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Finding the Right Balance in Appraisal Litigation: Deal Price, Deal Process, and Synergies

Lawrence A. Hamermesh and Michael L. Wachter¹

Abstract

This article examines the evolution of Delaware appraisal litigation and concludes that recent precedents have created a satisfactory framework in which the remedy is most effective in the case of transactions where there is the greatest reason to question the efficacy of the market for corporate control, and vice versa. We suggest that, in effect, the developing framework invites the courts to accept the deal price as the proper measure of fair value, not because of any presumption that would operate in the absence of proof, but where the proponent of the transaction affirmatively demonstrates that the transaction would survive judicial review under the enhanced scrutiny standard applicable to fiduciary duty-based challenges to sales of corporate control. We also suggest, however, that the courts and expert witnesses should and are likely to refine the manner in which elements of value (synergies) should, as a matter of well established law, be deducted from the deal price to arrive at an appropriate estimate of fair value.

I. INTRODUCTION

Facilitated largely by “appraisal arbitrage” – the practice of purchasing shares of stock after announcement of a merger, with a view to exercising the statutory right to an award of “fair value” in lieu of the merger price – the once-discredited appraisal remedy has become a significant phenomenon in shareholder litigation.² That development has generated competing claims that appraisal arbitrage should be prohibited because it unduly deters bids, or should be encouraged as an incentive to bidders to pay fair value.³ Increased use of the appraisal remedy has also engendered a parallel debate about the role

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² See Part II.A below.

³ See Part II.B below.

of the merger price in determining fair value: one school of thought posits that the merger price (or deal price) should presumptively be taken to reflect fair value; the opposing school holds that such a “market price rule” harms target company stockholders and should be rejected.⁴

We submit that the Delaware courts are developing a middle ground point of view with respect to these parallel debates. On one hand, the courts have continued to affirm that the practice of appraisal arbitrage is legally permissible under the governing statutory framework, and the Delaware legislature has done nothing to undermine that view.⁵ On the other hand, the courts’ increasing reliance on the deal price to measure fair value has undoubtedly circumscribed the incentive to engage in appraisal arbitrage, at least in cases in which such reliance is most likely to occur.⁶

We support this middle ground point of view, and suggest two significant refinements that would clarify the operation of the appraisal remedy. First, we suggest that the Delaware courts’ treatment of the use of the deal price to determine fair value does and should mirror the treatment of shareholder class action fiduciary duty litigation. In the case of a sale of corporate control, in which the Delaware statute affords appraisal rights,⁷ the governing standard of judicial review requires “enhanced scrutiny” to determine the reasonableness of the sale process.⁸ That same form of judicial review could usefully be applied to determine when the deal price should be used to measure fair

⁴ See Part III.B.2.a below

⁵ See Part II.A below.

⁶ See Part III.B.1.c below.

⁷ Tit. 8, DEL. CODE ANN., § 262 (“Section 262”).

⁸ E.g., *QVC Network v. Paramount Communications*, 635 A.2d 1245, 1268 n. 44 (Del. 1993) (“The enhanced scrutiny required by *Revlon [Inc. v. MacAndrews & Forbes Holdings, Inc.]*, 506 A.2d 173 (Del. 1986)] imposes upon the directors the burden of showing the reasonableness of their conduct.”).

value: where the proponents of the deal satisfy that form of review, such use of the deal price is appropriate; and where they don't, it's not.⁹

Second, we further suggest that reliance on the deal price, without further inquiry, inappropriately creates a no-lose proposition for appraisal arbitrage. It also fails to give effect to well-settled judicial interpretation of the appraisal statute, under which elements of value reflected in the deal price must be deducted to arrive at fair value if they involve value (synergies) that can be achieved only as a result of the merger.¹⁰ Case law and finance literature are sparse, however, in their treatment and quantification of an appropriate deduction for synergies, and we suggest that refinement of that treatment is likely, as deal price comes to play a more regular role in the establishment of fair value.

We develop the foregoing suggestions in the following manner. In Part II, we describe the growth of appraisal arbitrage and the use of the appraisal remedy, and we briefly recount and comment on the debate about the utility of appraisal arbitrage. In Part III, we begin with consideration of a possible statutory change to address concerns about appraisal arbitrage, but find that approach impractical and unlikely to occur. We then consider an approach involving refinement of the standards for determining fair value in appraisal litigation. In that regard, we review the evolution of the role of deal price and the parallel evolution of the use of discounted cash flow (DCF) analysis in appraisal litigation. We then briefly outline the academic debate about the relative merits of these two valuation approaches, including the debate about the possibility of a “market price

⁹ Where the proponent of the transaction fails to establish the reasonableness of the sale process, it may still be appropriate for the court to take the deal price into account in some manner, such as a corroborative check on the results of other valuation techniques. *See, e.g., In re Appraisal of Dell, Inc.*, 2016 Del. Ch. LEXIS 81, *[] (Del. Ch. May 31, 2016).

¹⁰ *See* Part IV.A below.

rule” in which deal price is presumptively determinative of fair value. We conclude Part III with an assessment of the standards by which the courts do and should take deal price into account in determining fair value.

In Part IV, we review how the courts in appraisal litigation have addressed the treatment of synergistic elements of value in the deal price. Acknowledging the legal proposition that such elements must be excluded in determining fair value, we next review how such elements ought to be identified. At that point, we review possible approaches for determining the extent of such synergistic gains, and for determining how such gains might be allocated between acquirers and target company stockholders. We conclude Part IV with the observation that these approaches to synergies are not fully developed in the case law or finance literature, and suggest that law and finance practitioners and the Delaware courts are likely to devote increased attention to refining those approaches.

II. APPRAISAL ARBITRAGE: HISTORY AND CRITIQUES

A. The Legal Framework for, and Growth of, Appraisal Arbitrage

Although the Delaware appraisal statute is not altogether explicit on the point, it has long been recognized that someone who buys shares after the announcement of the terms of a merger is nonetheless entitled to seek appraisal with respect to those shares – *i.e.*, engage in “appraisal arbitration” – as long as the person complies with the formal requirements of the appraisal statute.¹¹ Although this recognition is frequently traced back to the *Transkaryotic* opinion in 2007, the Delaware Court of Chancery first

¹¹ *In re Appraisal of Transkaryotic Therapies, Inc.*, 2007 Del. Ch. LEXIS 57 (Del. Ch. May 2, 2007).

acknowledged the right of post-announcement purchasers to seek appraisal nearly twenty years earlier.¹²

The practice of engaging in appraisal arbitration did not emerge on a large scale, however, until after 2007, but when it did, the previously inhospitable and relatively rarely used appraisal remedy became a hot litigation commodity: as vividly illustrated by a bar graph presented by Subramanian, “appraisal has gone from a trickle in 2009 to approximately \$2.0 billion in face value of claims in each of 2015 and 2016.”¹³ Much of this growth has been driven by specialized players in the appraisal arbitration field, one of whom (Merion Capital) by itself accounted for 36% of the face value of all appraisal claims during the measurement period (2009-2016).¹⁴

B. The Appraisal Arbitration Debate

The phenomenon of appraisal arbitration has generated considerable controversy, which we review here only briefly. Some of the criticism of the practice takes an almost morals-based tone. Early on, it was argued that the practice was inequitable, much like the purchase of stock to bring a derivative suit based on a preexisting wrong to the

¹² *Salomon Bros., Inc. v. Interstate Bakeries Corp.*, 576 A.2d 650 (Del. Ch. 1989); cf. Guhan Subramanian, *Using Deal Price to Determine “Fair Value” in Appraisal Proceedings*, at 2, available at http://www.hbs.edu/faculty/Publication%20Files/20170206_Subramanian-draft_9aa5b475-ed61-4fae-8b39-9b2de9d09425_78008941-390f-458a-a0e0-92863f300dc8.pdf (*Transkaryotic* “opened the way for appraisal arbitration”). One of the authors represented Salomon Brothers in this case. *Transkaryotic* addressed and rejected one argument not raised in *Interstate Bakeries*, namely the claim that a post-announcement purchaser should be required to demonstrate that its shares, held in fungible bulk in the name of a depository nominee, were not voted in favor of the merger.

¹³ Subramanian, note [] above, at 2.

¹⁴ *Id.* at 10.

corporation.¹⁵ According to seven highly respected corporate law firms, the practice of appraisal arbitration is downright “unseemly.”¹⁶ Conversely, criticism of appraisal arbitration invokes the claim – consistently rejected by the Delaware courts – that appraisal rights were intended only for the benefit of pre-announcement holders, and should not be construed to extend to post-announcement purchasers.¹⁷ In response to these legal or moral arguments, supporters of appraisal arbitration argue that purchasing shares after the deal is announced, in order to exercise appraisal rights, is no more unseemly or inequitable than widely accepted practices of trading other financial or contractual claims.¹⁸ Those supporters have consistently won the formal legal argument, with the

¹⁵ *Salomon Brothers*, 576 A.2d at 653-654 (respondent “contends that Salomon's position is the same as that of a stockholder who attempts to bring a derivative suit complaining of wrongs that pre-date the stockholder's first purchase of stock.”).

¹⁶ Letter to the Council of the Delaware State Bar Association Corporation Law Section, from Cravath Swaine & Moore LLP, Davis Polk & Wardwell LLP, Latham & Watkins LLP, Skadden Arps Slate Meagher & Flom LLP, Simpson Thacher & Bartlett LLP, Sullivan & Cromwell LLP, and Wachtell Lipton Rosen & Katz, Apr. 1, 2015, *available at* [] (denying appraisal rights to post-announcement purchasers “would ... reduce the unseemly claims-buying that is rampant and serves no legitimate equitable or other purpose, but threatens to undermine transactional certainty and reduce value to shareholders of Delaware corporations as acquirers, particularly in leveraged transactions, may be forced to factor the enhanced appraisal risk into their calculations.”).

¹⁷ Richard A. Booth, *The Real Problem With Appraisal Arbitrage*, 72 BUS. LAW. 325 (2017) (“the appraisal remedy is widely seen as intended to protect existing stockholders who are (or will be) forced to sell their shares in the merger”); *Salomon Brothers*, 576 A.2d at 651-652 (“IBC's primary argument is that the appraisal statute was not designed to protect those who wish to speculate on a judicial remedy and that Salomon acted in bad faith by purchasing shares with notice of the merger and then demanding appraisal. ... Th[e] history of our appraisal statute does not support IBC's argument that the statute was designed to protect only those stockholders who purchased their shares prior to the announcement of a merger. Rather, its purpose was to replace the stockholder's veto power with a means of withdrawing from the company at a judicially determined price.”).

¹⁸ Council of the Corporation Law Section of the Delaware State Bar Association, *Explanatory Paper* (Mar. 16, 2015), at 2, *available at* <https://www.lowenstein.com/files/upload/DGCL%20262%20Proposal%203-6-15%20Explanatory%20Paper.pdf> (“The assignment and acquisition of financial claims (in contrast to tort claims) generally has been accepted historically and presently as

courts holding that the words and history of the appraisal statute support the practice of appraisal arbitration.¹⁹ In sum, we see no basis in existing statutes or precedent to conclude that appraisal arbitration offends some well-established moral or legal precept.

Other criticisms of appraisal arbitration rely more on economic analysis. It has been suggested, for example, that appraisal arbitrageurs unfairly benefit from a “free option” to take advantage of information arising after the announcement of the deal.²⁰ Critics also

lawful and consistent with public policy.”), *citing* 6 *Del. C.* § 2702 (assignees of bonds, specialties and notes may enforce in their own name); 10 *Del. C.* § 3902 (assignees of contracts may enforce in their own name); Lauren D. Gojkovich, *Leveraging Litigation: How Shareholders Can Use Litigation Leverage to Double Down on Their Investment in High Stakes Securities Litigation*, 16 *STAN. L.J. BUS. & FIN.* 100, 111 (2010). *See also* Eric Winston, *Understanding The Reasons Traders Buy Bankruptcy Claims*, *Law 360* (Jan. 8, 2014), available at <https://www.law360.com/articles/498711/understanding-the-reasons-traders-buy-bankruptcy-claims> (“it is common in ‘mega’ Chapter 11 cases to see on the docket hundreds, if not thousands, of ‘claims transfer notices’ filed pursuant to Federal Rule of Bankruptcy Procedure 3001(e), and that is only a small set of the claims trading activity.”).

¹⁹ *Salomon Brothers*, 576 A.2d at 652 (“If appraisal rights were granted as the *quid pro quo* for the loss of veto power, there is no apparent reason why all stockholders who formerly could have exercised that veto power should not now be able to exercise appraisal rights”); *Transkaryotic*, 2007 Del. Ch. LEXIS 57 at *10-11 (“Must a beneficial shareholder, who purchased shares *after* the record date but before the merger vote, prove, by documentation, that each newly acquired share (*i.e.*, after the record date) is a share not voted in favor of the merger by the *previous* beneficial shareholder? The answer seems simple. No. Under the literal terms of the statutory text and under longstanding Delaware Supreme Court precedent, only a record holder, as defined in the DGCL, may claim and perfect appraisal rights. Thus, it necessarily follows that the record holder's actions determine perfection of the right to seek appraisal.”).

²⁰ Gaurav Jetley & Xinyu Ji, *Appraisal Arbitrage—Is There a Delaware Advantage?*, 71 *BUS. LAW.* 427, 433-441 (2016); Trevor S. Norwitz, *Delaware Legislature Should Act to Curb Appraisal Arbitrage Abuses*, *CLS BLUE SKY BLOG* (Feb. 10, 2015), available at <http://clsbluesky.law.columbia.edu/2015/02/10/delaware-legislature-should-act-to-curb-appraisal-arbitrage-abuses/> (“the fact that the relevant appraisal valuation date is the closing of a transaction, rather than the time of announcement of the deal or the shareholder vote ... gives the appraisal arbitrageur a free option on positive developments between signing and closing.”); *New Activist Weapon – The Rise of Delaware Appraisal Arbitrage: A Survey of Cases and Some Practical Implications*, *FRIED FRANK: M&A BRIEFING* (Jun. 18, 2014), at 2, available at <http://www.friedfrank.com/siteFiles/Publications/FINAL%20->

contend that appraisal arbitrage creates a post-closing risk for buyers that will result in reduced deal prices, as bidders hold back a reserve to deal with post-closing appraisal claims of uncertain magnitude.²¹ It has also been suggested that appraisal arbitrageurs, as the beneficiaries of appraisal awards, divert value to themselves from the pre-existing holders from whom they purchase shares.²² We are at best skeptical of these claims, however. The “free option” described by critics is unlikely to have any substantial value in all but the most unusual case, and is not likely to have provided the incentive for appraisal arbitrage.²³ Likewise, the claim that appraisal arbitrage reduces deal prices appears to be inconsistent with, or at least unsupported by, empirical research.²⁴ Finally,

[%206182014%20TOC%20Memo%20-%20New%20Activist%20Weapon--%20The%20Rise%20of%20Delaware%20Appraisal%20Arbitrage.pdf](#) (“With this timing advantage, investors can review information in the company’s proxy statement relating to its sale process and fairness of the price, can assess any pre-closing shareholder litigation that has been commenced, and can evaluate market, industry and target company conditions at a time much closer to the merger closing date (as of which time the court will determine fair value in an appraisal proceeding) as compared to the time when the deal price was negotiated and then voted on.”)

²¹ Norwitz, note [] above (“buyers will just respond to the new wave of appraisal arbitrage with lower purchase prices, as they feel the need to hold something back for the likely appraisal ‘grab’”).

²² Jay B. Kesten, *The Uncertain Case for Appraisal Arbitrage*, 52 WAKE FOREST L. REV. 89, 92 (2017) (“Rational acquirers that anticipate appraisal proceedings, even in marginal cases, will self-insure against appraisal outlays by offering less for their acquisitions, thereby transferring value from target shareholders as a class to the minority who dissent.”).

²³ Booth, note [] above, at 328 (“the suggestion that arbs may capture the benefit of new information that indicates a higher value for the subject company misconstrues how the appraisal remedy works: It is almost impossible for any information revealed after a merger is announced to affect fair price as determined by an appraisal court.”).

Transkaryotic may be the rare case in which that scenario actually occurred. See George S. Geis, *An Appraisal Puzzle*, 105 NW. L. REV. 1635, 1638-1639 (2011) (noting that “overwhelmingly positive” test results on a new drug arrived after the announcement of the merger but before the merger vote and the closing date).

