

THE OWNER'S GUIDE TO BUSINESS VALUE

Know Where You Stand · Grow What You've Built · Position for
a Premium Sale — A Best-Practice Guide for Vistage Members



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Capacity Building Solutions

How to Use This Guide

Most owners I work with can tell me last month's revenue to the dollar. Far fewer can tell me what their business is actually worth, and fewer still can explain why it's worth that. That gap is worth paying attention to, because for most of the leaders I sit with, the business is the single largest asset they own, and often the one they've thought about least in the terms a buyer or investor would use.

The instinct, when the question of value comes up, is to reach for a number someone mentioned – a multiple heard at a conference, a rule of thumb from a broker, a hopeful figure attached to last year's revenue. That's understandable, but it usually starts the conversation in the wrong place. A more useful starting point is to understand how the market actually decides what a company is worth, and then to ask what you can do about it.

This guide is organized around three questions I hear from members again and again:

- 01 Where does my business stand today? How valuation works, the methods professionals use, and how to read your own number without fooling yourself.
- 02 What do I need to grow that value? The specific, controllable drivers that make a company worth more, and often meaningfully more, over a two-to-three-year horizon.
- 03 How do I position the company for the best possible sale? What buyers actually reward, how deals are really structured, and where owners tend to leave money on the table.

You don't need a finance background to use it. Every technical term and every formula is explained in plain language the first time it appears, and Appendix D gathers them in one glossary. The appendices also give you a scored self-assessment (Appendix A), a sequential action checklist (Appendix B), a value-tracking dashboard (Appendix C), and a full bibliography (Appendix E) so you can go deeper wherever you want to

One idea runs underneath the whole document, and it's worth naming up front:

Value is created twice – once in your earnings, and again in the multiple the market applies to those earnings. Most owners spend nearly all of their energy on the first and very little on the second. In my experience, the second is where the largest untapped value usually sits.

I'd add one more thing before we start. Value is not a fixed, permanent fact about your company. It's a reasoned judgment shaped by performance, risk, timing, buyer fit, and deal structure. That sounds like a caveat, but it's actually the opportunity: because value is a judgment about the future, you can influence it – deliberately, and long before any transaction is on the table.

Where Your Value Stands Today



01 Valuation Is an Argument, Not an Arithmetic Problem

It's tempting to treat "*what is my company worth*" as a math problem with a single right answer waiting at the back of the book. It isn't, and starting there sets you up for frustration. Valuation is better understood as a reasoned argument supported by evidence. Even the IRS, in Revenue Ruling 59-60 — the document that still anchors how private companies are valued — calls it an "inexact science, often resulting in wide differences of opinion."

That imprecision isn't a flaw in the discipline. It's a feature of what's being measured. You are estimating the worth of a future that hasn't happened yet, and reasonable people will weigh that future differently. So rather than chase one magic number, professionals look at a business through several "*lenses*" and then reconcile what they see. The three classic lenses are:

- ◆ **The Income Approach** — What is the company's capacity to generate future profit and cash?
- ◆ **The Market Approach** — What are real buyers actually paying for similar businesses?
- ◆ **The Asset Approach** — What is the underlying value of what the company owns, net of what it owes?

A fourth perspective, the Cost (or Replacement) Approach, asks what it would cost to rebuild an equivalent business from scratch. We'll work through all four in Section 4.



Before you can choose a lens, though, there's a prior question that changes the answer more than most owners expect: **who is asking, and why?**

02 The Rules of the Game: Standards of Value

Here's something that surprises many of the leaders I work with. A business does not have one universal price. Its worth shifts with the legal and financial context of the valuation — what appraisers call the standard of value. The same company can be worth materially different amounts depending on the purpose of the exercise.

Standard of Value	Plain-English definition	Typical effect on the number
Fair Market Value (FMV)	The price between a hypothetical willing buyer and willing seller, both informed and neither under pressure.	Often the lowest. The IRS standard for taxes and estates; assumes no special buyer synergies.
Fair Value	An accounting/legal standard used in financial reporting and some legal disputes.	Often higher than FMV. Frequently excludes certain discounts.
Investment (Strategic) Value	The value to a <i>specific</i> buyer who gains extra benefit – synergies – from the combination.	The highest. Can be 50–100%+ above FMV.
Liquidation Value	The net cash left after selling assets quickly and paying all debts.	The lowest. For distressed or wind-down situations.

Why does this matter to you? Consider two owners with identical companies. One is valuing the business for an estate plan and wants Fair Market Value, which assumes a generic buyer and generally produces a lower number. The other is selling to a competitor who can fold the business into their own and double its profit – that owner is in Strategic Value territory, a much higher number. Both figures are "correct." They simply answer different questions.

The mistake I see most often is using a tax-oriented value to think about a strategic sale, or the reverse. It's an easy error to make, and an expensive one. The useful habit is to ask, before you get attached to any number: what is this valuation actually for? We'll return to the strategic-buyer question in Part Three, because it's where the difference shows up in real dollars.

03 The Four Estimates of Value You'll See on a Report

When you receive a valuation – including the complimentary annual BizEquity valuation available to Vistage CE and SB members through the Vistage Transaction Center – the company is usually expressed as four related but distinct numbers. Knowing which one applies to your situation saves a good deal of confusion.

- ◆ **Asset Sale Value** – The value in a typical small-company deal where the buyer purchases the operating assets (inventory, equipment, and intangibles such as customer relationships and goodwill), while the seller keeps the cash and receivables and delivers the business free of debt. Most small businesses change hands this way.

- ◆ **Equity Value** — The value of the owners' stake: all the operating assets plus the company's cash and financial assets, minus all its liabilities. This is what matters for estate and gift tax and for divorce, and it's the basis for most middle-market stock sales.
- ◆ **Enterprise Value** — The value of the business as an operating entity regardless of how it's financed: essentially equity value plus debt, minus excess cash. Because it strips out financing choices, it lets you compare companies carrying different debt loads on equal footing.
- ◆ **Liquidation Value** — The "fire-sale" floor: what you'd net if you sold everything quickly and paid off all debt.

A simple way to hold these in mind: Enterprise Value is the value of the whole engine; Equity Value is what's left for the owners once the lenders are paid; Asset and Liquidation values describe two different ways the business could change hands.

There's one distinction here worth internalizing early, because it prevents a painful surprise later:

Enterprise value is not take-home pay. Net Proceeds = Enterprise Value – Debt – Taxes – Transaction Fees ± Working-Capital Adjustment A headline multiple can sound impressive while the seller's actual spendable cash is considerably lower. We come back to this in Part Three.

04 The Valuation Methods, Explained

Let's look at the methods behind those numbers. For each one I'll cover what it measures, the key inputs, the formula in plain terms, and when it's the right tool. You won't apply all of these yourself, but understanding them changes how you read a valuation — and, more importantly, how you run the business between now and the day you need the number.

4.1 The Income Approach — Buying a Stream of Future Cash

The idea underneath this approach is straightforward: a business is worth the cash it will put in its owner's pocket in the future, adjusted for the fact that a dollar received years from now is worth less than a dollar today. Most established companies are valued primarily this way, which is why it deserves the most attention.

