E_2}
\]

Where,

- EBIT = Earnings before interest and tax.
- \(I_1\) = Fixed charges (interest or pref. dividend) under Alternative 1
- \(I_2\) = Fixed charges (interest or pref. dividend) under Alternative 2
- \(T\) = Tax rate
- \(E_1\) = No. of equity shares in Alternative 1
- \(E_2\) = No. of equity shares in Alternative 2

Now, we can calculate indifference point between different plans of financing.

**I. Indifference point where EBIT of Plan A and Plan B is equal.**

\[
\frac{10,000}{(EBIT - 0)(1 - 0.5)} = \frac{5,000}{(EBIT - 8,000)(1 - 0.5)}
\]

| \(0.5 \text{ EBIT} \) | \(5,000\) |
| \(-4,000\) | \(10,000\) |
| \(8,000\) | \(5,000\) |
| \(E \text{ BIT}\) | \(16,000\) |

**II. Indifference point where EBIT of Plan A and Plan C is equal.**

\[
\frac{10,000}{(EBIT - 0)(1 - 0.5)} = \frac{5,000}{(EBIT - 0)(1 - 0.5) - 8,000}
\]

| \(0.25 \text{ EBIT}\) | \(0.5 \text{ EBIT} - 8,000\) |
| \(10,000\) | \(5,000\) |
| \(0.5 \text{ EBIT}\) | \(8,000\) |
| \(E \text{ BIT}\) | \(32,000\) |

**III. Indifference point where EBIT of Plan B and Plan C are equal.**

\[
\frac{5,000}{(EBIT - 8,000)(1 - 0.5)} = \frac{5,000}{(EBIT - 0)(1 - 0.5) - 8,000}
\]

| \(0.5 \text{ EBIT} - 4,000\) | \(0.5 \text{ EBIT} - 8,000\) |
| \(5,000\) | \(5,000\) |

There is no indifference point between the financial plans B and C.

It can be seen that Financial Plan B dominates Plan C. Since, the financial break even point of the former is only ₹8,000 but in case of latter it is ₹16,000.
### 3. (a)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Particulars</th>
<th>Alternatives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Alternative–I: Take additional Debt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(`)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EBIT</td>
<td>15,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest on Debts:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– on existing debt @10%</td>
<td>(3,60,000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– on new debt @ 12%</td>
<td>(4,80,000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profit before taxes</td>
<td>6,60,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taxes @ 40%</td>
<td>(2,64,000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profit after taxes</td>
<td>3,96,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preference shares</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earnings available to equity Shareholders</td>
<td>3,96,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of shares</td>
<td>8,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earnings per share</td>
<td>0.495</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Graph showing Earnings per Share and EBIT](image-url)
(b) Approximate indifference points: Debt and equity shares, ₹24 lakhs, preference and equity shares, ₹33 lakhs in EBIT; Debt dominates preferred by the same margin throughout, there is no difference point. Mathematically, the indifference point between debt and equity shares is (in thousands):

\[
\frac{\text{EBIT}^* - ₹ 840}{800} = \frac{\text{EBIT}^* - ₹ 360}{1,050}
\]

\[
\text{EBIT}^* (1,050) - ₹ 840 = \text{EBIT}^* (800) - ₹ 360
\]

250EBIT* = ₹5,94,000
EBIT* = ₹2,376

Note that for the debt alternative, the total before-tax interest is ₹840, and this is the intercept on the horizontal axis. For the preferred stock alternative, we divide ₹440 by (1-0.40) to get ₹733. When this is added to ₹360 in interest on existing debt, the intercept becomes ₹1,093.

(c) For the present EBIT level, equity shares are clearly preferable. EBIT would need to increase by ₹2,376 - ₹1,500 = ₹876 before an indifference point with debt is reached. One would want to be comfortably above this indifference point before a strong case for debt should be made. The lower the probability that actual EBIT will fall below the indifference point, the stronger the case that can be made for debt, all other things remain the same.