²⁴ Audra Boone, *et al.*, *Merger Negotiations in the Shadow of Judicial Appraisal*, Sep. 30, 2017 working paper, at 3, available at

https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=3039040 (“none of our models

there is at least some empirical support for the assertion that appraisal arbitration not only solves a collective action problem facing disaggregated pre-announcement stockholders in seeking appraisal,²⁵ but also results in increased prices for their stock.²⁶

On balance, we conclude that appraisal arbitration is an inapt target for unqualified criticism or accolades: it simply makes the appraisal remedy viable in the case of a public company merger where potentially dissenting shares are widely dispersed. If appraisal arbitration is a bad thing, it is only because and to the extent that the appraisal remedy is allowed to operate in a manner that is inefficient.²⁷ If a viable appraisal remedy creates problems or inefficiencies, the debate should be about how to define where that remedy is available and what valuation principles should apply. And that definition, we believe, should be shaped in a manner that encourages (or at least permits) appraisal arbitration where the remedy is useful, and discourages appraisal arbitration where it is not useful.

suggest that bidders lower their offer price in response to heightened threat of dissenters asserting appraisal”); *cf.* Charles R. Korsmo & Minor Myers, *Appraisal Arbitration and the Future of Public Company M&A*, 92 WASH. U. L. REV. 1551, 1555 (2015) (“appraisal petitioners target transactions with lower deal premia and also going-private transactions, where minority shareholders are most likely to face expropriation.”).

²⁵ Korsmo & Myers, note [] above, 92 WASH. U. L. REV. at 1555-1556 (2015) (“By buying up large positions after the announcement of a transaction, arbitrageurs can overcome the collective action problems that would otherwise render appraisal ineffective.”).

²⁶ Boone, *et al.*, at 20-21 (absence of an arbitrage spread in deals targeted by appraisal litigation “implies that some of the gains from merger arbitrage . . . are shared with passive investors.”); *see also* Scott Callahan, *et al.*, *Appraisal Arbitration and Shareholder Value*, (Nov. 9, 2017 working paper), at 5, *available at* [] (“deal premia are discernibly higher in appraisal eligible transactions (even after controlling for the tax status of the deal).”).

²⁷ As a member of the Delaware Court of Chancery with considerable experience with appraisal litigation has noted, “appraisal arbitration is no better or worse than the underlying appraisal cause of action: whether that action promotes efficiency or not, the effect — good or ill — is simply magnified by the availability of arbitrage.” Hon. Sam Glasscock III, *Ruminations on Appraisal*, DEL. LAW. 29 (Summer 2017).

Determining whether the appraisal remedy is “useful,” of course, requires an articulation of what purpose the remedy should serve. In this regard, we find it hard to improve on what Vice Chancellor Sam Glasscock III recently described as “ruminations” about the appraisal remedy:²⁸

- “The reason for appraisal must be sought, I think, in terms of efficient capital markets, not fairness.”²⁹
- Because “few people would invest in equity ownership subject to squeeze-out [by controlling stockholders] at an unfair price ... [c]reating conditions that encourage investment ... requires a judicial appraisal, using valuation techniques, in the squeeze-out or ‘classic’ appraisal situation.”³⁰
- In contrast, “I find little to recommend extending an appraisal right to dissenters in the case of a ‘clean’ merger”³¹ – which he defines as one “where the stock is readily transferable, approved by a disinterested board independent of any controller or other conflict, and where the sale is consummated after an exposure to the market.”³²
- “To believe ... [that] efficiency requires appraisal with respect to a clean merger, one must also believe a number of subsidiary propositions,” namely that:
 - “[A]n entity has an objective, inherent value” that “is potentially higher than will be developed by a sale with market exposure.”

²⁸ *Id.* at 8. Much other ink has been spilled in the effort to divine the purpose of the appraisal remedy. *E.g.*, Thompson, note [] above.

²⁹ Glasscock, note [] above, at 9.

³⁰ *Id.*

³¹ *Id.* at 10.

³² *Id.* at 8.

- “[T]he inherent value of an acquired entity is higher than the stand-alone value of the company as determined (presumably erroneously) by its informed fiduciaries, who must approve the sale.”
- “[A] bench judge, armed with self-serving expert testimony from the parties, is a more reliable diviner of inherent value than the market and the directors.”³³

To this list of prerequisites of the use of appraisal in “clean” mergers, we would add the proposition that such “inherent value” exceeds the value approved (presumably erroneously) by a majority in interest of the persons (the stockholders) holding the economic interest in the enterprise. The Vice Chancellor describes these propositions as “more or less unlikely,”³⁴ and concludes that that it is “unlikely that a lack of appraisal rights [in respect of “clean” mergers] would dissuade investment.”³⁵

III. REFINING THE APPRAISAL REMEDY TO PROMOTE EFFICIENCY

A. A Possible Statutory Solution

If that assertion by the Vice Chancellor is correct, and the availability of appraisal rights in “clean” mergers carries with it countervailing costs and risks, the most logical reform is simply to eliminate appraisal rights in that setting. Indeed, the Model Business Corporation Act adopts such an approach in the case of publicly traded stock by eliminating appraisal rights unless the merger constitutes an “interested transaction,”³⁶ which it defines (phrased in a somewhat oversimplified way) as a merger “involving” a

³³ *Id.*

³⁴ *Id.* at 10.

³⁵ *Id.* at 11.

³⁶ MODEL BUS. CORP. ACT (2016 Revision) §13.02(b)(4).

holder of over 20% of the voting stock, someone with power to name 25% or more of the board, or, in certain cases, a senior executive who is to receive a side benefit in the merger.³⁷ Delaware's statute, in contrast, makes no distinction between interested transactions and "clean" mergers, conferring appraisal rights (or not) instead depending on the form of merger consideration.³⁸ Thus, if the goal of appraisal is to provide a check against deprivation of value due to conflict of interest, Delaware's statute is both overinclusive and underinclusive: it is overinclusive because it provides appraisal rights in a cash merger negotiated at arm's length and approved by a disinterested board of directors and a majority of disinterested stockholders; it is underinclusive because it denies appraisal rights in the case of a merger unilaterally implemented by a publicly traded controlling stockholder (and its nominees on the board of directors) in which the minority stockholders receive shares of the controlling stockholder. Despite persistent criticism and suggestions for reform,³⁹ however, Delaware's appraisal statute has remained untouched in terms of its allocation of appraisal rights.

³⁷ *Id.*, §13.01 (defining "interested transaction").

³⁸ Section 262(b) (denying appraisal rights for widely held or traded shares, but restoring such rights if the merger consideration is cash).

³⁹ Most recently, senior Delaware practitioner David McBride has urged that appraisal rights for public company shares be limited to "interested transactions," which "would be defined to capture those situations in which the officers, directors or a majority of the stockholders have an interest that conflicts with that of the dissenting stockholders." David C. McBride, *Rebalancing the Merger Litigation Landscape*, DEL. LAW. 24, 25-26 (Summer 2017). Previous critiques of the Delaware statute's allocation of appraisal rights include Randall S. Thomas, *Revising the Delaware Appraisal Statute*, 3 DEL. L. REV. 1, 16-21 (2000), and Robert B. Thompson, *Exit, Liquidity, and Majority Rule: Appraisal's Role in Corporate Law*, 84 GEO. L.J. 1, 53-54 (1995).

And even those who advocate an approach similar to the Model Act acknowledge the difficulty of defining an “interested transaction,”⁴⁰ or any other predictable dividing line between mergers in which appraisal is a valuable check on market imperfection and mergers in which the market can be trusted to provide a reasonable assurance that the transaction is delivering fair value. Should appraisal rights be excluded in a merger approved by directors, even if all disinterested, whose approval was the result of gross negligence? Where even disinterested directors approve a deal based on a pre-signing market check was demonstrably deficient in identifying likely bidders, and the merger was shored up by unusually strong deal protections? Attempting to account for such situations through a statutory allocation of appraisal rights could bedevil statutory drafters for years to come.

B. An Alternative Approach Involving Judicial Valuation

The other avenue for limiting appraisal to where it can be most useful involves tailoring the principles for determining fair value in appraisal litigation. That avenue, which is the one we advocate, would employ an approach to determining fair value that: (1) promotes appraisal (and appraisal arbitration) in cases where it represents a genuine check on a process for determining the merger price that lacks assurance that the price is fair – most obviously, where the price is proposed and imposed unilaterally by a controlling stockholder – and (2) discourages appraisal where the process for determining

⁴⁰ McBride, note [] above, at 26 (“The major disadvantage of this approach is the difficulty of statutorily defining ‘interested transactions.’ What conflicts and whose conflicts justify providing a valuation remedy?”). The Model Act provision itself suffers from an ambiguity in restoring appraisal rights where the transaction is one “involving an interested person.” §13.01. The Official Comment explains only that “involving” “denotes participation beyond merely voting or participating on the same basis as other holders of securities of the same or a similar class or series.”

the merger price provides assurance that the price is fair. Refining judicial valuation approaches could obviate the need to engage in the development of a bright line, predictably applied statutory rule for determining whether appraisal rights exist. If those valuation approaches discourage the exercise of appraisal rights where the sale process is robust, the extension of appraisal rights to mergers not warranting significant judicial scrutiny is a problem more theoretical than real.⁴¹

With that proposition in mind, we turn to an examination of the development of the approach to appraisal that we advocate and, in fact, we have seen evolving in the Delaware cases in the last few years.

1. *Judicial Valuation History*

- a. Defining “Fair Value” and Reliance on DCF Analysis

The use of deal price (or third party sale value) to determine fair value in appraisal proceedings has undergone a striking evolution over the last 40 years or so. Early in that time frame, it was petitioning stockholders who argued for use of the deal price, or the value of the company in a hypothetical sale or dissolution.⁴² And it was appraisal defendants who resisted use of the deal price, on the theory that shareholders have no right in appraisal litigation to receive the value that was or could have been received in a third-party sale.⁴³ The defendants’ arguments rested on both statute and case law: use of the deal price (or hypothetical third party sale value) would include elements of value (synergies) attributable to the accomplishment or expectation of the merger (or

⁴¹ The authors acknowledge Stanley Keller as the source of this observation.

⁴² Lawrence A. Hamermesh & Michael L. Wachter, *The Fair Value of Cornfields in Delaware Appraisal Law*, 31 J. CORP. L. 119, 155 (2005), discussing *Bell v. Kirby Lumber Corp.*, 413 A.2d 137 (Del. 1980).

⁴³ *Id.* at 154 n. 140.

hypothetical merger), in violation of Section 262(h), and the case law's reference to fair value as a proportionate share of the value of the going concern precluded inclusion of value attributable to the value of control reflected in the deal price.

Interestingly, the Delaware courts managed to sidestep this controversy, mostly because they increasingly turned to discounted cash flow valuation techniques to determine fair value. As we have written, a valuation aimed at yielding the present value of future free cash flows of the subject firm is, at least theoretically, consistent with the case law definition of fair value as the value of the going concern.⁴⁴ By focusing solely on anticipated returns to the corporation itself, that valuation approach conveniently, and appropriately, enables the courts to avoid applying discounts of various sorts attributable to the nature or status of the dissenting shares (*e.g.*, a minority discount or a discount for lack of marketability), or premiums attributable to synergistic merger gains or gains achievable through consolidation of control.

As the courts became more comfortable with DCF analysis, however, something interesting happened. Contrary to the tenor of the debate in the 1970s and 1980s, when petitioners argued for deal price and respondents argued for less, courts applying DCF analysis increasingly arrived at valuations *greater* than the deal price. In some cases, this was not at all surprising: for example, where the deal price is established unilaterally in a freezeout by a controlling stockholder and, accordingly, the market for corporate control does not afford any corroboration of the deal price as fair value, a responsible DCF analysis may well result in a fair value in excess of the deal price. But, as it turned out, that sort of case was by no means the only circumstance in which a DCF-based fair value

⁴⁴ Lawrence A. Hamermesh & Michael L. Wachter, *Rationalizing Appraisal Standards in Compulsory Buyouts*, 50 B.C. L. REV. 1021, 1043 (2009).

was found to exceed deal price. Increasingly, this outcome was observed in cases in which the court entertained some doubt about the efficacy of even a conflict-free sale process.

In 2004, for example, the Delaware Court of Chancery used DCF analysis to award an amount greater than the sale price of the company.⁴⁵ In so doing, the court directly confronted and rejected the respondent's claim that the merger price was at least as great as fair value because it was the product of "a 'thorough and fair' auction."⁴⁶ To the contrary, the court found that after the founder/director/1% stockholder of the firm made a bid, the subsequent sale process "likely did not include all potential bidders, was conducted quite hastily, and probably reduced the likelihood that all bidders would be fully apprised of the Company's current prospects."⁴⁷ The resulting fair value determination was \$1.64 per share, about 60% higher than the \$1.06 per share deal price.

In that same year (in 2004), the Court of Chancery similarly disposed of another appraisal case, in which the court used a DCF analysis to derive a fair value award of \$24.65 per share, which exceeded the deal price of \$20.44 by around 20%.⁴⁸ Despite noting that "as a general matter, an arms length transaction may be a good indicator of value," that the transaction at issue "was the product of arm's length negotiations," and that "there is no suggestion that the sales effort was not professionally handled," the court was nonetheless dissuaded from reducing the fair value award to a level at or below the

⁴⁵ *Gholl v. eMachines, Inc.*, 2004 Del. Ch. LEXIS 171 (Del. Ch. Nov. 24, 2004), *aff'd*, 875 A.2d 632 (Del. 2005).

⁴⁶ *Id.* at *58.

⁴⁷ *Id.* at *61.

⁴⁸ *Cede & Co. v. MedPointe Healthcare, Inc.*, 2004 Del. Ch. LEXIS 124, *1-2 (Del. Ch. Aug. 16, 2004).

deal price, due to a concession by the target's investment banker that the sales process was "desperate."⁴⁹

These cases foreshadowed the result in the better-known, perhaps even notorious, litigation involving the acquisition of Dell by a private equity firm associated with Dell's founder Michael Dell. In that situation, the Court of Chancery found that despite the presence of Mr. Dell, a director and 16% stockholder, on the buy side, the sale process used by the special committee of independent directors was sufficient to "sail through" any challenge based on a claim of breach of fiduciary duty.⁵⁰ Finding a number of reasons to question the utility of the deal price as a measure of fair value, however, the court gave exclusive weight to a DCF valuation, and declined to give the deal price any weight "[b]ecause it is impossible to quantify the exact degree of the sale process mispricing."⁵¹ Accordingly, the court set fair value at \$17.62 per share, a 25% premium over the \$13.75 per share deal price.⁵²

The *Dell* case may have been the high-water mark in a series of cases in which the Delaware courts have acknowledged the theoretical utility of reliance on the deal price as an upper limit on fair value, but used DCF analysis to reach a fair value award substantially in excess of the deal price.

b. Institutional Issues with DCF Analysis

Even as that series of cases unfolded, however, one could observe a countervailing trend in Delaware appraisal litigation. As the courts honed their technique

⁴⁹ *Id.* at *77 n. 107.

⁵⁰ *In re Appraisal of Dell, Inc.*, 2016 Del. Ch. LEXIS 81, *88 (Del. Ch. May 31, 2016).

⁵¹ *Id.* at *168.

⁵² *Id.* at *1, *51. This result is awaiting review by the Delaware Supreme Court, and this discussion will no doubt be revised substantially when the appellate determination is handed down.

in evaluating and applying discounted cash flow analyses, they became increasingly and visibly dismayed by the tendency of litigation experts to present “wildly divergent” DCF valuations.⁵³ Unconstrained by the demands of clients deciding to pay or receive real money in a negotiated commercial transaction based on DCF analysis, litigation experts could proffer such analyses pushing at “the outer limits of plausibility.”⁵⁴ Despite justly deserved commendations for their sophistication and energy in evaluating those competing DCF claims,⁵⁵ the Delaware courts have repeatedly acknowledged a concern

⁵³ *Dunmire v. Farmers & Merchants Bancorp of Western Pa., Inc.*, 2016 Del. Ch. LEXIS 167, *80 (Del. Ch. Nov. 10, 2016). *See also In re ISN Software Corp. Appraisal Litigation*, 2016 Del. Ch. LEXIS 125, *2 (Del. Ch. Aug. 11, 2016) (“it is quite common for the petitioner’s expert in an appraisal to reach a DCF value twice that arrived at by the respondent’s expert”); *Longpath Capital, LLC v. Ramtron Int’l Corp.*, 2015 Del. Ch. LEXIS 177, *27 (Del. Ch. June 30, 2015) (“Much has been said of litigation-driven valuations, none of it favorable. Here, the parties have proffered widely disparate valuation numbers”); *In re Dole Food Co.*, 114 A.3d 541, 557 (Del. Ch. 2014) (“In appraisal proceedings, the battling experts tend to generate widely divergent valuations as they strive to bracket the outer limits of plausibility.”); *Finkelstein v. Liberty Digital, Inc.*, 2005 Del. Ch. LEXIS 53, *41 (Del. Ch. Apr. 25, 2005) (“Men and women who purport to be applying sound, academically-validated valuation techniques come to this court and, through the neutral application of their expertise to the facts, come to widely disparate results, even when applying the same methodology.”).