Method A — Discounted Cash Flow (DCF). In plain terms, DCF asks: if I add up all the cash this business will produce in the years ahead, and adjust each year for the time value of money, what is that worth right now? Three inputs drive it, and each one repays a moment of thought:

- ◆ **Free Cash Flow (FCF)** — the cash left after the business covers its operating costs and reinvests what it needs to keep running (equipment, working capital). This is the money an owner could actually take out without shrinking the company. Profit on paper isn't the same thing; buyers service acquisitions with cash, not with accounting profit.

- ◆ **Discount Rate** — the annual return a buyer requires to justify the risk of these cash flows, typically 12%–25% for a private company. It bundles the time value of money with the risk that the projected cash never materializes. In corporate settings this is often the Weighted Average Cost of Capital (WACC), the blended cost of the company's debt and equity.
- ◆ **Terminal Value** — a single figure capturing all the cash flows beyond your explicit forecast, out into perpetuity. It typically accounts for 60%–80% of the total value, which means the whole valuation is unusually sensitive to long-term assumptions. That sensitivity is worth respecting rather than glossing over.

The DCF formula, stated simply:

$$\text{Value} = (\text{Each year's Free Cash Flow, discounted back to today}) + (\text{Terminal Value, discounted back to today})$$

And the most common way to compute the terminal piece — the perpetuity growth formula:

$$\text{Terminal Value} = (\text{Next year's Free Cash Flow}) \div (\text{Discount Rate} - \text{Long-term Growth Rate})$$



A quick illustration. If Year-6 free cash flow is \$1,000,000, your discount rate is 20%, and you assume 3% perpetual growth, the terminal value is $\$1,000,000 \div (0.20 - 0.03) = 5.9 \text{ million}^{**}$, before discounting it back to today.

Method B — Capitalization of Earnings. For a stable, steady business, this is a simplified version of DCF. Rather than projecting each year, you take one normalized earnings figure and divide by a capitalization rate (the discount rate minus the expected steady growth rate):

$$\text{Value} = \text{Normalized Earnings} \div \text{Capitalization Rate}$$



Where the discount rate comes from — the Build-Up Method. For a private company, you build the required return in layers, starting from a "safe" rate and adding compensation for each additional source of risk:

Layer	Illustrative rate	What it pays you for
Risk-free rate	4.5%	The return on a ~20-year U.S. Treasury bond – about as close to "no risk" as exists.
+ Equity risk premium	+5.5%	Extra return for owning businesses and stocks rather than bonds.
+ Size premium	+6.0%	The added risk of a small company versus a large public one.
+ Company-specific risk	+4.0%	Risks unique to you – customer concentration, a thin management bench, and the like.
= Discount rate	20.0%	The total annual return a buyer requires.

This table is where a useful insight lives. A multiple is simply a capitalization rate turned upside down. If your cap rate is 18.5% (a 20% discount rate minus 1.5% growth), then $1 \div 0.185 = 5.4$ – a 5.4× multiple. Every market multiple you've ever heard is, underneath, a required return and a growth assumption. That's why reducing risk, which lowers the return a buyer demands, is the same thing as raising your multiple. Hold onto that idea; it's the bridge into Part Two.



Normalizing earnings – the step that makes the number credible. Reported profit in a private company is rarely the "true" economic profit, because most owners run the business for tax efficiency and lifestyle rather than for a buyer's eyes. So we normalize the earnings – also called recasting or adjusting.

Take a regional HVAC distributor. Reported profit is \$2,000,000. The owner pays themselves \$500,000, but a hired manager to do that role would cost \$150,000. We add back the \$350,000 of excess salary:

- ◆ Reported EBITDA: \$2,000,000
- ◆ Add-back (excess owner salary): +\$350,000
- ◆ **Normalized EBITDA: \$2,350,000**

EBITDA — Earnings Before Interest, Taxes, Depreciation, and Amortization — is a standard proxy for operating cash profit. **Adjusted (or Normalized) EBITDA** is EBITDA after removing one-time, personal, or owner-specific items so a buyer can see the underlying earning power. The point isn't to inflate the number; it's to show what the business earns under ordinary professional management. One caution I'd offer from experience: adjustments that feel stretched do real damage in due diligence, because the moment a buyer distrusts one add-back, they start to distrust all of them. We'll come back to that in Section 13.

The Income Approach is usually the right lead lens for established companies with reasonably predictable earnings and cash flow — which describes most Vistage-member businesses.

4.2 The Market Approach — The Real-World Reality Check

This is the business equivalent of comparable sales in real estate. If a similar house down the street sold for \$500,000, yours is probably worth something close. Two versions of it are used:

- ◆ **Comparable Company Analysis (CCA)** — uses the trading multiples of similar public companies (EV/EBITDA, EV/Revenue, Price/Earnings).
- ◆ **Precedent Transactions** — uses the multiples actually paid in recent M&A deals for similar private companies. Because these are whole-company sales, they often include a control premium (Section 5).

The multiples you'll hear most:

- ◆ **EV/EBITDA** = Enterprise Value ÷ EBITDA. The workhorse. Research (Lie & Lie, 2002) finds EBITDA-based multiples tend to produce the most accurate valuations, because they neutralize differences in taxes and financing.
- ◆ **EV/Revenue** = Enterprise Value ÷ annual revenue. Used when earnings are volatile or a company is early-stage.

A word of caution here, because it trips people up. You can't simply staple a high public-company multiple onto a small private business. Public shares can be sold in seconds; a private business takes months or years to sell. Data from the Pepperdine Private Capital Markets surveys consistently show private multiples running well below public ones for that reason. When someone tells you your company is *"worth 12 times earnings because that's what the public leader trades at,"* the right question is: worth that to whom, and how quickly could they get their money back out?



One more distinction that causes real confusion – SDE versus EBITDA:

- ◆ **SDE (Seller's Discretionary Earnings)** includes the owner's salary, because in an owner-operated business the owner is the profit. Used for smaller companies.
- ◆ **EBITDA** already treats a manager's salary as an expense. Used for larger, professionally managed companies.
- ◆ **Because the SDE earnings pool is larger (it includes the salary)**, SDE multiples are always lower than EBITDA multiples for the same business. Comparing one to the other is an apples-to-oranges mistake, and it's a common one.

Typical private-company multiple ranges (illustrative, Pepperdine-style data):

Company size (EBITDA)	Typical EV/EBITDA multiple	Typical buyer
Under \$500K	2.0× – 3.0×	Individual buyers
\$1M – \$3M	4.0× – 5.5×	Small PE firms / family offices
\$5M – \$10M	6.0× – 8.0×	Middle-market PE / strategic buyers

Notice the pattern in that last column: as companies get larger, they earn larger multiples. That's not an accident, and it's worth understanding, so we'll come back to it in Part Two.

4.3 The Asset Approach – Measuring the Floor

The Asset Approach, usually applied through the Adjusted Net Asset Value method, asks a simple question: if we sold every desk, machine, and building at fair value today and paid off every debt, what's left?

$$\text{Adjusted Net Asset Value} = \text{Fair Market Value of all assets (tangible + intangible)} \\ - \text{All liabilities}$$

The word doing the work is adjusted. Book value — what the balance sheet shows — is almost never the same as fair market value. Accounting depreciates assets toward zero on a fixed schedule, but real estate and specialized equipment may be worth more than the books say, while obsolete inventory may be worth less.