4. (i) Amount = ₹80,00,000

Plan I = Equity of ₹60,00,000 + Debt of ₹20,00,000
Plan II = Equity of ₹40,00,000 + 12% Debentures of ₹40,00,000

**Plan I: Interest Payable on Loan**

= 12% × ₹20,00,000 = ₹2,40,000

**Plan II: Interest Payable on Debentures**

= 12% × ₹40,00,000 = ₹4,80,000

**Computation of Point of Indifference**

\[
\frac{(\text{EBIT} - l_1) (1 - t)}{E_1} = \frac{(\text{EBIT} - l_2) (1 - t)}{E_2}
\]

\[
\frac{(\text{EBIT} - ₹ 2,40,000) (1 - 0.3)}{60,000} = \frac{(\text{EBIT} - ₹ 4,48,000) (1 - 0.3)}{40,000}
\]

2 (EBIT - ₹2,40,000) = 3 (EBIT - ₹4,80,000)
2 EBIT - ₹4,80,000 = 3 EBIT - ₹14,40,000
2 EBIT - 3 EBIT = - ₹14,40,000 + ₹4,80,000
EBIT = ₹9,60,000
(ii) Earnings per share (EPS) under Two Situations for both the Plans

**Situation A (EBIT is assumed to be ₹ 9,50,000)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Particulars</th>
<th>Plan I</th>
<th>Plan II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EBIT</td>
<td>₹ 9,50,000</td>
<td>₹ 9,50,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Interest @ 12%</td>
<td>(₹ 2,40,000)</td>
<td>(₹ 4,80,000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EBT</td>
<td>₹ 7,10,000</td>
<td>₹ 4,70,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Taxes @ 30%</td>
<td>(₹ 2,13,000)</td>
<td>(₹ 1,41,000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAT</td>
<td>₹ 4,97,000</td>
<td>₹ 3,29,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of Equity Shares</td>
<td>60,000</td>
<td>40,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPS</td>
<td>8.28</td>
<td>8.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Comment:** In Situation A, when expected EBIT is less than the EBIT at indifference point then, Plan I is more viable as it has higher EPS. The advantage of EPS would be available from the use of equity capital and not debt capital.

**Situation B (EBIT is assumed to be ₹ 9,70,000)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Particulars</th>
<th>Plan I</th>
<th>Plan II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EBIT</td>
<td>₹ 9,70,000</td>
<td>₹ 9,70,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Interest @ 12%</td>
<td>(₹ 2,40,000)</td>
<td>(₹ 4,80,000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EBT</td>
<td>₹ 7,30,000</td>
<td>₹ 4,90,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Taxes @ 30%</td>
<td>(₹ 2,19,000)</td>
<td>(₹ 1,47,000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAT</td>
<td>₹ 5,11,000</td>
<td>₹ 3,43,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of Equity Shares</td>
<td>60,000</td>
<td>40,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPS</td>
<td>8.52</td>
<td>8.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Comment:** In Situation B, when expected EBIT is more than the EBIT at indifference point then, Plan II is more viable as it has higher EPS. The use of fixed-cost source of funds would be beneficial from the EPS viewpoint. In this case, financial leverage would be favourable.

**Note:** The problem can also be worked out assuming any other figure of EBIT which is more than 9,60,000 and any other figure less than 9,60,000. Alternatively, the answer may also be based on the factors/governing the capital structure like the cost, risk, control, etc. Principles).

5. Here we are assuming that MM Approach 1958: Without tax, where capital structure has no relevance with the value of company and accordingly overall cost of capital of both levered as well as unlevered company is same. Therefore, the two companies should have similar WACCs. Because Samsui Limited is all-equity
financed, its WACC is the same as its cost of equity finance, i.e. 16 per cent. It follows that Sanghmani Limited should have WACC equal to 16 per cent also. Therefore, Cost of equity in Sanghmani Ltd. (levered company) will be calculated as follows:

\[ K_o = \frac{2}{3} K_e + \frac{1}{3} K_d = 16\% \text{ (i.e. equal to WACC of Samsui Ltd.)} \]

Or, 16\% = \frac{2}{3} K_e + \frac{1}{3} \times 10\% \quad \text{Or, } K_e = 19