⁵⁴ *Dole Food*, 114 A.3d at 557. The problem is not unique to Delaware appraisal litigation. *See* Kenneth Ayotte & Edward R. Morrison, *Valuation Disputes in Bankruptcy*, working paper (on file with authors) at 3 (in bankruptcy valuation proceedings, “the discounted cash flow (DCF) method is particularly susceptible to the kinds of manipulation that judges have difficulty evaluating. Because this method leans heavily on subjective assumptions that are difficult to test if not entirely untestable, we believe this method is not well-suited for adversarial litigation in a bankruptcy case. It may be best used as a last resort when more transparent approaches (surrounding market evidence, comparable transactions or comparable company multiples) are unreliable, and only when discount rates can be calculated using well-grounded approaches.”).

⁵⁵ *E.g.*, Charles R. Korsmo & Minor Myers, *The deterrence value of stockholder appraisal*, in CLAIR A. HILL & STEVEN DAVIDOFF SOLOMON, EDs., RESEARCH HANDBOOK ON MERGERS AND ACQUISITIONS, ch. 16, at 349 (Edward Elgar Publishing Ltd. 2016) (“the five members of the Court of Chancery are expert not only in the mechanics of valuation but also on the background market realities of public companies. . . . [T]he output of appraisal proceedings in Delaware can be expected to generate a valuation estimate of dissenters’ stock that is particularly credible.”); *see also* Jill E.

about institutional limitations on their ability to effectively sort out those “wildly divergent” financial analyses.⁵⁶

And as those courts have explicitly noted, the result of DCF analysis is highly susceptible to wide swings based on seemingly small variations in the inputs to the analysis.⁵⁷ In one recent case, the court lamented the fact that the parties’ experts presented DCF-based valuations differed by a factor of over eight.⁵⁸ Many DCF inputs can and often are disputed,⁵⁹ judicial error in evaluating such disputes could be resolved by resort to finance principles that are widely accepted but not always applied by

Fisch, *Leave It to Delaware: Why Congress Should Stay Out of Corporate Governance*, 37 DEL. J. CORP. L. 731, 740 (2013) (“[T]he Delaware Court of Chancery is drawn from experts in the corporate law community. Because of these judges’ detailed knowledge of business and business law, their decisions are informed, realistic, and highly respected.”).

⁵⁶ See, e.g., *In re Dole Food Co.*, 114 A.3d 541, 555 (Del. Ch. 2014) (“as this court’s opinions frequently have observed, the past and current members of this court are ‘law-trained judges,’ not valuation experts”); *Huff Fund Inv. P’ship v. CKx, Inc.*, 2013 Del. Ch. LEXIS 262, *2 (Del. Ch. Oct. 31, 2013) (in determining the value of real estate, “[a] law-trained judge would have scant grounds to substitute his own appraisal for those of the real-estate valuation experts, and would have no reason to second-guess the market price absent demonstration of self-dealing or a flawed sales process,” and valuation of corporate stock arises in the “much more complex venue of the sale of a corporate enterprise.”); *Union Ill. 1995 Inv. L.P. v. Union Fin. Group, Ltd.*, 847 A.2d 340, 359 (Del. Ch. 2003) (“For me (as a law-trained judge) to second-guess the price that resulted from that [active sale] process involves an exercise in hubris and, at best, reasoned guesswork.”).

⁵⁷ E.g., *Merion Capital LP v. Lender Processing Svcs. Corp.*, 2016 Del. Ch. LEXIS 189, *89 (Del. Ch. Dec. 16, 2016) (“Small changes in the assumptions that drive the DCF analysis, however, generate a range of prices that starts below the merger price and extends far above it.”).

⁵⁸ *ISN Software*, 2016 Del. Ch. LEXIS 125, *2 (“In a competition of experts to see which can generate the greatest judicial skepticism regarding valuation, ... this case, so far, takes the prize: one of the Petitioners’ experts opines that fair value is greater than eight times that implied by the DCF provided by the Respondent’s expert.”).

⁵⁹ In *ISN*, for instance, the eight-fold difference between the experts’ DCF valuations was attributable to disputes over a variety of inputs, including the initial cash flow projection period, anticipated incremental working capital requirements, and the size premium for determining the cost of equity. 2016 Del. Ch. LEXIS 125 at *14-17.

courts;⁶⁰ but even within the constraints of such principles, there can be plausible variation between optimism and pessimism about the firm's prospects that can cause major divergence among competing experts' DCF valuations.⁶¹

The use of DCF analysis in appraisal litigation has also been criticized as skewed toward excessive valuations. One commentator suggests that management projections, although widely considered to be the most reliable basis for discounted cash flow analysis,⁶² may be systematically overstated due to inherent optimism or a desire on the part of management to demonstrate good performance, especially in anticipation of a potential sale in which their stock (or stock options) would be acquired.⁶³ Another commentator urges that the courts have mistakenly used a future growth rate (g) that has

⁶⁰ Ayotte & Morrison, note [] above, at 11 (criticizing bankruptcy courts' occasional acceptance of adjustment of the discount rate on account of firm-specific risk, despite "fundamental corporate finance theory, and recent evidence confirm[ing] that firm-specific risk is not relevant to valuation. Yet experts routinely adjust discount rates (upwards or downwards) to account for firm-specific risks.").

⁶¹ See, e.g., *Peltz v. Hatten*, 279 B.R. 710, 737-38 (D. Del. 2002) ("Simply put, when it comes to valuation issues, reasonable minds can and often do disagree. This is because the output of financial valuation models [is] driven by their inputs, many of which are subjective in nature. ... The DCF method involves projections of future cash flows (which are largely dependent on judgments and assumptions about a company's growth rate) and judgments about liquidity and the cost of capital."). Most notably, differences of views about long-term growth (g) will substantially affect the estimation of terminal value, often a very large portion of the total firm value estimate. See, e.g., Richard A. Booth, *The Real Problem with Appraisal Arbitrage*, 72 BUS. LAW. 325, [] (2017). Similarly, experts can plausibly differ with regard to near term estimates of free cash flow, based on competing views of likely operating performance.

⁶² E.g., *ACP Master, Ltd. v. Clearwire Corp.*, 2017 Del. Ch. LEXIS 125, *80 (Del. Ch. July 21, 2017) ("The first key to a reliable DCF analysis is the availability of reliable projections of future expected cash flows, preferably derived from contemporaneous management projections prepared in the ordinary course of business.") (quoting *In re PetSmart, Inc.*, 2017 Del. Ch. LEXIS 89, *68 (Del. Ch. May 26, 2017)).

⁶³ Peter Welsh, *et al.*, *Management Projections in Delaware Appraisal Litigation: Anecdotal Evidence*, 31 INSIGHTS 15 (Oct. 2017) (suggesting systematic management bias to explain shortfalls between actual post-merger performance and pre-merger management estimates).

been systematically excessive, due to the practice of accepting that growth in the terminal period calculation will equal average growth in GDP, without regard to required future reinvestment.⁶⁴

Even in cases involving firms with actively traded shares followed by multiple institutional analysts, where one might expect more neutral valuation incentives than those of litigation experts, valuations may not coalesce within even a relatively narrow range. For just one recent example, nine different firms published target price estimates for Citigroup during the four-day period from July 14-17, 2017 and, despite the absence of any indication that those firms were relying on different information or had any idiosyncratic incentive that would affect the valuation, the resulting estimates ranged from \$61 to \$81 per share, a spread of over 30%.⁶⁵

⁶⁴ Booth, 72 BUS. LAW. at 335 (using average GDP to reduce the discount rate is impermissible “unless projected return is reduced to reflect new investment.”).

⁶⁵ The estimates were:

	<u>Date</u>	<u>Target Price</u>
Barclays	7/17/2017	\$70.00
CFRA	7/14/2017	\$68.00
Credit Suisse	7/16/2017	\$72.00
Deutsche	7/14/2017	\$61.00
Evercore ISI	7/17/2017	\$ 68.00
JPMorgan	7/17/2017	\$72.00
Oppenheimer	7/14/2017	\$81.00
Sandler O'Neill	7/17/2017	\$76.00
UBS	7/14/2017	\$68.00

(reports on file with authors). These estimates largely appear to reflect use of market multiple approaches to valuation, rather than more fully articulated DCF analyses, but we see no reason to expect less variation if firms were to use such DCF analyses more routinely. *Cf.* Ayotte & Morrison, note [] above, at 10, indicating that market multiple approaches are likely to result in less variability in valuation results than DCF analysis (in “46% of all cases, the experts fight over the discount rate (WACC) and in 76% they dispute the projected cash flows. By contrast, the key inputs to CCM [comparable company multiples] and TM [transaction multiple] valuations are much less likely to be disputed. Across all cases, none of the key inputs—the selection of comparable

In many or perhaps even most litigation situations, experts will not even be constrained by contemporaneous and public DCF analyses. In such situations, the problem of wildly divergent analyses has been persistent and problematic, and a solution has been elusive. At one point there had been a dalliance with the idea that the court could precommit to accept one side's position altogether, thereby encouraging the parties to avoid extreme valuation positions for fear of having the court accept their opponents' contention. In 1997, however, the Delaware Supreme Court rejected that approach as inconsistent with the appraisal statute requiring the court to take into account all relevant factors in determining fair value.⁶⁶ At this point, adopting that approach – sometimes described as “final offer arbitration” or the “baseball arbitration” approach – would require a repudiation of that decision, either by the Delaware Supreme Court or by legislative change. There are no indications that either of those options is being actively explored⁶⁷ and, in any event, the evidence is at best equivocal that this approach would actually achieve its intended purpose of bringing the parties' DCF-based valuation contentions closer together. At least one study of final offer arbitration finds that where

companies, the type of multiplier, or the enterprise value of the comparables—was disputed in more than 20% of the cases.”).

⁶⁶ *Gonsalves v. Straight Arrow Publishers, Inc.*, 701 A.2d 357, 361 (Del. 1997) (where the Chancellor “announced in advance that he intended to choose between absolutes, ... the evidentiary construct he established for the subsequent trial created a standard for value determination which is at odds with Section 262's command that the Court ‘shall appraise’ fair value.”).

⁶⁷ Amici in the *DFC* appeal expressly invited the Delaware Supreme Court to revisit and modify the holdings in *Gonsalves*, but the court did not take up that invitation. Jennifer Arlen et al., Brief of Law and Corporate Finance Professors as Amici Curiae, *DFC Global Corp. v. Muirfield Value Partners, L.P.* (Feb. 3, 2017), available at <http://lawprofessors.typepad.com/files/dfc-holdings---appraisal.pdf> at 23 (“if this Court were to limit or adjust the reasoning of *Gonsalves v. Straight Arrow Publishers, Inc.*, the trial judge could employ approaches that incentivize greater moderation among competing experts (such as “baseball arbitration” mechanisms), thereby narrowing the valuation gaps between their analyses.”).

parties have little to lose by going through the proceedings, and results are inherently uncertain, contentions actually become more extreme and do not converge as hoped.⁶⁸

And in an appraisal litigation environment in which petitioners rarely achieve fair value awards significantly less than the deal price, and results are necessarily uncertain, empirical studies do not hold out much assurance that the courts' frustration with divergent valuation contentions would vanish under a final offer arbitration-type process.

Another possible solution to the problem of divergent expert valuation opinions is the use of a court-appointed valuation expert. This idea is by no means new: it has been suggested multiple times,⁶⁹ it was essentially required practice under the appraisal statute

⁶⁸ James B. Dworkin, *Salary Arbitration in Baseball: An Impartial Assessment After Ten Years*, 14 ARB. J. 63, 69 (March 1986) (“For those parties going to arbitration, the process has not worked well in terms of causing the parties to submit reasonable final offers and final demands. The data indicate that the final positions of the parties are not converging upon one another but rather are spreading farther apart over time. Final-offer arbitrators may in fact be forced to select from between two unreasonable positions, as some critics of this procedure have claimed.”). See also Henry Farber, *An Analysis of Final Offer Arbitration*, 24 J. CONFL. RES. 680, 699 (1980), available at <http://journals.sagepub.com/doi/abs/10.1177/002200278002400407> (“final offers tend to diverge where there is more uncertainty,” and “using uncertainty to promote negotiated settlements will result in extreme awards where negotiations fail.”). On the other hand, Dworkin finds that “[f]inal-offer arbitration in baseball has worked well in terms of enticing the parties to bargain in good faith and settle their differences on their own.” 14 ARB. J. at 69.

⁶⁹ E.g., Arlen, *et al.*, note [] above, at 23 (“nothing in the statute prevents trial judges from engaging independent valuation experts to make a neutral recommendation to the court.”). Arlen *et al.* cite *Cede & Co.*, 884 A.2d 26 at 34 for the proposition that the “Court of Chancery ... appoint[ed] a non-lawyer to serve concurrently as an independent expert witness on valuation matters and as a special appraisal master.” Although literally correct, that fact doesn’t advance the idea very much: in *Cede*, the Supreme Court rejected that very appointment, finding that the court’s “appointment of a combination special appraisal master/independent expert witness and the delegation of responsibility for valuing the Technicolor shares is unlawful because it is contrary to the statutory mandate that “the Court [of Chancery] shall appraise the shares.” 758 A.2d at 487; *In re Shell Oil Co.*, 607 A.2d 1213, 1222 (Del. 1992) (“if the Court is limited to the biased presentation of the parties, it is often forced to pick and choose from a limited record without the benefit of objective analysis and opinion. To compensate for this

before 1976 (when an appraisal case initially was tried to a court-appointed “appraiser”⁷⁰), and it was even tried, at least once, after appraisers were eliminated as a statutory requirement.⁷¹ For a number of possible reasons, however, the use of a court-appointed valuation expert has not caught on. For one thing, use of a court-appointed valuation expert inevitably creates an additional layer of litigation, because both sides understandably will want to have input into the neutral expert’s deliberations, thereby creating something of a trial within a trial,⁷² much like the abandoned statutory role of appraiser.⁷³ In any event, in light of cases like *Gonsalves* and *Technicolor*, it is likely that excessive reliance on an independent valuation expert would constitute a failure to fulfill the court’s statutory affirmative requirement that the court “shall appraise” the fair value of the shares at issue.⁷⁴ Even though the Delaware Supreme Court has acknowledged that

handicap, the Court of Chancery should consider, in a proper case, appointing its own expert witness.”).

⁷⁰ *Gonsalves*, 701 A.2d at 360-361 (describing the requirement of appraisers under Section 262, until the statute was amended in 1976 to eliminate that requirement).

⁷¹ See note [] above, describing the rejected appointment in *Cede & Co. v. Technicolor, Inc.*

⁷² *In re Appraisal of Shell Oil Co.*, 607 A.2d 1213, 1223 (Del. 1991) (“The court appointed expert is subject to the same standards which govern other expert witnesses under the Delaware Rules of Evidence. The expert must advise the parties of all findings and submit to depositions. Once trial commences, it is incumbent upon the trial judge to arrange for the court’s experts witness to testify if neither party calls him as a witness. The court’s expert must be subject to cross-examination by both parties, even if one party chose to call him as its witness. Finally, the court’s expert should be reasonably compensated by the parties in such proportion and at such intervals as the trial court determines.”).

⁷³ *Gonsalves*, 701 A.2d at 361 (“The legislative synopsis for the bill proposing this change [to eliminate the role of appraisers] recites that ‘[e]xperience has shown this two-step procedure to be wasteful of time and money.’ Comm. to H.R. 916, 128th G.A., 2d Sess. (1976) (enacted).”).

⁷⁴ *Id.*, citing Section 262(h); see also *id.* at 360 (“The modern appraisal process presumes a sophisticated judge who exercises independence in determining the value of corporation in a contested proceeding.”); *Cede & Co. v. Technicolor, Inc.*, 758 A.2d 485, 496 (Del. 2000) (“reference of an *entire* appraisal proceeding and the use of masters to determine

"the Court of Chancery has the inherent authority to appoint neutral expert *witnesses*,"⁷⁵ the court's ability to rely on such neutral witnesses is clearly circumscribed by the requirement that the court make its own independent determination of fair value.

c. Increasing Reliance on Deal Price to Measure Fair Value

It is against that backdrop that the most recent judicial valuation trend emerged, in which - with respondents' active encouragement – the courts began to rely more heavily on the merger price to establish fair value in appraisal litigation. As is well known to contemporary readers, that trend culminated in the Delaware Supreme Court's 2017 opinion in *DFC Global Corp. v. Muirfield Value Partners, L.P.*⁷⁶ In that opinion, the court concluded that in the case of an arm's length merger arising out of a "robust market search" and free of any "hint of self-interest," "economic principles suggest that the best evidence of fair value was the deal price."⁷⁷ We return below to discuss the ramifications of this opinion.

That opinion, however, was by no means the first instance in which the Delaware courts relied on deal price to determine fair value. One of the earliest instances of such reliance, in 1993, set the tone for a number of similar subsequent opinions. In *Cooper v. Pabst Brewing Co.*,⁷⁸ Vice Chancellor Hartnett made a number of prescient, insightful observations that resonate in later case law and in this article:

the ultimate valuation are not permitted by the present statutory appraisal scheme.") (emphasis in original).

⁷⁵ *In re Appraisal of Shell Oil Co.*, 607 A.2d at 1222-23.