This approach becomes the primary method in a few specific situations: when the company earns little or nothing, so income-based value is near zero; when a business is worth more *"dead than alive"* because its assets exceed its earning power; or when it's a holding company whose value lives in the assets themselves. For most healthy operating businesses, though, the asset approach sets a floor rather than the answer.

4.4 The Cost (Replacement) Approach — What It Would Take to Rebuild

The Cost Approach estimates what it would cost to recreate the business from scratch — to reproduce or replace its assets and capabilities — and then subtracts for wear and obsolescence:

$$\text{Value} \approx \text{Cost to replace/reproduce the assets} - \text{Depreciation} - \text{Functional/economic obsolescence}$$

In practice it overlaps heavily with the Asset Approach for tangible items, but it's useful for thinking about intangibles. How much time and money would a buyer spend to rebuild your brand, your assembled workforce, your software, certifications, and customer base? Its limitation is that it captures the cost of the pieces but not the earning power of the assembled whole. A well-run company is worth more than the sum of its replaceable parts, and that difference is precisely the goodwill you'll spend Part Two learning to build.

05 The Final Polish: Discounts and Premiums

Once a base value is set, appraisers adjust for the reality of ownership, because owning 100% of a company is a very different thing from owning 10% of it.

- ◆ **Discount for Lack of Marketability (DLOM)** — a reduction (commonly 15%–35%, and historically observed as high as 30%–80% in some studies) because private shares can't be sold quickly on an exchange.
- ◆ **Discount for Lack of Control (DLOC)** — a reduction applied to a minority stake (under 50%) because the holder can't set strategy, hire or fire the CEO, or force a sale.
- ◆ **Control Premium** — a bonus (commonly 20%–40%) a buyer pays to acquire the whole company and gain full decision-making authority.

These aren't academic footnotes. A minority interest in your company, for tax or partnership purposes, can be worth 30%–40% less per share than its pro-rata portion of the whole. If you have partners, family shareholders, or a buy-sell agreement, this is a conversation worth having deliberately rather than discovering at the worst possible moment.

06 How the Pieces Come Together

Professionals don't pick one method and stop. They triangulate — run two or three approaches and look for where the values converge. Convergence builds confidence; divergence is a signal that some assumption is fighting the others, and it's usually worth chasing down which one. A few evidence-based points shape good practice here. EBITDA multiples tend to be the most reliable market yardstick, because they strip out differences in taxes and financing. Valuations built on credible forward-looking earnings generally outperform those built only on last year's results. And using several methods together beats relying on any single one.

The final judgment gets filtered through four questions: why the valuation (its purpose), what stage the company is at (early versus mature), what industry it's in (asset-heavy versus service), and what data is actually reliable. And here I'd repeat a caution that goes all the way back to Revenue Ruling 59-60: avoid the "blind use of averages." Don't simply add the three lenses and divide by three. Weight them by which best fits this business and this purpose. Judgment beats a formula, which is a theme you'll notice throughout this guide.

07 Getting Your Number — and Tracking It Every Year

For Vistage members, the practical on-ramp is already built in. CE and SB members can receive one complimentary business valuation each year through the Vistage Transaction Center, provided in partnership with BizEquity, whose algorithm has produced more than 33 million valuations and reports the four estimates of value along with roughly 30 operating KPIs.

The members who get the most out of that benefit treat the valuation as an annual benchmark rather than a one-time curiosity. In practice that means completing a valuation each year and watching the trend line, not just the snapshot; bringing the report to a one-to-one and picking one or two KPIs to move over the coming year; folding those KPIs into the annual operating plan and a Host Presentation so there's accountability; and, when it fits the group, inviting a Transaction Center expert to a meeting on value creation, exit, or M&A.

A single valuation tells you where you stand. A series of valuations tells you whether the work in Part Two is actually moving the needle — which is the more important question.



What You Need to Grow Value



08 The Two Engines of Value

In most private-company transactions, the working shorthand is simple enough to write on the back of a napkin:

$$\text{Enterprise Value} = \text{Adjusted EBITDA} \times \text{Exit Multiple}$$

That isn't the whole story, but it's the language buyers, lenders, and advisors use every day, and it makes the two engines of value plain. The first engine is the earnings base: grow normalized profit and, all else equal, value rises with it. The second engine is the multiple, and this is the one owners tend to underestimate. The multiple isn't magic. It's the market's judgment about how dependable, scalable, and transferable those earnings are.

Consider what that second engine is worth. A company with \$3,000,000 of adjusted EBITDA at a 5.5× multiple is worth \$16.5M. The same company at a 7.0× multiple is worth \$21.0M. That extra \$4.5M doesn't come from better arithmetic. It comes from lower risk and higher quality.

This is the point I'd most want a member to sit with: not all profit dollars are equal. A dollar earned from recurring contracts, diversified customers, and a management team that can run the business is worth far more than a dollar earned from one-off projects, a single large customer, and the owner putting out fires every day. Same dollar on the income statement; very different value in the market.

So the useful question isn't only "how do I make more money?" It's also "how do I make the money I already earn more dependable, and less dependent on me?" The rest of Part Two answers that question through three pillars.

09 Pillar One – Financial Quality

Buyers want to know two things before they'll pay a premium: does the business truly earn what the statements suggest, and do those earnings turn into cash? Financial quality is the evidence that answers both.

A few patterns hold up consistently. Consistent, profitable growth is worth more than erratic growth, because steady improvement signals real demand and capable leadership, while a company that lurches between strong and weak years gets priced with a discount for uncertainty.

Margin matters because it's evidence of discipline — strong or improving margins point to pricing power and efficiency, while declining margins point to cost pressure, weak differentiation, or discounting to hold volume. And cash flow quality matters because profit on paper is not money in the bank; if receivables age, inventory piles up, or capital spending is chronically deferred, a careful buyer notices and grows skeptical.

There's a related item worth watching well before any sale: the trend in net working capital — the cash tied up in receivables and inventory, less payables. Buyers expect a normal level of it to be left in the business at closing (the working-capital peg, which we'll cover in Part Three), so managing it well is a habit that pays off long before it's tested.

If you're wondering where to look first, I'd start with the middle line of the income statement. Gross profit tells you more about the health of your pricing and operations than almost any other single figure. A useful reflection for a leadership team: do we actually know where our margin is earned, protected, and lost — by product, by customer, by line of business? Or do we treat margin as a mystery that shows up at the bottom of the page?

KPI	Simple formula	Why buyers care
Revenue growth rate	$(\text{This period} - \text{prior period}) \div \text{prior period}$	Shows demand is expanding in a believable way.
Gross margin	$(\text{Revenue} - \text{direct costs}) \div \text{revenue}$	Signals pricing power and cost control.
Adjusted EBITDA margin	$\text{Adjusted EBITDA} \div \text{revenue}$	Normalized operating profitability.
Free cash flow margin	$\text{Free cash flow} \div \text{revenue}$	How much real, spendable cash the business throws off.
Days Sales Outstanding (DSO)	$(\text{Accounts receivable} \div \text{annual revenue}) \times 365$	How fast customers pay; lower means stronger cash conversion.

10 Pillar Two – Revenue Defensibility

Revenue size matters, but revenue quality matters just as much, and it's the part owners tend to overlook. Buyers pay more for revenue that is likely to show up again next month and next year, because it lowers the odds that the earnings they're buying disappear right after the deal closes.

Recurring revenue earns a premium for exactly that reason – contracts, subscriptions, maintenance agreements, retainers, and genuine repeat business all make future cash flow more predictable. Not every business can become a subscription model, and I wouldn't pretend otherwise. But nearly every business can move some of its revenue from "re-won every month" toward "planned," and that shift is worth real money.

Customer concentration is the flip side, and it's one of the clearest value suppressors I see in owner-led companies. When one customer represents more than roughly 10%–15% of revenue, the business becomes fragile, and buyers discount it accordingly. The honest question to ask is: if my largest customer left, would this be a difficult year, or an existential one? If the answer is existential, that's not a sales problem to solve someday; it's a value problem to work on now.

Retention and pricing power tell a buyer whether customers stay by choice or by inertia. A company that keeps its customers, expands existing accounts, and raises prices without losing them is demonstrating a real moat. So is genuine, owned intellectual property – a protected process, a certification, a hard-to-copy dataset – provided it belongs to the company rather than living in one employee's head.

KPI	Simple formula	Why buyers care
Recurring revenue %	Recurring revenue ÷ total revenue	More predictable future cash flow.
Customer retention rate	(Ending – new customers) ÷ starting customers	Shows the base doesn't leak.
Largest customer %	Largest customer revenue ÷ total revenue	Flags single-point-of-failure risk.
Top-5 customer %	Top-5 revenue ÷ total revenue	Shows breadth versus concentration.
Price realization	Avg. annual price increase vs. inflation/input costs	Shows pricing power versus a commodity trap.
Backlog / contract coverage	Months of committed work under contract	Forward visibility reduces risk.

11 Pillar Three – Transferability

This is the pillar where owner-led businesses most often lose value, and it's the one owners find hardest to see, because the very thing that built the company is now capping its worth. If you are the chief salesperson, the chief problem-solver, the operational hub, and the keeper of every key relationship, then a buyer isn't purchasing a self-sustaining company. They're purchasing a job, with a good deal of risk attached to it.

Transferability improves along a few clear lines. It improves when a capable management team can run the business without escalating every decision to you. It improves when customer relationships belong to the company rather than to you personally. It improves when the critical processes are documented in a way others can follow, instead of living in someone's memory – which isn't bureaucracy so much as conversion, turning private knowledge into company property. And it improves when the business can grow without costs rising in perfect lockstep.

The simplest test I know for this is what I'd call the four-week vacation test: if you were genuinely unreachable for a month, what would happen? Would sales slow, decisions stack up, customers get nervous? The honest answer tells you more about transferability than any org chart. And it points directly at the work – because every dependency you can name is one you can begin to remove.

KPI	Simple formula	Why buyers care
Owner-originated revenue %	Revenue tied to owner relationships ÷ total	How much sales walks out the door if the owner does.
Owner hours in weekly operations	Tracked weekly hours in day-to-day work	Lower dependence means better transferability.
Management retention rate	Key managers retained over a period	A stable bench reduces continuity risk.
Documented process coverage	Critical processes with SOPs ÷ total critical processes	Performance without tribal knowledge.
Revenue per employee	Annual revenue ÷ full-time-equivalent employees	Labor efficiency and scalability.

12 Why Growth Compounds Value

There's a multiplier hiding inside the two-engine model that's worth making explicit, because it changes how you think about growth. Larger companies don't just have bigger earnings; they also earn bigger multiples. BizEquity's research illustrates this "size effect" plainly (the figures are directional, not promises):

Earnings size	Illustrative multiple
Under \$500K	~1×
\$500K – \$2M	~3×
\$2M – \$10M	~5×
\$10M+	~10×

The takeaway is that value tends to grow faster than earnings, because higher earnings raise value directly and pull up the multiple applied to them. A company that grows from \$1M to \$3M of EBITDA may see its value grow by considerably more than three times. That's the case for disciplined, profitable growth – but notice it works with the risk-reduction work in the other two pillars, not instead of it. Growth that adds concentration or deepens owner dependence can raise earnings while doing little for the multiple. Growth and de-risking together are what compound.



13 What Suppresses Value – and Why

It's worth naming the conditions that reliably compress value, because most of them are quieter and more fixable than owners assume. Underneath all of them is a single idea: a multiple is a compressed expression of risk, so when risk rises, the multiple falls.

On the commercial and leadership side, the usual suspects are heavy owner dependence (the business relies on you to sell, solve, and decide), customer concentration (too much revenue in too few accounts), and commodity positioning (you win on price rather than differentiation, so buyers assume margin pressure will continue).

On the financial and execution side, watch for weak financial credibility (messy or late reporting makes buyers question the earnings themselves), aggressive add-backs (stretched adjustments that collapse trust in due diligence), poor cash conversion (profit that never becomes cash), and deferred maintenance (skimping on equipment, technology, or people to prop up short-term earnings, which a buyer can usually see through).

None of these require a crisis to matter. They quietly cap the multiple every day the business operates. The encouraging part is that each one is something a leadership team can choose to work on, on its own timeline, without a transaction forcing the issue.

14 Analyze the Business the Way a Buyer Will

One of the most useful habits I can recommend is to look at your own company the way a demanding buyer eventually will. It's uncomfortable at first, and that discomfort is exactly the point – it surfaces the weaknesses while you still have years to address them.

A practical version of this, drawn from decades of M&A advisory work, runs in six steps. Tabulate your income-statement items for the past four or five years. Adjust for owner-specific items (excess compensation, perks, family on payroll) and one-time charges, restating everything to what a professional manager and a clean operation would look like. Calculate margin percentages, because the percentages tell you more than the raw dollars. Examine the key ratios that reveal how the business is really performing. Graph the trends, because direction over time reveals more than any single year. And benchmark against your industry, because when you eventually sell, your competitors are your competition for the buyer's dollar.

The ratios worth tracking on a rolling basis are the familiar ones: current and quick ratios for short-term strength, days sales and payables outstanding for collection and payment discipline, inventory and working-capital turnover for efficiency, return on capital employed, and debt-to-equity for leverage. The Altman Z-Score, which combines several of these into a single early-warning gauge, is a reasonable health check. But the discipline underneath all of them is the same: know your number, know its trend, and know how it compares to your industry. A number in isolation is just trivia. A number with a trend and a benchmark is a decision.

Turn Insight Into a Value Dashboard

Measurement only helps if it changes behavior, so the goal of a value dashboard isn't a prettier spreadsheet. It's to focus leadership attention on the handful of metrics that actually move earnings quality, revenue durability, and transferability.

A few principles keep a dashboard useful. Track a focused set — ten to twelve well-defined metrics, not fifty, because more measures usually create noise rather than clarity. Use consistent definitions, since a metric calculated differently each quarter has a meaningless trend line. Review trends rather than isolated months. Give every metric an owner and an action, so that a problem like rising concentration points to the diversification plan rather than just reporting itself. And translate every metric back to value, connecting it to stronger earnings, lower risk, or better transferability.