⁷⁶ - A.3 – (Del. 2017).

⁷⁷ *Id.* at [].

⁷⁸ 1993 Del. Ch. LEXIS 91, *23-25 (Del.Ch. June 8, 1993).

- First and most important, he recognized that at least where other evidence of fair value is unreliable, use of the deal price could be justified “under conventional principles of economics.”⁷⁹
- He further acknowledged that use of the deal price had been regarded as inappropriate because of the possible inclusion of a premium for control.⁸⁰
- Finally, he acknowledged that reliance on the deal price to measure fair value would have the detrimental effect of setting that price as a floor, thereby creating a “no-lose” proposition for appraisal petitioners.⁸¹

Despite *Pabst*'s general endorsement of deal price as a measure of fair value, that approach in appraisal litigation did not emerge again in appraisal litigation until over a decade later in the *Union Illinois* case, in which Vice Chancellor Strine, author of the Delaware Supreme Court's subsequent opinion in *DFC*, cited *Pabst* as the basis for using deal price as the key point of reference for determining fair value.⁸² As he explained, “reliable evidence” of fair value “includes the transaction that gives rise to the right of appraisal, so long as the process leading to the transaction is a reliable indicator of value

⁷⁹ *Id.* (“the results of the auction for Pabst might be expected to provide a reasonable indication of Pabst's value that this Court can consider in light of the parties' failure to satisfactorily provide a persuasive measure of value using other techniques.”).

⁸⁰ *Id.* (“Delaware courts in the past, however, have been unwilling to consider just the results of an “auction” between competing tender offerors as evidence of a firm's value because such offers ordinarily contain a control premium unrelated to the value of the firm as a going concern.”).

⁸¹ *Id.* (“To allocate a *pro rata* share of a premium to dissenting shareholders would, in effect, make the deal price a “floor” for the appraisal value. By making the deal price a ‘floor’ for the appraised value, minority shareholders would be presented with a ‘no-lose’ situation if they seek an appraisal and dissents from mergers would therefore be encouraged.”).

⁸² *The Union Illinois 1995 Inv. L.P. v. Union Fin. Grp., Ltd.*, 847 A.2d 340, 357 (Del. Ch. 2004).

and merger-specific value is excluded.”⁸³ Notably, the court rejected a DCF approach to valuation, where that alternative approach resulted in a value below the deal price even net of a 13% discount for synergies.⁸⁴ The contrast is striking with contemporaneous appraisal opinions (in *MedPointe* and *eMachines*)⁸⁵, in which the court relied on a DCF approach to arrive at fair value in excess of the deal price.

Deal price as a measure of fair value emerged again in a 2007 Chancery opinion, in which the court accorded a weight of 75% to a fair value estimate based on the deal price, less a discount of 13% to account for deal synergies.⁸⁶ The court reasoned that “a court may derive fair value in a Delaware appraisal action if the sale of the company in question resulted from an arm's-length bargaining process where no structural impediments existed that might prevent a topping bid.”⁸⁷ Similar to *Union Illinois*, the court declined to accord weight to a DCF analysis, finding that “industry experts and executives do not consider a DCF a particularly important framework for valuing a company whose primary business is selling life insurance.”⁸⁸

Perhaps emboldened by these opinions, the respondent in the *Golden Telecom* appraisal litigation arising out of a merger in 2007 urged Vice Chancellor Strine to rely on the deal price in a case in which the two largest stockholders (together owning over 44% of the stock) had an even larger equity interest in the buyer, and a special committee

⁸³ *Id.*

⁸⁴ *Id.* at 359.

⁸⁵ Notes – and – above.

⁸⁶ *Highfields Capital, Ltd. v. AXA Fin., Inc.*, 939 A.2d 34, 61 (Del. Ch. 2007).

⁸⁷ *Id.*

⁸⁸ *Id.* at 54.

made no effort to engage in an active market check.⁸⁹ Not surprisingly, the Vice Chancellor summarily rejected that contention, finding that “[t]here was no open market check that provides a reliable insight into [the target]’s value.”⁹⁰

On appeal, however, things took a confusing turn: according to the Supreme Court’s opinion, the respondent advanced the robust contention that the court should adopt a standard “requiring conclusive or, in the alternative, presumptive deference to the merger price in an appraisal proceeding.”⁹¹ The Supreme Court did not merely reject that contention and affirm the Vice Chancellor’s conclusion based on the factual finding that the merger price was an unreliable guide to fair value in the case at hand; rather, the Supreme Court rejected the use of a presumption of reliance on the deal price, “even in the face of a pristine, unchallenged transactional process.”⁹²

That language – questioning the presumptive use of deal price “even in the face of a pristine, unchallenged transactional process” – of course does not literally preclude using the deal price to determine fair value; it merely rejects any presumption in favor of such use. But that observation seems like semantic formalism: when and why would “a pristine, unchallenged transactional process” *not* permit use of the deal price to determine fair value?⁹³ And if a process endowed with such adjectives would not justify at least a

⁸⁹ *Global GTLP v. Golden Telecom, Inc.*, 993 A.2d 497, 503 (Del. Ch. 2010), *aff’d*, 11 A.3d 214 (Del.2010).

⁹⁰ *Id.*, 993 A.2d at 499.

⁹¹ *Id.*, 11 A.3d at 216.

⁹² *Id.* at 218.

⁹³ The confusion may stem from imprecision about the nature of judicial presumptions. If deal price were presumptively determinative of fair value, the presumption would require such use of deal price *in the absence of any proof* reflecting on the quality of the sale process. *See* Federal Rules of Evidence Rule 301 (“In a civil case, unless a federal statute or these rules provide otherwise, the party against whom a presumption is directed has the burden of producing evidence to rebut the presumption.”). Even if the deal price were

presumption that the deal price is evidence of fair value, when would the deal price ever be used to measure fair value? In any event, the Supreme Court’s language in *Golden Telecom* surely had to be discouraging to any lower court judge asked to rely on deal price to measure fair value. Indeed, when the question arose thereafter in appraisal litigation, the court rejected a request to rely on the deal price to measure fair value, cautioning that cases supporting such reliance had been decided before *Golden Telecom*.⁹⁴ And in *Huff Fund Investment Partnership v. CKx, Inc.*,⁹⁵ the petitioners went so far as to argue that under *Golden Telecom*, the deal price was “now irrelevant in an appraisal context.”⁹⁶

Nevertheless, the chancellors persisted. Beginning in 2013, a series of opinions from the Court of Chancery embraced the deal price to measure fair value:

- In the first of those opinions (*CKx*), the court echoed one of the elements of the reasoning twenty years earlier in *Pabst*: namely, that the court could rely on deal price if it concludes that the sale process was reasonable and that other techniques

presumed *not* to measure fair value, once a respondent produced evidence demonstrating that the sale process was robust and “pristine,” any such presumption – which only operates in the absence of proof that establishes a result contrary to the presumed finding – would become irrelevant. See *In re Transkaryotic Therapies, Inc.*, 954 A.2d 346, 349 (Del. Ch. 2008) (“defendants cannot rely on rebuttable presumptions once plaintiffs have rebutted them.”); *Staats by Staats v. Lawrence*, 1990 Del. LEXIS 301, *5-6 (Del. 1990) (describing the legal effect of a presumption under Delaware Rules of Evidence Rule 301, and noting that although Rule 301 “specifically rejects the ‘bursting bubble’ rule which requires only that the opposing party *produce* some evidence to rebut the presumption,” and that “once the presumption has been rebutted (whether at the level of production or persuasion), it bursts.”).

⁹⁴ *Merion Capital, L.P. v. 3M Cogent, Inc.*, 2013 Del. Ch. LEXIS 172, *16 (Del. Ch. 2013) (rejecting deal price as a measure of fair value in part because respondent “did not attempt to adjust the merger price to remove the ‘speculative elements of value that may arise from the ‘accomplishment or expectation’ of the merger.’”).

⁹⁵ 2013 Del. Ch. LEXIS 262 (Del. Ch. Oct. 31, 2013), *aff’d*, 2015 Del. LEXIS 77 (Del. Feb. 12, 2015).

⁹⁶ *Id.* at *34.

- for assessing fair value are “unreliable.”⁹⁷ Several subsequent cases took the same approach, relying exclusively on the deal price to determine fair value, but suggesting that such reliance was appropriate in part because other valuation approaches were unreliable.⁹⁸
- Subsequent case law, however, appears to have disposed of any such limitation on restricting use of the deal price to situations in which other valuation techniques are unreliable. In *Appraisal of Ancestry.com*,⁹⁹ the court relied exclusively on deal price; the court was satisfied that its DCF analysis was reliable, but relegated that analysis to a corroborative role of confirming that the sale process – which the court found “represent[ed] an auction of the Company that is unlikely to have left significant stockholder value unaccounted for” – provided “comfort that no

⁹⁷ *Id.* (“In the absence of comparable companies or transactions to guide a comparable companies analysis or a comparable transactions analysis, and without reliable projections to discount in a DCF analysis, I rely on the merger price as the best and most reliable indication of CKx's value.”).

⁹⁸ *Merlin Partners LP v. AutoInfo, Inc.*, 2015 Del. Ch. LEXIS 128, *42, *52 (Del. Ch. Apr. 30, 2015) (finding that the sale process was “comprehensive” and that, on the other hand, “there is no reliable data to input into a DCF or comparable companies model.”); *Longpath Capital LLC v. Ramtron Int’l Corp.*, 2015 Del. Ch. LEXIS 177, *2 (finding that “the sales process in this instance was thorough” but that “the management projections that provide the key inputs to the petitioner's DCF analysis are not reliable. The parties agree that there are no comparable companies.”); *Merion Capital LP, v. BMC Software, Inc.*, 2015 Del. Ch. LEXIS 268, *49, *64 (Del. Ch. Oct. 21, 2015) (finding that the sale process was “robust,” and that management projections were “historically problematic, in a way that could distort value.”); *In re Appraisal of PetSmart, Inc.*, 2017 Del. Ch. LEXIS 89, *4 (Del. Ch. May 26, 2017) (finding that the sale process was “reasonably designed and properly implemented,” but that the management projections that were the basis for DCF analysis were “fanciful,” and there was no “evidence for concluding that some other valuation methodology might lead to a reliable determination of fair value.”).

⁹⁹ 2015 Del. Ch. LEXIS 21 (Jan. 30, 2015).

undetected factor skewed the sales process,” reassuring the court in its resolve to rely exclusively on the deal price.¹⁰⁰

- Similarly, in *Lender Processing*¹⁰¹ the court relied exclusively on deal price, finding that the company “ran a sale process that generated reliable evidence of fair value,” and that even though the court’s own DCF analysis came out within 3% of the deal price, the court treated the DCF result as merely corroborative, because even though the projections on which the DCF analysis was based were “reliable,” “[s]mall changes in the assumptions that drive the DCF analysis ... generate a range of prices that starts below the merger price and extends far above it.”¹⁰²

If there were any continuing thought from this case law development that use of the deal price to determine fair value depended on a showing that all other valuation techniques were demonstrably unreliable, the Delaware Supreme Court’s opinion in *DFC* put an end to it. When the court said that “economic principles suggest that the best evidence of fair value was the deal price,”¹⁰³ it was well aware of the features of the specific legal context (statutory appraisal) in which those principles would operate, yet it concluded that “those features do nothing to undermine the ability of the Court of Chancery to determine, in its discretion, that the deal price is the *most* reliable evidence of fair value in a certain case”¹⁰⁴ It is clear from this statement that as a matter of law, the courts can, in the right circumstances, select deal price to measure fair value,

¹⁰⁰ *Id.* at *50.

¹⁰¹ *Merion Capital LP v. Lender Processing Svcs., Inc.*, 2016 Del. Ch. LEXIS 189 (Del. Ch. Dec. 16, 2015).

¹⁰² *Id.* at *89.

¹⁰³ *DFC* at [*3-4].

¹⁰⁴ *DFC* at [*47] (emphasis added).

even if one or more other valuation techniques are reasonably reliable, simply because the deal price may be the “most” reliable evidence of fair value.

2. *Critique of Reliance on Deal Price*

a. Academic Commentary

Arriving at that point in the evolution of valuation doctrine was controversial among academics and practitioners. When the *DFC* case was on appeal to the Delaware Supreme Court, two competing camps of scholars submitted opposing amicus briefs – one urging that the deal price should be presumed to constitute fair value,¹⁰⁵ and the other contending that such presumptive use of the deal price would unduly deter meritorious appraisal claims and harm stockholders.¹⁰⁶

Although it could be said that the “deal price presumption” camp lost (in the sense that the Supreme Court declined to adopt a presumption in favor of using the deal price), these academic adversaries were not shooting at each other across a bright line, and the differences in their positions were not as stark as might have first appeared. Those advocating a presumption in favor of reliance on the deal price acknowledged that other approaches to determining fair value could be appropriate “where the transaction price bears indications of misinformation or bias,” or “where material information is withheld from the market.”¹⁰⁷ Conversely, those arguing against the presumptive use of the deal price acknowledged that the deal price could appropriately measure fair value on

¹⁰⁵ Stephen Bainbridge et al., Brief of Law and Corporate Finance Professors as Amici Curiae in Support of Reversal, *DFC Global Corp. v. Muirfield Value Partners, L.P.* (Jan. 6, 2017), available at <http://lawprofessors.typepad.com/files/dfc-holdings---bainbridge.pdf>.

¹⁰⁶ Jennifer Arlen et al., Brief of Law and Corporate Finance Professors as Amici Curiae, *DFC Global Corp. v. Muirfield Value Partners, L.P.* (Feb. 3, 2017), available at <http://lawprofessors.typepad.com/files/dfc-holdings---appraisal.pdf>.

¹⁰⁷ Bainbridge, *et al.*, note [] above, at 16-17.

appropriate facts, and that “[t]he Court of Chancery should be permitted to marshal its equitable discretion to decide—on a case-by-case basis—how much weight merger price warrants relative to other factors.”¹⁰⁸ The key question, then, is how the courts should exercise that discretion.

b. The Proper Scope and Benefits of Reliance on Deal Price

Whatever the merits of the various academic positions on the use of deal price to measure fair value, the Delaware courts appear to have arrived at a reasonably workable approach to the question. Most obviously, and consistent with the statutory and traditional judicial approach to appraisal litigation, they have rejected the use of any presumption regarding the use of deal price.¹⁰⁹ Similarly, they have not chosen to look to the deal price to measure fair value in cases in which conflicts of interest on the part of a controlling stockholder or one or more members of the board of directors would lead a court in fiduciary duty litigation to require the proponents of the transaction to establish its entire fairness.¹¹⁰

In transactions in which the proponents have no conflict of interest, the Delaware courts do not appear to have developed any formulaic or bright line tool to determine when deal price should measure fair value.¹¹¹ What we discern from the case law, however, is a tendency to rely on deal price to measure fair value where the transaction would survive enhanced judicial scrutiny, *i.e.*, when a court would conclude that the

¹⁰⁸ Arlen, *et al.*, note [] above, at 16.

¹⁰⁹ *DFC*, - A.3d at -; *Golden Telecom*, 11 A.3d at 217-218.

¹¹⁰ *E.g.*, *Dunmire*, note [] above.

¹¹¹ *Lender Processing*, note [] above, 2016 Del. Ch. LEXIS at *33 (“evaluating the reliability and persuasiveness of the deal price for purposes of establishing fair value in an appraisal proceeding is a multifaceted, fact-specific inquiry. The relevant factors can vary from case to case depending on the nature of the company, the overarching market dynamics, and the areas on which the parties focus.”).

transaction's proponents have demonstrated that the process that led to the merger, although perhaps not yielding the optimum outcome for target stockholders, was nonetheless at least reasonable.¹¹² Thus, in order to determine whether to use the deal price to establish fair value, the Delaware courts are engaging in the same sort of scrutiny they would have applied under *Revlon* if the case were one challenging the merger as in breach of the directors' fiduciary duties. In effect, the courts are applying a presumption *against* use of the deal price to measure fair value, because unless the respondent demonstrates that the transaction process was reasonable, the court declines to use that measure of fair value.

We discuss below the similarities in the considerations the courts have brought to bear in scrutinizing the deal process, in both appraisal and *Revlon* litigation, and conclude this section with some observations about the utility of the approach we have observed.

i. Appraisal Cases

In addition to confirming the absence of disabling conflicts of interest on the part of transaction proponents, the courts in appraisal litigation have identified a number of factors that incline them toward accepting the deal price as evidence of fair value.

“Meaningful competition among multiple bidders during the pre-signing phase” appears to be the most compelling such factor,¹¹³ and favoring use of the deal price to measure

¹¹² See *DFC*, - A.3d at [] (“the purpose of an appraisal is not to make sure that the petitioners get the highest conceivable value that might have been procured had every domino fallen out of the company’s way; rather, it is to make sure that they receive fair compensation for their shares in the sense that it reflects what they deserve to receive based on what would fairly be given to them in an arm’s length transaction.”).