There's a timing point here that I'd underline. Value creation is far more believable to a buyer when the improvements show up steadily over 24 to 36 months than when they appear all at once as a company goes to market. Buyers trust trend lines and discount last-minute cleanups, for the same reason any of us trusts a habit more than a promise. The recommended dashboard is laid out in Appendix C. The members I work with who build these into their annual operating plan tend to see the compounding effect — it's a meaningful part of why so many are able to double revenue or triple profitability over a three-to-five-year horizon.



Positioning the Company for Sale



16 Exit Is a Process, Not an Event

If there's one sentence in this section I'd want a member to remember, it's this: by the time you decide to sell, the market mostly reveals what you've already built or neglected over the previous several years. Most of the value has been determined before the process starts. That reframes the whole question of "positioning for sale." The best positioning work doesn't happen in the deal; it happens in the years before it, when there's no transaction pressure and you can calmly improve reporting, reduce concentration, delegate real authority, and build a track record the market will trust. Exiting is a process, not an event. The most useful posture is to manage the business for value all along — not to minimize taxes, and not only to grow the top line — so that when the option to sell appears, you're negotiating from strength rather than scrambling to look ready.



The reflection I'd offer any owner who thinks a sale is somewhere on the horizon: if a serious buyer looked closely at this business next quarter, what would they find — and what would I wish I'd started fixing three years ago? Whatever that answer is, it's your work list.

17 Choose the Right Standard of Value — and Find the Strategic Buyer

Recall from Part One that the same company is worth different amounts to different buyers. Positioning for a premium sale means deliberately aiming at Investment (Strategic) Value — the buyer who gains synergies and can therefore justify paying the most. The real challenge in a sale isn't establishing a generic number; it's finding the specific buyer who values your company more than anyone else, and understanding why. Is it your customers, your capabilities, your geography, your capacity? Once you can answer that, you can shape both the narrative and, over time, the business itself around that fit.

There's a second lever here that owners routinely underuse: competition among buyers is itself a value driver. A single buyer with no rival has no reason to raise the price. Running a process that creates genuine competitive tension is one of the highest-return moves available in any sale, and it's worth building your timeline around.

18 Normalize Earnings – Credibly

Everything from Section 4.1 about add-backs applies with extra force at sale time, because now a buyer's team is testing every number. Buyers value the business on adjusted earnings — reported profit restated to remove excess owner compensation, personal perks, and one-time charges so the true earning power is visible. Two disciplines make the difference.

First, document as you go. A buyer will want proof of every adjustment in diligence, and reconstructing that proof under deal pressure is a poor position to be in. Keep clean records of each perk and one-time item now, while it's easy. Second, don't overreach. I've watched aggressive or unsupportable add-backs cost sellers more than they ever added, because the first stretched adjustment a buyer catches makes them re-examine everything else with suspicion. Credibility is worth more than an extra half-turn of claimed EBITDA. When you're tempted to push, the useful question is: would this adjustment survive a skeptical buyer reading my own records back to me?

19 Understand Deal Structure — Asset Sale vs. Stock Sale

How a deal is structured changes what actually transfers, who carries which liabilities, how it's taxed, and, in the end, what you keep. It deserves attention well before you're at the negotiating table.

In an asset sale, the buyer purchases selected assets and usually chooses which liabilities to assume, often operating from a newly formed entity; the seller typically keeps cash and receivables and delivers the business debt-free. Most small-company deals are structured this way, because buyers prefer them for tax and liability reasons. In a stock (equity) sale, the buyer purchases the ownership interests of the company itself and inherits essentially everything — all assets and all liabilities, on and off the balance sheet. Most middle-market deals take this form.

The distinction isn't academic. It can meaningfully change your net proceeds even when the headline price is identical, which is exactly why it's a conversation to have with a transaction attorney and a tax advisor before you negotiate, not after.



Mind the Net-Proceeds Math – and the Working-Capital Peg

It's worth returning to the reality-check formula, because it governs what you actually take home:

$$\text{Net Proceeds} = \text{Enterprise Value} - \text{Debt} - \text{Taxes} - \text{Transaction Fees} \pm \text{Working-Capital Adjustment}$$

Two items surprise sellers most often. The first is taxes and fees, which can consume a large slice of a headline number, with the structure (asset versus stock, and how the purchase price is allocated) driving how large. The second is the working-capital peg. Buyers require a "normal" level of working capital to be left in the business at closing so it can keep operating – think of it as leaving fuel in the tank. If you strip receivables and inventory bare right before closing, the buyer doesn't admire the hustle; they lower the price or force a dollar-for-dollar closing adjustment. In one sample stock-purchase letter of intent I've reviewed, the price was explicitly "increased or decreased based on changes in the Company's working capital, on a dollar-for-dollar basis." The lesson is to manage working capital as a steady trend, not a closing-day maneuver.

Read the Headline Carefully – Cash at Close vs. Contingent Value

A high headline price means little if much of it is tied to risky future payments, and this is where enthusiasm can get expensive. It's worth knowing what to look for. Earn-outs pay part of the price later, contingent on the business hitting targets after closing – attractive in theory, frequently disappointing in practice, and no longer in your control once you've handed over the keys. Escrow or holdbacks set aside a portion for a period after closing to secure your post-closing obligations. Seller financing means you're effectively lending the buyer part of the purchase price.

None of these are inherently bad, but they aren't the same as money in your account. When comparing offers, weigh the certainty and timing of the cash, not just the top-line number. Cash at close is worth more than a promise, and the difference is real.



22 Time the Market — and Watch Your Own Judgment

Timing genuinely affects price. Deal markets run hot and cold, and both buyers and sellers fall into predictable traps at each extreme. In hot markets, with lots of deals and confident buyers, valuations can get ahead of themselves; sellers benefit, but should be wary of headline multiples built on top-of-cycle assumptions that won't hold. In cold markets, with few deals and cautious buyers, executives tend to over-weight short-term risk and undervalue good businesses — which is precisely when opportunistic buyers move.

There's a discipline worth borrowing from careful acquirers. Because 50%–80% of a DCF's value sits in the terminal value — the hardest part to forecast — it pays to pressure-test long-term growth and margin assumptions against multi-year averages, and to run a benchmark-multiple sanity check after the DCF rather than before, so you're not anchored to a frothy market number. For a seller, the broader point is simpler: understand which market you're in, and don't let either exuberance or fear set your reservation price for you. That's a judgment call, and judgment is the thing that doesn't come from a spreadsheet.

23 What Buyers Actually Look For

Beyond the numbers, certain characteristics move a buyer to pay a premium — or to hold back. None of this is exotic; it's the same list experienced acquirers have used for decades. Buyers reward consistency of performance, because several years of rising revenue and margin is far less risky than a jagged history. They reward a strong reputation among customers and suppliers, a broad customer base rather than concentration, and long-standing relationships rather than churn. They pay more for a differentiated offering than for one of twenty look-alikes competing on price. They reward management depth and are wary of a business whose owner is heading for the door without a capable team behind them. They pay more when they can see synergies. And they pay more when they're competing with other buyers than when they're the only one at the table.

Here's what I'd point out about that entire list: every item on it is something you can influence in the 24 to 36 months before a sale. That's not a coincidence, and it's the whole argument for starting early.



24 Be Diligence-Ready Before You Start

When a buyer signs a letter of intent, they typically receive an exclusivity period — a "no-shop" window during which you can't negotiate with anyone else — and they pour resources into due diligence: a deep review of your financial, legal, tax, environmental, intellectual-property, and labor records. Deals lose value, or die outright, when diligence turns up surprises or when a seller is slow and disorganized in responding.

The best protection is to build a data room before you go to market: clean multi-year financials, contracts, corporate records, KPI definitions, employee and customer documentation, and clear support for every earnings adjustment. Organized, credible, prompt responses signal a well-run company and protect your price. A messy process signals hidden risk and invites re-trading — the buyer lowering the price mid-deal. The question to sit with well ahead of time is straightforward: *if a buyer asked for everything tomorrow, could I produce it quickly and confidently — or would I be scrambling?*

25 A Pre-Sale Gut Check

Before you take any valuation or offer at face value, it's worth stress-testing it against a short list of the places I most often see value quietly leak away:

- ☐ **Wrong standard of value** — using a tax-oriented number to frame a strategic sale, or the reverse.
- ☐ **Confusing price with value** — a high headline tied to risky earn-outs is not the same as cash at close.
- ☐ **Aggressive EBITDA add-backs** — unsupportable adjustments erode credibility in diligence.
- ☐ **Relying on a single method** — one lens makes a fragile argument; triangulate.
- ☐ **Ignoring DCF sensitivity** — a one-point change in the growth or discount rate can move value ~20%.
- ☐ **Owner dependence** — if the business needs you daily, the buyer is buying a job.
- ☐ **Unmanaged working capital** — surprises at the peg reduce net proceeds.
- ☐ **No competitive tension** — a single buyer controls the price.

Assumptions, Scenarios, and Risks



26 Name Your Assumptions Out Loud

Every valuation rests on assumptions, and the discipline of stating them plainly is what separates a defensible number from a hopeful one. The ones that most drive the answer are: the standard and purpose of the value (tax FMV versus a strategic sale); the earnings base (which period, and which normalizing adjustments); the discount rate or required return (the risk layers in the build-up); the long-term growth rate (modest and defensible, ideally below any recent hot-period growth); the multiple (drawn from comparable companies and transactions appropriate to your size and industry); the discounts and premiums for marketability and control; and the reliability of the underlying data. If you can state each of these and defend it, you have a valuation. If you can't, you have a guess wearing a suit.

27 Sensitivity Analysis — Best, Base, and Worst Case

Because value moves with a few key inputs, the right output is a range rather than a single point. The table below shows how the same company's value shifts with just two levers — normalized EBITDA and the multiple — holding the structure constant. The figures are illustrative, but the spread is the point.

Scenario	Adjusted EBITDA	Multiple	Enterprise Value	What has to be true
Worst case	\$2.5M	4.5×	\$11.25M	Concentration unaddressed, owner-dependent, cold market, thin documentation.
Base case	\$3.0M	5.5×	\$16.5M	Current trajectory; steady margins; some diversification.
Best case	\$3.5M	7.0×	\$24.5M	Recurring revenue up, concentration reduced, strong management bench, clean diligence, a competitive process in a warmer market.

The distance between the worst and best case here is more than two-to-one. What I'd want an owner to notice is where that distance comes from: almost all of it sits within your control, through the drivers in Part Two and the positioning in Part Three. The difference between an \$11M outcome and a \$24M outcome, on the same underlying company, isn't luck or timing alone. A large share of it is the work — and the years you give yourself to do it.

28 The Risks That Don't Fit in a Spreadsheet

Finally, some factors weigh heavily on buyers even though they never appear cleanly in a model: over-reliance on the owner or one key employee, industry and regulatory shifts, customer and supplier concentration, technology or product obsolescence, litigation or environmental exposure, the quality and timeliness of financial reporting, and the state of the economy when you sell. Naming these honestly, and having a plan for each, is itself a value-building act — because every risk you can retire is a discount the buyer no longer has a reason to apply. The goal isn't to pretend the risks away. It's to know them well enough to manage them.

A Closing Thought



Business value doesn't appear the day you decide to sell. It's built, or quietly neglected, over years — in the ordinary rhythm of how you run the company.



The businesses that earn the market's confidence aren't usually the ones with the most compelling story. They're the ones with the cleanest evidence: real earnings, dependable cash, defensible revenue, and an organization that can thrive without the owner rescuing it every day.



That's also the most encouraging idea in this guide. Because value is a judgment about risk and the future, you can shape it deliberately — starting now, long before any transaction. Know where you stand. Move the drivers that matter. Reduce the risks on purpose. Position early, and sell from strength if and when you choose to.



If it would help to turn this into a concrete plan — an annual valuation cadence, a value dashboard, and a two-to-three-year value-acceleration roadmap for your leadership team — that's the work I do with the CEOs and owners in my groups, and I'd welcome the conversation.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

The Value-Readiness Assessment & Scoring Key

The purpose of this assessment isn't to produce a grade. It's to force an honest conversation with your leadership team about the questions that most affect earnings quality, risk, and transferability – the three things that determine both engines of value. Answer each statement candidly on a 0–4 scale, total your points, and read the interpretation. The number matters less than the discussion it starts, and less than the trend when you take it again next year.

Scoring scale for every statement:

Score	Meaning
0	Not true at all / does not exist
1	Rarely true / very early stage
2	Somewhat true / inconsistent
3	Mostly true / working well
4	Fully true / a genuine strength

Section 1 – Financial Quality (max 24)

- 01 We can explain normalized (adjusted) earnings cleanly, and every add-back is documented and supportable. _____
- 02 Profit converts into cash consistently; receivables, inventory, and capital spending are well managed. _____
- 03 Gross margin and EBITDA margin are stable or improving, and we know them by product/customer line. _____
- 04 Monthly financials are accurate and delivered quickly enough to drive decisions. _____
- 05 Revenue has grown consistently, rather than erratically, over the last three years. _____
- 06 We benchmark our margins and key ratios against our industry. _____

Section 2 – Revenue Defensibility (max 24)

- 07 A meaningful share of revenue is recurring, contracted, or reliably repeat. _____
- 08 No single customer exceeds roughly 10–15% of revenue. _____
- 09 Our top five customers are not a dominant share of revenue. _____
- 10 We retain customers well and can raise prices without losing them. _____
- 11 We have a real, owned moat (IP, process, brand, certification) – not just low price. _____
- 12 We have forward visibility (backlog, contracts, pipeline) into future revenue. _____

Section 3 – Transferability (max 24)

- 13 The business would run smoothly if the owner were unreachable for 90 days. _____
- 14 We have a management team that owns decisions without escalating everything. _____
- 15 Customer relationships belong to the company, not to the owner personally. _____
- 16 Critical processes are documented in SOPs and actually followed. _____
- 17 We have credible backups or cross-training for every critical role. _____
- 18 The owner works on the business more than in daily operations. _____

Section 4 – Sale & Exit Readiness (max 20)

- 19 We get an annual, independent view of our value and track the trend. _____
- 20 We understand our likely buyer type (strategic vs. financial) and what they would value.