¹¹³ *Lender Processing*, 2016 Del. Ch. LEXIS 189 at *45 (“The first factor supporting the persuasiveness of the Company’s sale process is the existence of meaningful competition among multiple bidders during the pre-signing phase.”); *BMC*, 2015 WL 6164771, at *14-15 (reciting that the company conducted “a robust, arm’s-length sales process” that

fair value based on that factor is consistent with the views of even the scholars most skeptical about such use of the deal price.¹¹⁴ Even before *DFC*, however, and certainly afterward, it is clear that the presence of multiple competing bidders in the pre-signing phase is not a prerequisite to such use. In *DFC* itself, the acquirer was the only bidder, yet the court explained that “the fact that the ultimate buyer was alone at the end provides no basis for suspicion” of the deal price, given other indicia of a reasonable sale process.¹¹⁵ Earlier opinions also confirm that the deal price can be a reliable measure of fair value even in a single-bidder situation, as long as other circumstances demonstrate that “the process by which [the target was] marketed to potential buyers was thorough, effective, and free from any spectre of self-interest or disloyalty.”¹¹⁶

involved “two auctions over a period of several months,” where the company “was able to and did engage multiple potential buyers during these periods,” and where the lone remaining bidder “raised its bid multiple times because it believed the auction was still competitive.”); *AutoInfo*, 2015 Del. Ch. LEXIS 128, at *34 (noting that the merger price was “the result of competition among many potential acquirers.”); *Ramtron*, 2015 Del. Ch. LEXIS 177, at *71 (target “actively solicited every buyer it believed could be interested in a transaction” before signing a merger agreement); *Ancestry.com*, 2015 Del. Ch. LEXIS 21 at *10 (“Ultimately, seven potential bidders submitted non-binding preliminary indications of interest”); *Union Ill.*, 847 A.2d at 359 (finding that the merger “resulted from a competitive and fair auction” in which “several buyers with a profit motive” were able to evaluate the company and “make bids with actual money behind them.”); *CKx*, 2013 Del. Ch. LEXIS 262, at *47 (noting that “the bidders were in fact engaged in a process resembling the English ascending-bid auction” involving direct competition between bidders).

¹¹⁴ Notes [] above.

¹¹⁵ *DFC*, - A.3d at -. It remains to be seen on remand, of course, whether the deal price will be given exclusive weight in determining fair value; but the Supreme Court specifically rejected the Court of Chancery’s determination to accord it only one-third weight. *Id.* at [] (“we cannot sustain the Chancellor’s decision to give only one-third weight to the deal price because the factors he cited in giving it only that weight were not supported by the record.”).

¹¹⁶ *Ramtron*, 2015 Del. Ch. LEXIS 177 at *70-71, quoting *CKx*, 2013 Del. Ch. LEXIS 262 at *42.

Those other circumstances, in addition to the absence of any conflict of interest, include the duration of the sale process¹¹⁷ and the efforts by the target and its investment banker to contact potentially interested purchasers.¹¹⁸ Other cases using the deal price to measure fair value rely on the adequacy of information about the target available to potential bidders,¹¹⁹ and public awareness of the existence of the pre-signing sale process.¹²⁰ If, as we contend, cases applying enhanced scrutiny under *Revlon* are a guide to how the courts should determine when to use the deal price to measure fair value, the courts will also likely look to the scope of deal protections during the post-signing period.¹²¹

It is instructive, on the other hand, to note what circumstances (again, apart from conflict of interest) have led the courts to decline to use deal price to measure fair value. The sample of such cases is small, and the Court of Chancery's opinion in *Dell* looms large. In that case, “[a] confluence of multiple factors caused [the court] not to give

¹¹⁷ *DFC*, - A.3d at [] (“Houlihan had approached every logical buyer,” and “no one was willing to bid more [than Lone Star] in the months leading up to the transaction . . .”).

¹¹⁸ *Ramtron*, 2015 Del. Ch. LEXIS 177 at *76-77 (target’s financial advisor “(1) contacted twenty-four third parties . . . ; (2) sent non-disclosure agreements (‘NDAs’) to twelve . . . ; (3) received executed NDAs from six . . . ; and (4) remained in discussions with three”).

¹¹⁹ *Lender Processing*, 2016 Del. Ch. LEXIS 189 at *52 (“Another factor supporting the effectiveness of the sale process in this case was that adequate and reliable information about the Company was available to all participants, which contributed to the existence of meaningful competition.”); *Union Ill.*, 847 A.2d at 350 (the company “was marketed in an effective manner, with an active auction following the provision of full information to an array of logical bidders.”).

¹²⁰ *See Ramtron*, 2015 Del. Ch. LEXIS 177 at *82 (“This lengthy, publicized process was thorough and gives me confidence that, if Ramtron could have commanded a higher value, it would have.”).

¹²¹ *E.g.*, *In re Topps Co. S'holders Litig.*, 926 A.2d 58, 86 (Del. Ch. 2007) (“the deal protections the Topps board agreed to in the Merger Agreement seem to have left reasonable room for an effective post-signing market check. For 40 days, the Topps board could shop like Paris Hilton.”)

greater weight to the deal price, including (i) the transaction was an MBO, (ii) the bidders used an LBO pricing model to determine the original merger consideration, (iii) there was compelling evidence of a significant valuation gap driven by the market's short-term focus, and (iv) the transaction was not subjected to meaningful pre-signing competition.”¹²² The court concluded that “there were structural impediments to a topping bid on the facts of the case, particularly in light of the size and complexity of the company and the sell-side involvement of the company's founder.”¹²³

Any comments on the continued viability of these considerations are likely to be superseded by developing case law, in particular the result of the pending appeal in *Dell*. But at least one of the factors the court relied on in *Dell* appears to be inconsistent with governing law as announced in *DFC*: use of an LBO pricing model based on demanded internal rates of return is no longer a legally viable reason to disregard the deal price in determining fair value. As the court explained in *DFC*, “[t]hat a buyer focuses on hitting its internal rate of return has no rational connection to whether the price it pays as a result of a competitive process is a fair one.”¹²⁴

There is also reason to question whether a “valuation gap driven by the market's short-term focus” survives *DFC* as a reason not to rely on the deal price. In *DFC*, the Court of Chancery had reduced the significance attached to deal price in part because “*DFC* was in a trough with future performance dependent upon the outcome of regulatory actions”¹²⁵ To this, the Supreme Court responded that (1) share markets take regulatory risk into account, (2) share trading prices have not lost relevance to fair value,

¹²² *Lender Processing*, *86 (summarizing the court’s previous decision in *Dell*).

¹²³ *Id.* at *87.

¹²⁴ *DFC*, - A.3d at [].

¹²⁵ 2016 Del. Ch. LEXIS 103, at *67-68.

and (3) buyers consider regulatory risk; simply because the company's "growth story was not accepted by the markets does not mean that the markets ignored it."¹²⁶ As applied to *Dell*, this analysis at least calls into question the idea that a "valuation gap driven by the market's short-term focus" is an independent reason to reject deal price as a measure of fair value.

Dell poses a different and challenging legal issue bearing on the willingness of the courts to use deal price in appraisal proceedings. In no uncertain terms, the court in *Dell* emphasized that judged by enhanced scrutiny standards in fiduciary duty litigation, the merger would "sail through."¹²⁷ Yet the court at the same time decided not to give any weight to the merger price, "[b]ecause it is impossible to quantify the exact degree of the sale process mispricing."¹²⁸ Hence the key issue: if a merger satisfies even enhanced judicial scrutiny, can the deal price be irrelevant in determining fair value? Is the appraisal remedy thus somehow unmoored from the question of the reasonableness of fiduciary conduct in approving the merger?

DFC strongly suggests that the answer to these questions is no. According to that opinion, "the purpose of an appraisal ... is to make sure that [dissenting stockholders] receive fair compensation for their shares in the sense that it reflects what they deserve to receive based on what would fairly be given to them in an arm's-length transaction."¹²⁹ And what is "fairly given," according to the court, is not some abstract, idealized concept

¹²⁶ *DFC*, - A.3d at [*61].

¹²⁷ *Dell*, 2016 Del. Ch. LEXIS 81, *88.

¹²⁸ *Id.*, *168.

¹²⁹ *DFC*, - A.3d at [] .

of some inherent or intrinsic value;¹³⁰ rather, fair value is what “a reasonable seller, under all the circumstances, would regard as within a range of fair value; one that such a seller could reasonably accept.”¹³¹ That range of reasonableness concept of fair value is strongly evocative of enhanced judicial scrutiny under *Revlon* and its progeny,¹³² so it seems reasonable as a matter of doctrinal interpretation to conclude that the standard under *Revlon* for validating a merger involving a sale of control is equivalent to the standard under the appraisal statute for determining whether to use the deal price to measure fair value.

Subramanian argues for a somewhat stricter standard, including a presumption that the deal price measures fair value “in a true arms-length deal with meaningful price

¹³⁰ See *Global GT LP v. Golden Telecom, Inc.*, 993 A.2d 497, 517 n. 126 (Del. Ch. 2010), *aff'd*, 11 A.3d 214 (“the hoary term “intrinsic value,” [is] best reserved for judgments of the divine than ones made by human judges.”).

¹³¹ *DFC*, - A.3d at [], quoting *Cinerama, Inc. v. Technicolor, Inc.*, 663 A.2d 1134, 1143 (Del. Ch. 1994), *aff'd*, 663 A.2d 1156 (Del. 1995). We share this rejection of the notion that stockholders are entitled to some inherent or intrinsic value, or that such a value even exists. This view marks our principal, if not only, quarrel with the premises of the most articulate opponents of the “market price rule.” See Albert Choi & Eric Talley, *Appraising the “Merger Price” Appraisal Rule*, [citation to current draft] at 5 (positing that appraised value can be “too high, too low, or just right by objective criteria.”) (emphasis added). We do not quarrel, however, with the suggestion that a legal definition of fair value that created a relatively high reserve price would have the effect of increasing observed merger premia. We do not venture an opinion as to whether such high premia would have a net positive wealth effect, taking into account the interests of acquirers and their investors, or whether such higher premia would reflect a legally imposed wealth transfer from acquirers to target stockholders. See also Callahan, *et al.*, note [] above, at 5 (“if the anticipated appraisal right grows “too large,” it can be detrimental to target shareholder welfare (akin to imposing an unrealistic reserve price on an auction).”).

¹³² E.g., *C&J Energy Servs. v. City of Miami Gen. Employees' & Sanitation Employees' Ret. Trust*, 107 A.3d 1049, 1067 (Del. 2014) (“a court applying *Revlon's* enhanced scrutiny must decide “whether the directors made a *reasonable* decision, not a *perfect* decision.”) (emphasis in original).

discovery.¹³³ We suppose that his advocacy of any sort of presumption does not survive doctrinally after *DFC*, but we do not fault him for that advocacy. His centrist approach to the so-called “market price rule” issue is the closest to our own view, and if we part company with him, it is on the question of whether deal price can measure fair value where the sale process involved only a post-signing market check (via a go-shop provision) subject to a continuing match right. His position is that “an exclusive pre-signing negotiation followed by a go-shop process in which the buyer gets an unlimited match right would probably not qualify for deference to the deal price.”¹³⁴ The use of the word “probably” makes it unclear how stringently this position should be applied, but we would reject, as the courts have done under *Revlon*, any position that the sale process is necessarily defective, such that the deal price should not be relied upon to measure fair value, in the event it entails an exclusive pre-signing negotiation followed by a go-shop process in which the buyer gets an unlimited match right.¹³⁵

In any event, because we maintain that the *Revlon* line of case law can and should inform how the courts evaluate when to rely on the deal price in determining fair value,

¹³³ Guhan Subramanian, *Using the Deal Price for Determining “Fair Value” in Appraisal Proceedings*, at 23 (Feb. 6, 2017 draft), available at http://www.hbs.edu/faculty/Publication%20Files/20170206_Subramanian-draft_9aa5b475-ed61-4fae-8b39-9b2de9d09425_78008941-390f-458a-a0e0-92863f300dc8.pdf, forthcoming in *THE CORPORATE CONTRACT IN CHANGING TIMES: IS THE LAW KEEPING UP?* (U. Chicago Press) (“in a true arms-length deal with meaningful price discovery, there should be a strong presumption that the deal price represents fair value in an appraisal proceeding; but if the deal process does not include a meaningful market canvass and an arms-length process, deal price should receive no weight.”).

¹³⁴ *Id.* at 22.

¹³⁵ *Cf. In re Topps Co. S’holder Litig.*, 926 A.2d 58, 87 (Del. Ch. 2007) (concluding that where a merger agreement provided for a 40-day go-shop, a bifurcated termination fee and matching rights, “this approach to value maximization was likely a reasonable one,” even in the absence of a pre-signing market check).

we find it helpful to review briefly how the courts applying *Revlon* have determined whether a merger survives enhanced judicial scrutiny.

ii. *Revlon* Cases

That line of case law demonstrates that the Delaware courts have on occasion found that a sale process run by even a disinterested board of directors may fail to survive the enhanced judicial scrutiny required by *Revlon*. For example, in *In re Netsmart Techs., Inc. S'holders Litig.*,¹³⁶ the court preliminarily enjoined an acquisition by two private equity firms, finding that the board's efforts to identify potential strategic bidders was inadequate¹³⁷ and that for a micro-cap company a post-signing market check should not be deemed as reliable as in the case of a widely followed, large-cap company.¹³⁸ The court therefore concluded that "the board's failure to engage in any logical efforts to examine the universe of possible strategic buyers and to identify a select group for targeted sales overtures was unreasonable and a breach of their *Revlon* duties."¹³⁹ Similar findings in an appraisal case should presumably lead the court to decline to accept the deal price as a proxy for fair value.

In a case decided the same year as *NetSmart*, the court found that the directors' conduct in a different phase of the deal process failed to meet *Revlon*'s enhanced scrutiny

¹³⁶ 924 A.2d 171 (Del. Ch. 2007).

¹³⁷ *Id.* at 196 ("What was never done by ... the board was a serious sifting of the strategic market to develop a core list of larger healthcare IT players for whom an acquisition of Netsmart might make sense.").

¹³⁸ *Id.* at 197 ("Precisely because of the various problems Netsmart's management identified as making it difficult for it to attract market attention as a micro-cap public company, an inert, implicit post-signing market check does not, on this record, suffice as a reliable way to survey interest by strategic players. Rather, to test the market for strategic buyers in a reliable fashion, one would expect a material effort at salesmanship to occur.").

¹³⁹ *Id.* at 199.

standard. In *In re Topps Co. S'holder Litig.*,¹⁴⁰ the court focused on the board's refusal to release a competitor (Upper Deck) from a standstill agreement in order to permit it to proceed with an offer for the target during a 40-day go-shop period. The court emphasized the importance of such a period where there had been no pre-signing market check, and concluded that the board's "decision to foreclose its stockholders from receiving an offer from Upper Deck seems likely, after trial, to be found a breach of fiduciary duty" under *Revlon*.¹⁴¹ Had the case involved a statutory appraisal, it seems likely that the court, for similar reasons, would have declined to use the deal price to measure fair value.

By contrast, a transaction can satisfy *Revlon*'s enhanced scrutiny even in the absence of a pre-signing market check and multiple bidders at any stage. In *Pennaco, Inc. Shareholders' Litig.*,¹⁴² the court rejected *Revlon* claims where the board had negotiated exclusively with one bidder before entering into a merger agreement with that bidder, and no other bidder emerged. What was critical to the court's acceptance of the sale process as reasonable was that the "board was careful to balance its single buyer negotiation strategy by ensuring that an effective post-agreement market check would occur."¹⁴³ And what made the post-agreement market check effective was that "no substantial barriers to the emergence of a higher bid existed."¹⁴⁴ In these circumstances, the fact that no other

¹⁴⁰ 926 A.2d 58 (Del. Ch. 2007).

¹⁴¹ *Id.* at 92.

¹⁴² 787 A.2d 691 (Del. Ch. 2001).

¹⁴³ *Id.* at 707.

¹⁴⁴ *Id.* ("The merger agreement's provisions leave [the acquirer] exposed to competition from rival bidders, with only the modest and reasonable advantages of a 3% termination fee and matching rights."). *Cf. Koehler v. NetSpend Holdings, Inc.*, 2013 Del. Ch. LEXIS 131, *45 (Del. Ch. May 21, 2013) ("in forgoing a pre-Agreement market check, and relying on an ambiguous fairness opinion, the Board had to be particularly scrupulous in

bidder emerged, despite the fact that the transaction was well publicized and the company was widely followed, was taken by the court as “evidence that the directors, in fact, obtained the highest and best transaction reasonably available.”¹⁴⁵ If a court in an appraisal proceeding were to reach the same conclusion, it seems almost certain, at least after *DFC*, that the court would look to the deal price to measure fair value.