- 21 Our records (financials, contracts, corporate documents) are organized and diligence-ready.

- 22 We understand our likely deal structure and net-proceeds math (taxes, fees, working capital).

- 23 We are managing the business for value on a 24–36 month horizon, not just this year's taxes. _____

Scoring Key (Total out of 92)

Add all 23 scores.

Total score	Value-Readiness Level	What it means, and where to start
0–30	Level 1 – Owner-Dependent	The business is largely you. Value is fragile and would be heavily discounted at sale. Start with financial credibility and reducing owner dependence – Phase 1 of Appendix B.
31–50	Level 2 – Stabilizing	The fundamentals are forming but inconsistent. Real earnings exist, but risk (concentration, thin management, cash conversion) is capping the multiple. Work your two lowest-scoring sections; Phases 1–2.
51–70	Level 3 – Value-Building	A solid, saleable company with identifiable upside. You're moving both engines. Focus on multiple expansion – recurring revenue, diversification, management depth; Phases 2–3.
71–82	Level 4 – Market-Ready	Strong, transferable, defensible. You'd attract multiple buyers and command an above-average multiple. Focus on diligence readiness and a competitive process; Phases 3–4.
83–92	Level 5 – Premium-Ready	A genuinely premium asset – clean evidence, low risk, self-sustaining. Focus on timing, buyer selection, and competitive tension; Phase 4.

The most useful way to use this is to take it every 6–12 months and watch the trend, both overall and by section. Three rising data points are exactly the kind of evidence a buyer trusts – and, just as valuable, the kind of evidence that tells you your own efforts are working. Note your two lowest sections; they're usually your highest-return work for the year ahead.

Appendix B

The Sequential Value-Acceleration Checklist

The purpose of this assessment isn't to produce a grade. It's to force an honest conversation with your leadership team about the questions that most affect earnings quality, risk, and transferability — the three things that determine both engines of value. Answer each statement candidly on a 0–4 scale, total your points, and read the interpretation. The number matters less than the discussion it starts, and less than the trend when you take it again next year.

Phase 1 — Establish the Foundation (Months 0–6): Credibility & Clarity

- ☐ Get a baseline valuation (use the annual Vistage/BizEquity benefit) and record all four estimates of value.
- ☐ Complete the Appendix A assessment; identify your two weakest sections.
- ☐ Tighten the monthly close; deliver accurate financials within a set number of days.
- ☐ Clean up the chart of accounts and define a disciplined, documented add-back policy.
- ☐ Restate the last 3–5 years to normalized earnings (recast owner comp, perks, one-time items).
- ☐ Stand up a starter value dashboard (Appendix C) with consistent metric definitions.
- ☐ Benchmark gross margin, EBITDA margin, and key ratios against your industry.

Phase 2 — Strengthen the Engines (Months 6–18): Earnings & Cash

- ☐ Attack cash conversion: review receivables aging (DSO), inventory discipline, and payment terms.
- ☐ Identify and fix margin leakage — low-quality revenue, underpriced products, unprofitable customers.
- ☐ Implement a pricing review; test your true pricing power.
- ☐ Begin reducing customer concentration with a concrete plan to grow underweight accounts and segments.
- ☐ Move more revenue toward recurring or contracted models (agreements, retainers, subscriptions, repeat programs).
- ☐ Set targets and red/yellow/green thresholds for each dashboard metric; review monthly.

Phase 3 – Build Transferability (Months 12–30): De-Risk the Business

- ☐ Shift selling, operating, and customer authority from the owner to the management team.
- ☐ Convert personal customer relationships into institutional ones (multiple company touchpoints).
- ☐ Document the handful of critical processes as SOPs – and confirm they're actually followed.
- ☐ Establish backups or cross-training for every critical role.
- ☐ Run the four-week vacation test: delegate decision rights, go unreachable, then fix what broke.
- ☐ Re-take the Appendix A assessment and confirm the trend line is rising.

Phase 4 – Position and Realize (Months 24–36+): Sell From Strength

- ☐ Build the data room early: clean financials, contracts, corporate and legal documents, KPI definitions, adjustment support.
- ☐ Assemble your deal team – M&A advisor or investment banker, transaction attorney, tax advisor, wealth planner.
- ☐ Clarify your target buyer type and the synergy story a strategic buyer would pay for.

Model the net-proceeds math for likely structures (asset vs. stock sale); understand the tax impact.
- ☐ Read the market (hot vs. cold) and time the process to create competitive tension among buyers.
- ☐ Weigh offers on cash at close and certainty, not just headline price (watch earn-outs, escrow, seller financing).
- ☐ Manage working capital toward the expected peg – as a trend, not a closing-day maneuver.

A note on sequence: don't go to market until you've earned the multiple. A company that reaches Phase 4 having genuinely completed the first three phases sells faster, survives diligence intact, and commands a premium. One that skips ahead usually gets re-traded – and learns the lesson the expensive way.

Appendix C

The Recommended Value Dashboard

Keep it simple enough to review in ten minutes and specific enough to change behavior. For each metric, define one formula, one owner, one cadence, one target, and a red/yellow/green threshold. Every metric should tie back to one of three things: Earnings, Multiple/Risk, or Transferability. If a measure doesn't connect to one of those, it probably doesn't belong here.

Metric	Definition	Cadence	Value link
Revenue growth rate	Current vs. prior period revenue	Monthly/Quarterly	Both
Gross margin	$(\text{Revenue} - \text{direct costs}) \div \text{revenue}$	Monthly	Earnings
Adjusted EBITDA margin	$\text{Adjusted EBITDA} \div \text{revenue}$	Monthly	Both
Free cash flow margin	$\text{Free cash flow} \div \text{revenue}$	Monthly/Quarterly	Both
Days Sales Outstanding (DSO)	$(\text{Receivables} \div \text{revenue}) \times 365$	Monthly	Risk
Net working capital trend	NWC as % of revenue, plus the AR/inventory/AP pattern	Monthly	Both
Recurring revenue %	$\text{Recurring/contracted} \div \text{total revenue}$	Monthly/Quarterly	Multiple
Customer retention rate	% of customers or revenue retained	Quarterly	Multiple
Largest customer %	$\text{Largest customer} \div \text{total revenue}$	Quarterly	Multiple
Backlog / contract coverage	Months of committed work under contract	Monthly	Multiple

Owner-originated revenue %	Revenue dependent on the owner ÷ total	Quarterly	Transferability
Management retention rate	Key leaders retained over a period	Quarterly	Risk
Documented process coverage	Critical processes with SOPs ÷ total	Quarterly	Transferability

Appendix D

Glossary of Key Terms



Adjusted (Normalized) EBITDA — EBITDA after removing one-time, personal, or owner-specific items so a buyer can see true underlying earning power.



Asset Sale — A deal in which the buyer purchases selected assets (and chooses which liabilities to assume), typically leaving cash and receivables with the seller and taking the business debt-free.



Book Value — The value of assets as recorded on the accounting balance sheet; usually differs from fair market value.



Capitalization (Cap) Rate — The discount rate minus the expected long-term growth rate; dividing earnings by the cap rate gives value. The inverse of a multiple.