Revlon’s enhanced scrutiny leaves plenty of room to address a scenario that has caused some justifiable concern on the part of critics of use of the deal price to measure fair value: specifically, a circumstance in which the compensation arrangements or other interests of the CEO or perhaps other senior managers as well create incentives on their part to negotiate and approve a deal and forgo the real possibility of alternative transactions that would provide greater value for stockholders generally.¹⁴⁶ One can always quarrel about the extent to which the courts can effectively police the effect of such misaligned incentives,¹⁴⁷ but existing doctrine certainly permits an inquiry into such

ensuring a process to adequately inform itself that it had achieved the best price,” yet “deal-protection devices which included a no-shop clause and which provided that don't-ask-don't-waive provisions already in place would continue, prevent[ed] the Board from learning whether [two private equity buyers] were interested in bidding.”)

¹⁴⁵ *Id.*, quoting *Matador Capital Mgmt. Corp. v. BRC Holdings*, 729 A.2d 280, 293 (Del. Ch. 1998).

¹⁴⁶ See, e.g., Matthew Schoenfeld, *The High Cost of Fewer Appraisal Claims in 2017: Premia Down, Agency Costs Up*, working paper (Aug. 27, 2017), at 4, available at https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=3028381 (CEOs willingness to accept suboptimal deals for stockholders “stems not only from CEOs’ ability to internalize 100% of their CIC package while externalizing most ‘costs’ of a lower transaction price, but also from any additional rents they are able to extract—via transaction-related bonuses or ex-post Parachute augmentations—at the expense of disinterested shareholders.”).

¹⁴⁷ Schoenfeld plainly maintains that the current litigation system fails to do an adequate job: “Amid the recent enfeeblement of germane shareholder litigation, it is perhaps not surprising then that as premiums have fallen, Parachutes and related bonuses have burgeoned.”) *Id.*

incentives and their effects,¹⁴⁸ and there is no motion to dismiss pleading stage obstacle to such an inquiry in appraisal cases.

iii. The Continuing Utility of Appraisal (and Appraisal Arbitrage)

By suggesting that the inquiry whether to use the deal price to measure fair value should be as demanding (or undemanding) as enhanced scrutiny under *Revlon*, we are not contending for any sort of “market price rule” or presumption in favor of using the deal price to measure fair value; to the contrary, we argue in favor of the opposite presumption, under which respondents in appraisal cases who argue in favor of such use of the deal price will be required, as with any valuation contention in appraisal cases, to come forward with evidence sufficient to establish the reasonableness of the sale

¹⁴⁸ For example, plaintiffs in *Pennaco* argued that the golden parachutes of the senior officers motivated them and the board to accept a poor deal. Although the court rejected the argument on the facts – the two senior officers were also very large stockholders who were unlikely to have sacrificed substantial value for the stock just in order to activate their severance payments – the court was at least open to entertaining this argument against reliance on the deal price. 787 A.2d at 708-710. In contrast, in *El Paso S'holders Litig.*, 41 A.3d 432, 443 (Del. Ch. 2012), the court found a likely breach of fiduciary duties under *Revlon* in part because of the CEO's personal interest in acquiring a business from the company's merger partner. As the court explained: “when there is a reason to conclude that debatable tactical decisions were motivated not by a principled evaluation of the risks and benefits to the company's stockholders, but by a fiduciary's consideration of his own financial or other personal self-interests, then the core animating principle of *Revlon* is implicated. As *Revlon* itself made clear, the potential sale of a corporation has enormous implications for corporate managers and advisors, and a range of human motivations, including but by no means limited to greed, can inspire fiduciaries and their advisors to be less than faithful to their contextual duty to pursue the best value for the company's stockholders.” *Id.* at 439. See also *Smith v. Van Gorkom*, 488 A.2d 858, 866 (Del. 1985) (finding directors personally liable for breach of fiduciary duty in approving a merger largely negotiated by a CEO whose retirement was imminent and who opposed a potentially better LBO deal in which younger members of management might take his place).

process.¹⁴⁹ As a result, there is no reason to think that the test of whether to use the deal price in appraisal cases will be any less demanding than the application of the enhanced scrutiny standard in *Revlon* preliminary injunction cases.

In fact, with post-closing damages claims under *Revlon* having been substantially circumscribed by the impact of stockholder approval of mergers after *Corwin*,¹⁵⁰ it may be the appraisal remedy, rather than the class action for breach of fiduciary duty, that will supply the primary private litigation check on the conduct of the sale process.¹⁵¹ We see this possibility as a salutary one, for two principal reasons. First, as Subramanian notes,¹⁵² bidders who face the risk of post-closing appraisal litigation will have an incentive – so long as the appraisal remedy remains viable – not to impose demands upon target boards that would increase the prospect that the court would decline to find the sale

¹⁴⁹ *Montgomery Cellular Holding Co. v. Dobler*, 880 A.2d 206, 221 (Del. 2005) (“In a statutory appraisal proceeding, each side has the burden of proving its respective valuation positions by a preponderance of the evidence.”); *M.G. Bancorporation v. Le Beau*, 737 A.2d 513, 520 (Del. 1999) (“In a statutory appraisal proceeding, both sides have the burden of proving their respective valuation positions by a preponderance of evidence.”).

¹⁵⁰ *Corwin v. KKR Fin. Holdings, LLC*, 125 A.3d 304, 312-313 (Del. 2015) (“[W]hen a transaction is not subject to the entire fairness standard, the long-standing policy of our law has been to avoid the uncertainties and costs of judicial second-guessing when the disinterested stockholders have had the free and informed chance to decide on the economic merits of a transaction for themselves.”).

¹⁵¹ See Korsmo & Myers, note [] above, 92 WASH. U. L. REV. at 1599 (“If . . . a merger is agreed to at a price far enough below fair value—measured in conventional financial terms—appraisal arbitrageurs will have an incentive to accumulate a position and seek appraisal. In so doing, the arbitrageur will serve as a check on low-ball merger agreements and freeze-outs.”).

¹⁵² Subramanian, note [] above, at 19 (buy side principals and their advisers “could encourage the sell-side board to have a good deal process (pre-signing auction, no matching rights, etc.) in order to reduce their post-closing appraisal risk.”). Subramanian also points out, however, that such encouragement might be limited because it could (and would presumably be intended, in effect) to drive up the acquisition price. Still, fostering an incentive to bidders to avoid excessive demands for bidding advantage and deal protections would be a useful countervailing effect of an appraisal rule that required examination of the quality of the sale process.

process to have been reasonable, and thereby increase the risk of an appraisal award substantially greater than the deal price. Second, we concur with the assessment of Korsmo and Myers that appraisal litigation (especially where driven by appraisal arbitration) is structurally superior to class action litigation in the sense that there is less concern that the litigation will be driven by counsel, and a greater likelihood that the litigation will be initiated and resolved based on the interests of clients with substantial investments in the shares at issue.¹⁵³

It is not our view, however, that appraisal arbitration, coupled with rejection of the deal price where conflicts of interest or other deficiencies in the sale process render the deal price unreliable as a measure of fair value, will necessarily result in the most completely balanced check on opportunism. We say this because unmitigated reliance on unadjusted deal price creates a no-lose rule, presciently warned against a quarter century ago in *Pabst*:¹⁵⁴ with a statutory presumption of an award of fully compensatory prejudgment interest,¹⁵⁵ appraisal arbitrageurs would suffer little or no down side and could

¹⁵³ Charles R. Korsmo & Minor Myers, 92 WASH. U. L. REV. at 1555 (appraisal “litigation [is] controlled, by the actual plaintiff—the appraisal arbitrageur—rather than the plaintiffs’ attorney. . . . In addition, the narrow focus of an appraisal claim and the possibility a court will determine fair value to be below the merger price render the risks and costs of litigation far more symmetric than in other forms of shareholder suit, further reducing the potential for nuisance claims.”).

¹⁵⁴ Note [] above.

¹⁵⁵ DEL. CODE ANN. tit. 8, § 262(h) (“Unless the Court in its discretion determines otherwise for good cause shown, interest from the effective date of the merger through the date of payment of the judgment shall be compounded quarterly and shall accrue at 5% over the Federal Reserve discount rate”). We concur with Korsmo and Myers, however, that the statutory presumptive interest rate is unlikely in itself to generate additional appraisal litigation. *Id.* at 1555, 1580-1581 (“Given the risks an appraisal petitioner must assume—an extended period of illiquidity with an unsecured claim against a surviving company that may be highly leveraged, plus the risk of the legal claim itself—the idea that interest rates are driving sophisticated parties to target appraisal is

afford to be undiscriminating in targeting deals tainted by conflict of interest or process failures. As a result, that system would elicit over-litigation of appraisal cases because, in our view, an unadjusted deal price frequently overstates fair value. Why? Because, as the Delaware courts have repeatedly held, the deal price may (and often does) include synergistic value to which the target's stockholders, as such, have no legal or economic claim of entitlement. In the section that follows, we therefore address how the determination of fair value should take account of synergistic merger gains in order to arrive at an appropriate balance of risk in appraisal litigation.¹⁵⁶

IV. THE IMPACT OF SYNERGIES ON FAIR VALUE

A. Case Law

Among the clearest propositions in Delaware appraisal case law is that if deal price is to be used to determine fair value, it must be adjusted to eliminate the portion of that price attributable to synergistic merger gains. That legal proposition has been stated as follows:

Cavalier Oil and its progeny seem to require the court to exclude “any value that the selling company’s shareholders would receive because a buyer intends to

implausible.”). Of course, compensatory pre-judgment interest eliminates an artificial disincentive to pursue litigation.

¹⁵⁶ Because we believe that appropriately deducting synergistic value from the deal price will achieve an appropriate balance of risk, we do not support the more aggressive step of establishing a privately ordered cost-shifting regime, which - if elected - would require appraisal arbitrageurs to pay the defendant corporation's legal fees and costs in the event that such defendant carries the burden of proof in demonstrating the fairness of the merger price. Jay B. Kesten, *The Uncertain Case for Appraisal Arbitrage*, 52 WAKE FOREST L. REV. 89, 134-136 (2017) (“the possibility of fee shifting should serve as a meaningful deterrent against unmeritorious and low-probability claims, and improve acquirers' settlement leverage if they honestly believe the merger price was fair.”).

operate the subject company, not as a stand-alone concern, but as part of a larger enterprise, from which synergistic gains can be extracted.”¹⁵⁷

That proposition has been invoked frequently in the case law,¹⁵⁸ and appears to be “inspired by a desire to honor the statute [Section 262]’s command that the court ‘determine the fair value of the shares exclusive of any element of value arising from the accomplishment or expectation of the merger.’”¹⁵⁹

There is remarkably little clarity or consistency in the case law, however, about how to apply this proposition. The courts’ treatment of precisely what synergistic value to exclude in specific cases has been erratic, no doubt because of inconsistencies in the

¹⁵⁷ *DFC Global Corp. v. Muirfield Value Partners, L.P.*, - A.3d – (Del. 2017), quoting *Union Illinois 1995 Inv. Ltd. P’ship v. Union Fin. Grp., Ltd.*, 847 A.2d 340, 356 (Del. Ch. 2004), citing *Cavalier Oil*, 564 A.2d 1137, 1144 (Del. 1989).

¹⁵⁸ *ACP Master, Ltd. et al. v. Sprint Corp., et al.*, 2017 Del. Ch. LEXIS 125, *79 (Del. Ch. July 21, 2017) (“the appraisal statute requires that the Court exclude any synergies present in the deal price, that is, value arising solely from the deal.”); *In re Appraisal of SWS Group Inc.*, 2017 Del. Ch. LEXIS 90, *29 (Del. Ch. May 30, 2017) (“When the merger price represents a transfer to the sellers of value arising solely from a merger, these additions to deal price are properly removed from the calculation of fair value.”); *Dunmire v. Farmers & Merchs. Bancorp of W. Pa.*, 2016 Del. Ch. LEXIS 167, *28 (Del. Ch. Nov. 10, 2016) (“the Court’s task in a Section 262 appraisal action is to determine the going concern value of the enterprise as of the merger date exclusive of any element of value—such as the value of achieving expected synergies—from the accomplishment of the merger.”); *Longpath Capital, LLC v. Ramtron Int’l Corp.*, 2015 Del. Ch. LEXIS 177, *83 (Del. Ch. June 30 2015) (“in an appraisal action, it is inappropriate to include merger-specific value”); *Highfields Capital, Ltd. v. AXA Fin., Inc.*, 939 A.2d 34, 72 (Del. Ch. 2007) (“The court must ... exclude synergistic elements from the sale price to arrive at a fair value.”); *Montgomery Cellular Holding Co. v. Dobler*, 880 A.2d 206, 220 (Del.Ch. 2005) (“In performing its valuation, the Court of Chancery is free to consider the price actually derived from the sale of the company being valued, but only after the synergistic elements of value are excluded from that price.”); *M.P.M. Enterprises, Inc. v. Gilbert*, 731 A.2d 790, 796 (Del. 1999) (valuation approach “was undoubtedly proscribed by § 262(h)” “because it focused on the elements of value that would arise from the merger, rather than on the going concern value of MPM without any consideration of such synergistic values.”).

¹⁵⁹ *DFC*, - A.3d at - , citing Section 262(h).

quality of proof, rather than any inability on the part of the courts to assess the evidence.

Key examples, however, include:

- *Union Illinois*: In this relatively early case, the court observed that the finance literature “does not contain a reliable method for estimating the portion of a merger premium that results from expected synergy value.”¹⁶⁰ Nevertheless, the court approved “a reasonable synergy discount of 13%,” because potential bidders were large banks that expected synergistic gains, and the target’s banker’s “DCF model, which it used in giving its fairness opinion, had mid-range synergy assumptions of 15%-20% for the synergy value that would be shared with [target] as a seller.”¹⁶¹
- *AXA*: The court approved a discount of \$4.12 per share, 13% less than the deal price of \$31 per share, based on accepting a corrected “sum of the parts” evaluation of the target of \$26.88 per share.¹⁶² The court declined to accept a synergies estimate based on a discounted cash flow analysis that the expert in question found unreliable as a basis for evaluation of the firm itself.¹⁶³
- *Ramtron*: The court accepted a synergy discount of \$0.03 per share (less than 1%) from the merger price of \$3.10 per share.¹⁶⁴ The court’s calculation of that estimate was more opaque than the derivation of the approximately 11% estimate

¹⁶⁰ *Id.* n. 35, citing John C. Coates IV, “Fair Value” as an Avoidable Rule of Corporate Law: Minority Discounts in Conflict Transactions, 147 U. PA. L. REV. 1251, 1351-52 (1999).

¹⁶¹ *Union Illinois*, at n. 26.

¹⁶² *Highfields*, 939 A.2d at 61. The court placed a 75% weight on the result (deal price minus estimated synergies).

¹⁶³ *Id.* The court had found that “industry experts and executives do not consider a DCF a particularly important framework for valuing a company whose primary business is selling life insurance.” *Id.* at 54.

¹⁶⁴ *Ramtron*, 2015 Del. Ch. LEXIS 177 at *85-86.

that the court rejected, an estimate which was based on two distinct approaches: (i) estimating the ratio of premiums paid by strategic and financial buyers generally, on the theory that the difference between the two is attributable to synergies, and (ii) inferring total synergies of \$0.69 per share from a comparison of target stand-alone projections with the buyer's projections, and assuming that 50% of those synergies would be shared with the target's stockholders.¹⁶⁵ The court rejected the first approach because it "does not tell me anything about *this specific* transaction, which must be the focus in a Section 262 action."¹⁶⁶ It rejected the second approach because it "focuses solely on cost savings, which are positive synergies, and neglects the possibility of negative synergies."¹⁶⁷ The petitioner's expert's 1% estimate of synergy ostensibly took into account testimony about negative synergies, so the court found that it "better conforms to the evidence adduced at trial than Ramtron's position."¹⁶⁸

B. Defining Synergies in a Fair Value Determination

Given the clear position that synergy value shared with the target's stockholders by inclusion in the purchase price must be deducted from the price where the deal price is used to determine fair value, Delaware law could benefit from a similarly clear articulation of what constitutes synergy for purposes of this calculation, and how that calculation should be made.¹⁶⁹ We begin with the first of these two topics.

¹⁶⁵ *Id.*

¹⁶⁶ *Id.* at *85 (emphasis in original).

¹⁶⁷ *Id.* at *86.

¹⁶⁸ *Id.*

¹⁶⁹ We thus focus on the definition of synergies from a legal perspective. From a financial perspective, synergies come in a variety of categories. *See, e.g.,* Anna Loukianova, *et al.*,

The task of defining synergy is superficially simple: as expressed in a recent Delaware appraisal case, it is “value arising solely from the deal.”¹⁷⁰ As previously noted, this definition proceeds from and tracks the appraisal statute’s exclusion of “any element of value arising from the accomplishment or expectation of the merger.”¹⁷¹ Despite this superficial simplicity, however, determining whether an element of value arises “from” the merger can be deceptively complex.

To illustrate this, consider the famous case of *Smith v. Van Gorkom*.¹⁷² In that case, the operative reality of the target company (TransUnion) included the fact that despite strong cash flows, accelerated depreciation prevented it from generating sufficient taxable income to use its investment tax credits.¹⁷³ The value of those tax credits might have been exploited in two ways: the first way (the one that actually occurred) was a sale of the company to an acquirer able to apply the tax credits to its income from other

Valuing Synergies in Strategic Mergers and Acquisitions Using the Real Options Approach, 14 INV. MGMT. & FIN. INNOV. 236, 236 (2017) (“Operating synergies involve the improvement of companies’ operating activities. They can be achieved, because, since the combined firm is bigger than any of the companies before the M&A deal, it can exert economies of scale, exercise greater pricing power and provide new opportunities for growth in new or existing markets. Financial synergies come from the fact that the merged firm can bring better debt capacity, as well as the tax benefits resulting from operating losses from the target firm, asset revaluations, etc.”); Taher Hamza, *et al.*, *How Do Takeovers Create Synergies? Evidence from France*, 11 *Studies in Business & Economics* 54, 55 (2016), available at <http://eccsf.ulbsibiu.ro/RePEc/blg/journal/11105hamza&sghaier&thiraya.pdf> (“Higher operating synergies are synonymous with revenue increase, cost savings, investment cutbacks and greater market power. Indeed, enhanced efficiency with regard to productive assets improves the operating cash flows, leading to heightening of the firm's value. As for financial synergies, they encompass tax savings and decreased bankruptcy risk through diversification of the merged entity, which generates lower weighted average cost of capital.”).

¹⁷⁰ *ACP Master, Ltd. et al. v. Sprint Corp., et al.*, 2017 Del. Ch. LEXIS 125, *79 (Del. Ch. July 21, 2017).

¹⁷¹ *DFC*, - A.3d at - , citing Section 262(h).

¹⁷² 488 A.2d 858 (Del. 1985).

¹⁷³ *Id.* at 864-865.

sources; the second way, which TransUnion considered, was to acquire additional income-generating businesses.¹⁷⁴ Let us assume (although the record is not completely clear on the point) that the \$55 per share merger price included some amount attributable to the value the acquirer expected to realize through use of TransUnion's investment tax credits. Should that amount be deducted from the deal price in measuring fair value, because it was value arising from the accomplishment or expectation of the merger?

In a literal sense the answer is clear: of course it should be deducted, because it was the merger that enabled the acquirer to extract (and pay target stockholders for) the value of the tax credits. Suppose, however, that TransUnion was also in a position to extract that value on its own, through a program of asset acquisitions.¹⁷⁵ In that circumstance, would it still be appropriate to make the deduction?

In previous writings we have claimed that the answer is no: the potential to extract value from the tax credits should be viewed as having been an opportunity belonging to Trans Union, and even if that value was ultimately achieved through the mechanism of the merger, that value should be treated as belonging to TransUnion and thus a component of its fair value for appraisal purposes.¹⁷⁶ In that case, in our view, it would be improper to reduce the fair value determination by the putative synergy component of the

¹⁷⁴ *Id.* at 865.

¹⁷⁵ This assumption may be counterfactual: according to the recollection of counsel for the acquirer, TransUnion “had a lot of tax law carry forwards. They didn't have enough operating income to take full advantage of them, and that in a sort of perverse way was causing a burden on their stock. So they couldn't buy companies fast enough and manage them to take care of that problem.”). Transcript of interview with A. Gilchrist Sparks III, Jan. 24, 2017, at 21, available at <https://www.law.upenn.edu/live/files/6758-sparks-vangorkom-interview-transcript>.

¹⁷⁶ Hamermesh & Wachter, *Cornfields*, note [] above, 31 J. CORP. L. at 164-165 (proposing use of the corporate opportunity doctrine to define when potential future cash flows belong to the corporation, and should therefore be considered to contribute to the fair value of the corporation's shares).

deal price, because to do so would deprive target stockholders of an element of value of the going concern (namely the target's own opportunity to extract value from the tax credits).

A hypothetical further illustrates this point. Consider the case of a target firm owning a set of patents that would be valuable to a company with capital and marketing clout sufficient to exploit the patents. Assume further, however, that the target firm lacks both of these attributes, and that a merger with a well-heeled acquirer enables the combined firm to generate substantial value from the patents. Again, should a portion of that value, if shared with target stockholders, be deducted from the deal price to arrive at a fair value for their stock? And again, our answer is no, or at least not necessarily, even though it could be said that the value arose from the accomplishment or expectation of the merger. Why? Because we have not excluded the possibility that the target could, on its own, have realized such value (or at least a substantial part of it) through an agreement to license the patents. In that circumstance, the potential additions to cash flow, while in fact brought about by the merger, could just as well be considered to have belonged to the target firm.¹⁷⁷

Our point is that in evaluating a deduction for synergies, courts and litigants should be careful to distinguish between gains that arise *solely* from the merger – solely,

¹⁷⁷ An even clearer case for treating gains ostensibly connected to a merger as belonging to the acquired firm is where the merger is accomplished by a controlling stockholder which, before the merger occurs, had begun to implement the improvements that follow the merger. See Coates, note [] above, 147 U. PA. L. REV. at 1350-1351, describing *Weinberger v. UOP* and *Cede & Co. v. Technicolor, Inc.* (“the synergies included in fair value determinations in those two cases were limited to synergies that both were ‘known’ as of the date of the merger and were related to steps that had previously been taken by the controlling shareholder, so that the synergies were plausibly ‘part of’ the company being valued.”).

in the sense that the gains would not have come about but for the occurrence of the merger – and gains that would likely have been achieved by the company on a standalone basis. This distinction still leaves plenty of room to identify synergies that really do arise solely from the merger. Although cost reductions (staff reductions, for a typical example) may in some circumstances be achievable by the going concern on a standalone basis, they would surely arise solely from the merger if they could not realistically be achieved by the target on that basis, and depend for their existence on scale that would not exist but for the merger.

Defining the appropriate scope of deductible synergies implicates one further and probably controversial question relating to the value of control. The key example is the leveraged buyout led by a private equity firm. In that situation, as we have written previously, “the aggregation of the shares is value-creating because a controller can then exercise the control rights involving directing the strategy and managing the firm.”¹⁷⁸ Should that incremental value be treated as part of the operative reality of the going concern, or as a value arising only from the accomplishment of the merger (and therefore not part of fair value in appraisal litigation)? Decisions from the Court of Chancery would suggest that such incremental value should be viewed as part of the value of the going concern.¹⁷⁹ We have taken the contrary position, however, because “the value is created by the aggregation process and does not exist independent of it, [so] the logical and normatively compelling conclusion is that the value creation should accrue to the

¹⁷⁸ *Rationalizing Appraisal Standards*, 50 B.C.L. REV. at 1052.

¹⁷⁹ *Id.*, citing *Andaloro v. PFPC Worldwide, Inc.*, 2005 Del. Ch. LEXIS 125, *70 (Del. Ch. Aug. 19, 2005); *Borruso v. Communc 'ns Telsys. Int 'l*, 753 A.2d 451, 458-59 n. 10 (Del. Ch. 1999); *LeBeau v. M.G. Bancorp, Inc.*, 1998 Del. Ch. LEXIS 9, *39 (Del. Ch. Jan. 29, 1998).

party that has created it.”¹⁸⁰ Applying that reasoning to our example, the private equity purchaser, by consolidating ownership and control through the purchase of disaggregated shares, creates additional value that could not be generated by the firm as constituted (with agency costs arising due to disaggregation of control), and that additional value must be excluded from the determination of fair value.¹⁸¹

C. Estimating the Size and Allocation of Synergies

Having arrived at an appropriate, if necessarily imprecise, definition of synergy for purposes of the legal context of determining fair value in an appraisal proceeding, the remaining – and not insubstantial – task is to articulate an appropriate approach for courts and litigants to take in estimating the total amount of synergies expected to arise from a merger, and identifying the portion of that amount incorporated in the deal price and thereby shared by the buyer with the target’s stockholders. At the outset of this discussion, we acknowledge that there is remarkably little scholarship, in law, finance or economics, on this precise subject.¹⁸² Accordingly, what we have pieced together below from that limited scholarship and from informal presentations by several investment

¹⁸⁰ *Id.*

¹⁸¹ We develop this point more fully in *Rationalizing Appraisal Standards*, at 1047-1054. Again, we recognize that the view of Delaware courts has apparently been at odds with our own. *See, e.g., In re Ancestry.com, Inc.*, 2015 Del. Ch. LEXIS 21 at *50 (suggesting that in an acquisition by a non-strategic purchaser, synergies are unlikely: “as is typical in a non-strategic acquisition, I find no synergies that are likely to have pushed the purchase price above fair value.”).

¹⁸² *See, e.g., Raffaele Fiorentino & Stefano Garzella, The Synergy Valuation Models: Towards the Real Value of Mergers and Acquisitions*, 124 INT’L RES. J. OF FIN. & ECON. 71, 72 (2014), available at https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=2195551 (“theoretical and empirical research still lacks a common understanding of the effectiveness of synergy valuation models in M&A.”).

bankers¹⁸³ is a suggestion of how appraisal litigants and the courts might approach the issue of synergies.

The matters of estimating overall synergies and evaluating how they are allocated as between the buyer and target stockholders are two quite distinct determinations, and we therefore address them separately.

1. *Estimating Total Synergies*

It has been suggested that total synergies arising from an acquisition can be estimated using the following three-step calculation:

1. “[V]alue the firms involved in the merger independently, by discounting expected cash flows to each firm at the weighted average cost of capital for that firm.
2. “[E]stimate the value of the combined firm, with no synergy, by adding the values obtained for each firm in the first step.
3. “[B]uild in the effects of synergy into expected growth rates and cash flows and ... revalue the combined firm with synergy. The difference between the value of the combined firm with synergy and the value of the combined firm without synergy provides a value for synergy.”¹⁸⁴

We believe that this approach makes perfect sense from a theoretical standpoint. We suggest, however, that applied to real world litigation to determine fair value, it is both unrealistic and unnecessary. It is unrealistic because it would require valuing the expected free cash flows of not one but three distinct firms, thereby defeating the

¹⁸³ In particular, we acknowledge with gratitude insights from James DeFavero (Goldman Sachs), Erik Gilje (Wharton School), and Jonathan Mir (Lazard), although they are not to be blamed for any errors or inaccuracies in our interpretation of their very helpful suggestions.

¹⁸⁴ Aswath Damodaran, *The Value of Synergy*, at 6-7 (Oct. 2005), available at https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=841486 (emphasis in original).

principal benefit of being able to rely on a fixed deal price instead of wildly disparate competing discounted cash flow valuations. This would compound the problems inherent in calculating future values that we have discussed above. In the normal appraisal, there is the calculation of the value of the target firm. Experts can have optimistic or pessimistic stories to tell about the target's firm future value. In the three-step approach, there are three stories, with different valuation estimates hanging on whether the expert is optimistic or pessimistic about the future of the target firm, the acquiring firm, and the combined firm with synergies.

In the context of statutory appraisal litigation the three-step approach is not only unrealistic, it is unnecessary as well, because once the first component of the exercise is completed, and a DCF value for the target firm as an independent entity has been established, there is no occasion (if the analysis is reliable) to continue with the remainder of the exercise. Since the target firm is being valued without regard to the effects of the merger, the synergies arising from the merger do not need to be estimated and deducted from the value of the firm to arrive at fair value.

A second approach to estimating synergistic merger gains involves an assessment of the response of acquirer and target stock (or stock option) prices to announcement of the merger terms.¹⁸⁵ We pass over the details of that approach, however, because it is likely to be available in real world appraisal litigation only rarely. The approach requires that the stock of both acquirer and target be publicly traded. Market-based information

¹⁸⁵ Kathryn Barraclough, *et al.*, *Using Option Prices to Infer Overpayments and Synergies in M&A Transactions*, 26 REV. FIN. STUD. 695 (2013); Michael Bradley, Anand Desai & E. Han Kim, *Synergistic Gains from Corporate Acquisitions and their Division Between the Stockholders of Target and Acquiring Firms*, 21 J. OF FIN. ECON. 3 (1988).

should be used whenever it is available, but in the typical appraisal case, in which the stock of either the target or the buyer, or both, is not publicly traded, there is insufficient market-based information to use this technique to estimate synergies. Among the forty or so appraisal cases in the last fifteen years that generated a valuation opinion, only nine involved both a publicly traded target and a publicly traded buyer. And in the six of those nine cases that did not involve a freezeout by a controlling stockholder¹⁸⁶ or a significant conflict of interest on the part of two major stockholders,¹⁸⁷ the stockholders seeking appraisal fared remarkably badly: the median increment of the fair value determination over the deal price was negative 4-8%; the average increment was negative 19.5%; the best outcome was a positive increment of 3%; and the worst outcome was a negative increment of 85%.¹⁸⁸ With such results, it seems most unlikely that appraisal arbitrage or other active use of the appraisal remedy will occur in cases of public company acquisitions of other public companies, except in cases of freezeouts by a controlling stockholder or other transactions that involve conflicted major stockholders. Given that likely infrequency, it is doubtful at best that the courts will have much occasion to adopt an approach dependent on trading prices of publicly held target and bidder stock.

A third approach, and the one we advocate, calls for a direct assessment of the value of synergies and is not dependent on public trading of either the target's or the

¹⁸⁶ See Appendix (Prescott Group v. Coleman Co. and AT&T Mobility).

¹⁸⁷ See Appendix (Global GT v. Global Telecom). That case involved a clear conflict of interest on the part of the two largest stockholders of the target company (owning over 44% of the stock), which also held large blocks (greater in percentage terms and absolute value) of the bidder's stock.

Global GT LP v. Golden Telecom, Inc., 993 A.2d 497, 503 (Del. Ch. 2010), *aff'd*, *Golden Telecom, Inc. v. Global GT, LP*, 11 A.3d 214 (Del. 2010).

¹⁸⁸ See Appendix: Merion v. 3M Cogent (+3%); Longpath v. Ramtron (-1%); Andaloro v. PFPC (-4%); SWS (-8%); and Clearwire (-85%).

bidder's stock. Specifically, we suggest an approach in which each element of synergy is framed in terms of periodic incremental improvements to future free cash flow, and the resulting stream of anticipated incremental cash flows is reduced to present value.¹⁸⁹ An illustration of our approach may be helpful. Assume that Target (T) and Buyer (B) have accounting staffs of 25 and 75 persons, respectively, but that after their merger the combined firm will employ an accounting staff of only 90 persons. Assume further that the aggregate annual compensation of the 10 accounting staff members who will no longer be employed is \$1 million. Assume further, finally, that T and B had anticipated that, but for the merger, those 10 persons would have been employed going forward indefinitely. With these assumptions, and putting aside tax considerations, one can define the synergy achieved by the merger as a stream of future free cash flows of \$1 million per year in perpetuity. Applying an appropriate discount rate applicable to the combined firm¹⁹⁰ (say 10% for illustrative purposes) yields a present value of \$10 million. In an actual case, the analysis would surely be more complex. The full benefit of synergies may

¹⁸⁹ See Jens Kengelbach, Dennis Utzerath, & Cristoph Kaserer, *How Successful M&A Deals Split the Synergies*, BOSTON CONSULTING GROUP (Mar. 27, 2013), available at https://www.bcgperspectives.com/content/articles/mergers_acquisitions_postmerger_integration_divide_conquer_deals_split_synergies/?chapter=2 (“Because synergies tend to mount over time and become fully effective after roughly two years (assuming skillful management by the acquirer), the value of synergies can be stated as the present value of ongoing synergies after two years.”); Kristen Ficery, *et al.*, *The Synergy Enigma*, available at <https://www.criticaleye.com/insights-servfile.cfm?id=47> (“Synergies are the present value of the net, additional cash flow that is generated by a combination of two companies that could not have been generated by either company on its own.”); Fiorentino & Garzella, note [] above, 124 INT’L RES. J. OF FIN. & ECON. at 73 (describing the “net present value model” in which “the synergy value is the present value of the expected synergy flows from the deal process, discounted back at a rate that reflects the riskiness of these flows.”). According to survey results gathered by Fiorentino & Garzella, this model is, by a wide margin, the most frequently used. *Id.* at 77.

¹⁹⁰ Note that because it is the combined firm that generates the future cash flows under consideration, it is that firm's cost of capital, and not the cost of capital of the target firm, that should be applied in estimating the present values of synergistic gains.

not be achieved immediately: in our example, it may take one or two years to achieve the contemplated staff reduction. Similarly, the expected synergy may be offset by related costs (sometimes described as negative synergies): in our example, again, there may be severance payments required to achieve the contemplated staff reductions, and those payments would have to be deducted from the anticipated cash flow enhancements.

This approach can also be applied to synergies involving revenue enhancements rather than cost reductions.¹⁹¹ The analysis would simply examine what revenue enhancements are expected, year by year, and would discount the resulting future cash flows to a present value to arrive at the synergy contribution of the revenue enhancement under examination. We suspect, however, that synergistic revenue enhancements will ordinarily be harder to predict than cost synergies and, therefore, less likely than cost synergies to contribute to a discount from deal price to arrive at fair value.¹⁹²

The synergy-specific discounted cash flow approach that we suggest also makes perfect theoretical sense. There are two reasons, however, why one could nevertheless question whether this alternative approach represents any practical improvement over a full discounted cash flow valuation of the subject/target firm. First, it is unclear whether

¹⁹¹ Ficery, *et al.*, *The Synergy Enigma*, note [] above (one should “define and identify revenue synergies as the positive present value of the net cash flows that result from revenue increases.”).

¹⁹² Kengelbach, *et al.* (“Revenue synergies, on the other hand, are more difficult both to realize and to quantify, depending as they do on the behavior of third parties such as customers. Although concepts such as cross-selling, up-selling, and concentrating on the highest-margin products and segments are conceptually easy to grasp, realizing them calls for exceptional management and execution. As a result, analysts and investors tend to view revenue synergies with great skepticism, preferring to believe in them only after they have come to fruition. Acquirers, by the same token, tend to downplay talk of revenue synergies during deal negotiations to avoid the risk that the seller will demand a share of synergies that ultimately may not materialize.”); Ficery, *et al.*, *The Synergy Enigma*, note [] above (“Revenue synergies are especially controversial, because they are often difficult to calculate and capture, and are also often overvalued.”).

or to what extent acquirers actually engage in the exercise of preparing estimates of synergistic gains in a fashion that might be useful to a synergy-specific discounted cash flow analysis. Many acquirers take the occasion, upon announcement of a deal, to publicize estimates of gross synergies, but those announcements are largely devoid of any period by period breakdowns of anticipated savings and related costs.¹⁹³

We nevertheless suspect that acquirers could, in litigation, present such breakdowns – after all, the public disclosures of gross synergistic gains are presumably premised on more granular estimates of such gains. With renewed attention on the part of the Delaware courts to the issue of a deduction for synergies, the parties are now incentivized to prepare this information and present it in litigation. Indeed, we predict that such attention and incentives may generate an outpouring of evidence bearing on synergy estimates. The treatment of synergies in finance literature, largely neglected today, may become a prime target of finance-based research. We note that appraisal litigants only started using sophisticated DCF-based analyses after *Weinberger* required that the best techniques of finance be used to support appraisal awards.¹⁹⁴ Similarly, the use of fairness opinions from investment bankers became a typical part of deal

¹⁹³ See, e.g., “AT&T to Acquire Time Warner,” AT&T Press Release (Oct. 22, 2016), available at http://about.att.com/story/att_to_acquire_time_warner.html (“AT&T expects \$1 billion in annual run rate cost synergies within 3 years of the deal closing. The expected cost synergies are primarily driven by corporate and procurement expenditures. In addition, over time, AT&T expects to achieve incremental revenue opportunities that neither company could obtain on a standalone basis.”); Qualcomm press release, “Qualcomm to Acquire NXP,” (Oct. 27, 2016), available at <https://www.qualcomm.com/news/releases/2016/10/27/qualcomm-acquire-nxp> (“Qualcomm expects to generate \$500 million of annualized run-rate cost synergies within two years after the transaction closes.”).

¹⁹⁴ 457 A.2d at 713.

documents only after *Smith v. Van Gorkom* implied that such documents might be useful for directors in fulfilling their fiduciary duties.¹⁹⁵

A second reason for questioning the synergy-specific DCF analysis we advocate, however, is that it uses many of the same highly contestable inputs (*e.g.*, beta, equity risk premium) that are employed in a target firm-only discounted cash flow valuation. Our response is simply that in evaluating anticipated synergistic gains, as opposed to whole-firm cash flows, one is likely to be applying the contestable inputs to a much smaller amount of future cash flows than the cash flows associated with the target firm as a whole. As a result, the same variability of inputs should have a smaller cumulative effect on valuation contentions, where only the value of synergies is contested. The small effect is only a partial consolation, especially since the optimism or pessimism of the competing expert stories may make the percentage effect even larger, particularly if and when the serious subtraction of synergies enters case law.

2. *Estimating the Allocation of Synergies to the Target*

Even if the total present value of synergies expected to arise from the merger could be estimated with great confidence, it could not necessarily be deducted in full from the deal price to arrive at the fair value of the target firm; to do so inflexibly would in effect assume that none of that synergy value is retained by the acquiring firm. Thus, for example, if the acquiring firm anticipated \$10 million in anticipated synergies and shared \$4 million of that value with target stockholders by including that amount in the deal price, that \$4 million should be deducted from the deal price in arriving at fair value.

¹⁹⁵ Lawrence A. Hamermesh & Jacob J. Fedechko, *The Role of Judicial Opinions in Shaping M&A Practice*, in RESEARCH HANDBOOK ON MERGERS AND ACQUISITIONS (Edward Elgar 2016), at [].

The question in any given appraisal proceeding, then, is to determine the extent to which estimated synergies were allocated in the deal to target stockholders and how much of that value was retained by the acquirer.

To say that the answer to this question is less than scientifically precise would be a considerable understatement. To the best of our knowledge, the percentage allocation in any given deal is not expressly articulated in the merger agreement or even in merger negotiations. The relatively sparse literature on this question, moreover, is inconsistent. Some advance the view that synergistic merger gains almost exclusively benefit target shareholders, and acquiring firms retain none of those gains.¹⁹⁶ According to another study, which relied on post-deal announcement call option price movements rather than stock price movements, acquirers and target shareholders share such gains about equally.¹⁹⁷ A more recent and detailed study reports that the median percentage of synergy value received by target shareholders is 31%, although the allocation varies by industry, with target shareholders in the telecommunications industry receiving 6% of synergy value and target shareholders in the health care industry receiving 51% of synergy value.¹⁹⁸

¹⁹⁶ S.B. Moeller, F.P. Schlingemann & R.M. Stultz, *Wealth Destruction on a Massive Scale? A Study of Acquiring Firm Returns in the Recent Merger Wave*, 60 J. FIN. 757 (2004) (estimating that acquiring firm stockholders lose 12 cents per acquisition dollar spent, indicating that on average any merger synergy value (and more) is allocated to target stockholders); Michael Bradley, Anand Desai & E. Han Kim, *Synergistic Gains from Corporate Acquisitions and their Division Between the Stockholders of Target and Acquiring Firms*, 21 J. OF FIN. ECON. 3, 31 (1988) (“target stockholders have captured the lion’s share of the [synergistic] gains from tender offers, and their share of these gains has increased since the passage of the Williams Amendment of 1968.”).

¹⁹⁷ Kathryn Barraclough, *et al.*, *Using Option Prices to Infer Overpayments and Synergies in M&A Transactions*, 26 The Review of Financial Studies [] (2013).

¹⁹⁸ Jens Kengelbach, Dennis Utzerath, & Cristoph Kaserer, *How Successful M&A Deals Split the Synergies*, BOSTON CONSULTING GROUP (Mar. 27, 2013), *available at*

Other commentators indicate that the allocation of synergy gains in mergers may be determined by factors in addition to industry type. For example, it has been suggested, plausibly, that such gains are likely to be more fully shared with target stockholders as the number of bidders and intensity of bidding competition increase.¹⁹⁹ It has also been suggested that the target's shareholders will receive a greater share of synergistic merger gains if the target firm's contribution to those synergies is greater.²⁰⁰ In our analysis, however, a finding that a target firm is entirely or largely responsible for the creation of a synergistic gain may well also lead to the conclusion that the gain was an opportunity belonging to the target and, thus, part of its going concern value.²⁰¹ That conclusion in turn would dictate that in using deal price to determine fair value, no deduction should be made on account of that gain.

3. *Judicial Evaluation of Synergy Claims*

As reviewed above, judicial evaluation of synergy claims is in its infancy, and pertinent authorities and financial expertise have yet to develop fully. One can imagine a more mature system for such evaluation, however, applying principles already developed in appraisal litigation:

https://www.bcgperspectives.com/content/articles/mergers_acquisitions_postmerger_integration_divide_conquer_deals_split_synergies/#chapter1. This study is as detailed in its conclusions as it is lacking in transparency: the report does not reveal its methodology, and the data base is described only as “636 deals with transaction values of over \$300 from 2000 to 2011,” without specification of industry or jurisdiction.

¹⁹⁹ Bradley, *et al.*, at 31; Kengelbach, *et al.* (“The amount of the seller's share does not correlate with M&A cycles—that is, it doesn't rise during M&A-intensive periods and decline during lulls in the cycle. It varies instead according to factors such as the relative negotiating strengths of the buyer and seller and the amount of competition to acquire the target.”).

²⁰¹ See part III.B above, addressing how to identify synergies that are appropriately considered in arriving at a deduction from deal price to determine fair value.

- Just as expert testimony on discounted cash flow analysis has been widely presented and accepted as a tool for valuation of firms in appraisal litigation, one can expect that synergy valuation will be an appropriate subject for expert testimony, at least where the proffered valuation techniques are reasonably familiar to the financial community.²⁰²
- Just as cash flow projections are more readily accepted where they are prepared by management in the ordinary course of business, and not strictly for purposes of litigation,²⁰³ synergy projections are likely to be more persuasive where they are generated as part of a merger integration planning process, where there is at least some incentive for presenting estimates that are sustainable, rather than purely for litigation purposes. Unmoored from the operational integration planning process, synergy estimates may be subject to upward bias on account of an interest on the part of the acquirer in persuading the market (including its own investors) that the acquisition is beneficial.²⁰⁴

²⁰² *Weinberger v. UOP, Inc.*, 457 A.2d 701, 713 (Del. 1983) (endorsing the use of “generally accepted [valuation] techniques used in the financial community and the courts”). Referring to the context of appraisal in connection with controller freeze-outs, Coates expressed a similar hope that financial and litigation practice would develop techniques for assessing synergies. Coates, note [] above, 147 U. PA. L. REV. at 1352 (“Practitioners would develop and refine techniques for arriving at appropriate adjustments, and a body of case law would develop to assist practitioners in this process.”).

²⁰³ See, e.g., *ACP Master, Ltd. v. Clearwire Corp.*, 2017 WL 3105858, at *31 (Del. Ch. July 21, 2017) (“The first key to a reliable DCF analysis is the availability of reliable projections of future expected cash flows, preferably derived from contemporaneous management projections prepared in the ordinary course of business.”) (quoting *In re PetSmart, Inc.*, 2017 WL 2303599, at *32 (Del. Ch. May 26, 2017)).

²⁰⁴ See Peter Welsh, et al., *Management Projections in Delaware Appraisal Litigation: Anecdotal Evidence*, note [] above, at 17 (“Existing literature suggests that management’s financial forecasts often exhibit upward biases.”, citing David S. Koo & P. Eric Yeung, *Managers’ Forecasts of Long-Term Growth in Earnings: New Information or Cheap*

- Because it would be the acquirer (as or through the surviving corporation) that would be urging a deduction from deal price to account for synergies, and because it is the acquirer that should be expected to have, or have access to, evidence of the extent and allocation of such synergies, any significant weakness in the evidence should, to the extent of such weakness, result in a refusal by the court to give effect to the requested discount from deal price.²⁰⁵ Put another way, where acquirers are aware of the potential for appraisal litigation in which the target's share of synergies is to be deducted from the deal price in measuring fair value, a failure on their part to generate reasonably supported specific synergy estimates in the course of merger planning should counsel against accepting claims for a

Talk? at 3 (Working Paper) available at <http://www.stern.nyu.edu/sites/default/files/assets/documents/Eric%20Yeung.pdf>, and Christopher S. Armstrong, et. al., *Biases in multi-year management financial forecasts: Evidence from private venture-backed U.S. companies*, 12 REV. OF ACCOUNTING STUDIES 183 (2007)).

²⁰⁵ *E.g.*, *Smith v. Van Gorkom*, 488 A.2d 858, 878 (Del. 1985) (“the production of weak evidence when strong is, or should have been, available can lead only to the conclusion that the strong would have been adverse.”); *Interstate Circuit, Inc. v. United States*, 306 U.S. 208, 226 (1939) (“The production of weak evidence when strong is available can lead only to the conclusion that the strong would have been adverse.”). Where a controller stockholder is relying on evidence from comparable transactions and contending for a deduction from deal prices based on synergies, burdens of proof associated with the entire fairness doctrine provide a further basis for rejecting such deductions where the evidence for such deductions is weak or non-existent. *See Montgomery Cellular Holding Co. v. Dobler*, 880 A.2d 206, 221-222 (Del. Ch. 2005) (“Given the paucity of synergy-related evidence for which [the controlling stockholder] was responsible, the Vice Chancellor coped admirably with the evidence that was presented, and reached a reasonable valuation using the analytical tools and evidence that were available to him.”). *See also* Coates, note [] above, 147 U. PA. L. REV. at 1352 (asserting that “traditional Delaware law in entire fairness litigation that places the burden of proving entire fairness on the transaction sponsors . . . would permit control persons, at a minimum, to exclude the impact of synergy value if they could propose a reliable estimate of such synergies.”).

deduction from deal price based on estimates of synergies generated solely for purposes of litigation.

- Finally, the courts would likely be assisted in their evaluation of synergies by continued use of discounted cash flow valuation of the standalone target firm. In theory, that valuation should yield a result equal to the difference between the deal price and the value of synergies shared with target stockholders.

Accordingly, where the latter formula is used to determine fair value (where the deal process is adequate), DCF analysis may be a check on the plausibility of contentions about the extent of synergies being deducted from the deal price, and the efficacy of the deal process.²⁰⁶

IV. CONCLUSION

In the wake of judicial decisions emphasizing reliance on the deal price to determine fair value, it remains to be seen whether appraisal arbitration will continue to be as rewarding and as common a practice as it has been in recent years. But we see no reason why the legal validity of the practice will or should be eliminated, and we believe that it should remain as a mechanism to make the appraisal remedy viable where the remedy can serve as a check on self-serving opportunism or even a disinterested failure to conduct a reasonable sale process.

²⁰⁶ In several instances the courts have found a DCF analysis helpful in corroborating their reliance on the deal price in determining fair value. *E.g.*, *Lender Processing*, 2016 Del. Ch. LEXIS 189, at *89 (“The proximity between th[e] outcome [of the court’s DCF analysis] and the result of the sale process is comforting.”); *Ancestry.com*, 2015 Del. Ch. LEXIS 21, at *23. (the fact that DCF analysis yielded a value reasonably close to the deal price gave the court “comfort that no undetected factor skewed the sales process.”).

On the other hand, we concur with the legal premise, articulated by the Delaware Supreme Court in *DFC*, that fair value in appraisal proceedings should not be found to exceed the result of a sale process that is disinterested and reasonable. We further submit that the Delaware courts have developed and applied a standard that can appropriately be used to determine when a sale process has been reasonable: namely, the standard of enhanced scrutiny, for reasonableness, as formulated and used in the courts' *Revlon* jurisprudence. Application of that standard would avoid concerns that a presumption in favor of using the deal price to establish fair value (a "market price rule") would eliminate bidders' incentives to pay appropriately high prices: a bidder seeking to take advantage of a conflicted or inadequate sale process would not be able to presume that its exposure in appraisal litigation would be limited to the deal price (plus prejudgment interest); to the contrary, the bidder (the real party in interest in appraisal litigation) would be required to bear the initial burden of establishing that the sale process was unconflicted and fell within at least a range of reasonableness. That approach, coupled with a viable prospect of appraisal arbitrage, would give bidders for public companies an incentive to avoid demands for unreasonably accelerated bidding deadlines or unusually stringent deal protections, at least without being satisfied that the target company has engaged in a robust pre-signing market check.

If the Delaware courts continue to rely on the deal price to measure fair value in appropriate cases, they will increasingly be required to implement the settled legal mandate that merger gains that are solely attributable to the merger and that are included in the deal price must be deducted from that price in order to arrive at fair value. The case law and the finance literature addressing how such a deduction should be determined are

sparse. Our intuition is that the craft of responsibly estimating such a deduction – by estimating overall merger gains and estimating how much of them are shared with target stockholders through the deal price – will become more refined, just as the courts’ treatment of discounted cash flow analysis became more refined with experience after its initial acceptance in *Weinberger v. UOP*. We expect in this regard that bidders will develop more detailed evidence of anticipated synergies, and that if they do so in the context of evaluating their bids and preparing to implement post-merger business plans, the courts will be more inclined to accept such evidence than would be the case with synergy estimates prepared solely for litigation purposes.

Even with these refinements of the appraisal remedy, the courts’ well-developed familiarity with the ins and outs of discounted cash flow analysis will not become obsolete. Most obviously, that valuation technique will continue to be the primary guide to determining fair value in cases in which the deal price cannot be relied upon. And even in cases where the deal price can be advocated as the appropriate valuation determinant, courts are likely to continue to be guided by discounted cash flow valuations, if only to help evaluate the plausibility of contentions that the deal process was reasonable and that proposed synergy deductions are appropriate.