Control Premium — The extra amount a buyer pays to acquire a controlling (usually whole-company) interest and its decision-making power, commonly 20–40%.



DCF (Discounted Cash Flow) — A method that estimates value as the present value of projected future cash flows plus a discounted terminal value.



Discount Rate — The annual return a buyer requires to compensate for the time value of money and risk; for private firms often 12–25%.



DLOC (Discount for Lack of Control) — A reduction applied to a minority interest that cannot direct the company.



DL0M (Discount for Lack of Marketability) — A reduction (commonly 15–35%) because private shares can't be sold quickly.



Due Diligence — The buyer's deep verification of financial, legal, tax, and operational records before closing.



Earn-out — Part of a purchase price paid later, contingent on the business hitting post-closing targets.



EBITDA — Earnings Before Interest, Taxes, Depreciation, and Amortization; a common proxy for operating cash profit.



Enterprise Value (EV) — The value of the operating business regardless of financing (roughly equity + debt – excess cash).



Equity Value — The value belonging to owners: enterprise value adjusted for cash and debt.



Exit Multiple — The number applied to earnings (e.g., EBITDA) to estimate value; reflects growth, quality, risk, and transferability.



Fair Market Value (FMV) — Price between a hypothetical willing buyer and seller, neither compelled; the IRS/tax standard.



Free Cash Flow (FCF) — Cash left after operating needs and capital spending; the spendable cash a business truly produces.



Goodwill — The value of a business above its identifiable tangible and intangible assets — the premium for the assembled, earning whole.



Liquidation Value — The net amount realized from selling assets quickly and paying all debts; a floor value.



Multiple — A shorthand ratio (e.g., EV/EBITDA) expressing value as a multiple of a financial metric; mathematically the inverse of a cap rate.



Net Proceeds — What a seller actually keeps: enterprise value – debt – taxes – fees ± working-capital adjustment.



Normalizing / Recasting — Adjusting reported financials to reflect true economic performance under typical management.



Recurring Revenue — Revenue expected to repeat because it is contracted, subscription-based, or highly habitual.



SDE (Seller's Discretionary Earnings) — Earnings including the owner's salary; used for owner-operated businesses. SDE multiples run lower than EBITDA multiples.



Standard of Value — The definition of value being used (FMV, fair value, investment/strategic value, liquidation), set by the purpose.



Stock (Equity) Sale — A deal in which the buyer purchases the ownership interests of the company, inheriting its assets and liabilities.



Strategic (Investment) Value — Value to a specific buyer who gains synergies; typically the highest number.



Terminal (Horizon) Value — The portion of a DCF capturing all cash flows beyond the explicit forecast; often 50–80% of total value.



Transferability — The degree to which the business can perform without the current owner's daily involvement.



WACC (Weighted Average Cost of Capital) — The blended, risk-weighted cost of a company's debt and equity; a common DCF discount rate.



Working Capital — Cash tied up in receivables and inventory, less payables; the operating cash a business needs to run.



Working-Capital Peg — The agreed "normal" level of working capital a seller must leave in the business at closing; shortfalls reduce the price.



Altman Z-Score — A composite early-warning score of financial health combining working capital, retained earnings, EBIT, and net worth relative to total assets.

Appendix E

Bibliography & Sources

This guide synthesizes the source materials assembled for the Capacity Building Solutions Business Valuation project. The frameworks, examples, and figures draw directly on the documents below. Where those documents cite external studies, reports, and data providers, those are listed in the second section so readers can trace the ideas and go deeper.

Primary source documents (project library)

- 01 The Three Lenses of Value: A Guide to Business Valuation. — Standards of value; income, market, and asset approaches; DCF, capitalization of earnings, and the build-up method for discount rates; normalized EBITDA (HVAC example); SDE vs. EBITDA; Pepperdine multiple ranges; DLOM/DLOC and control premiums; triangulation; and the value-destroyers checklist.
- 02 What Drives Business Value (White Paper). — The "*value created twice*" idea; Enterprise Value = Adjusted EBITDA × Exit Multiple; the three pillars (financial quality, revenue defensibility, transferability); KPI definitions; the net-proceeds and working-capital-peg concepts; the value dashboard, leadership checklist, and value-building action plan; and the benchmarking-resource guidance.
- 03 Top Four Business Valuation Methodologies. — Method-level detail and formulas for DCF, Comparable Company Analysis, Precedent Transactions, and Asset-Based valuation (perpetuity growth and present-value formulas; EV/EBITDA, EV/Revenue, P/E, P/B).

- 04 Peter Collins, How to Enhance the Value of Your Most Important Asset – Your Business (TEC/Vistage speaker presentation summary). – The six-step business-analysis model; margin and key-ratio analysis; the Altman Z-Score; definitions of value; "*exit is a process, not an event*"; and the buyer's-eye list of what commands a premium or a discount.
- 05 Han Smit and Dan Lovallo, "*Creating More Accurate Acquisition Valuations*," MIT Sloan Management Review, Fall 2014 (Vol. 56, No. 1). – Behavioral biases in hot vs. cold deal markets; the 50–80% horizon-value insight; entry/exit-multiple consistency checks; and the discipline of running benchmark checks after a DCF.
- 06 Business Valuation Report – Sample General Contractor (BizEquity, presented via UBS Financial Services). – The four estimates of value (asset, equity, enterprise, liquidation); the KPI catalog and industry-benchmarking format; and the size-effect / size-premium value map.
- 07 Business Valuation Playbook for Vistage Chairs (Vistage Transaction Center). – The annual-valuation cadence for members; the complimentary BizEquity valuation benefit for Vistage CE/SB members; and the group-meeting, one-to-one, and expert-session workflow.
- 08 Stock Purchase Letter of Intent – Sample. – Deal-structure mechanics: purchase price and escrow, the dollar-for-dollar working-capital adjustment, due-diligence scope, exclusivity/no-shop, and non-binding LOI terms.

External studies, reports, and data sources referenced within the above materials

- ◆ **IRS Revenue Ruling 59-60** – Foundational guidance for valuing closely held companies; source of the "inexact science" characterization and the caution against the "blind use of averages."
- ◆ **Lie, E. & Lie, H. (2002)** – Comparative study finding EBITDA-based multiples among the most accurate valuation multiples.
- ◆ **Pepperdine Private Capital Markets Report** – Private-company multiples, capital availability, and cost-of-capital survey data.
- ◆ **GF Data** – Lower-middle-market private-equity transaction multiples and leverage benchmarks.
- ◆ **IBBA / M&A Source Market Pulse** – Quarterly deal trends by size band and market segment.
- ◆ **DealStats (Business Valuation Resources)** – Private-company transaction comparables database.
- ◆ **RMA Annual Statement Studies** – Industry financial-ratio benchmarks from private-company statements.
- ◆ **First Research / Vertical IQ** – Industry operating context and benchmark ranges.

- ◆ **PitchBook** — Broader private-market deal and performance benchmarks.
- ◆ **Aswath Damodaran (NYU Stern)** — Valuation datasets, cost-of-capital, and risk-premium frameworks.
- ◆ **Exit Planning Institute — Value Acceleration Methodology** — Framework for building transferable value ahead of a transaction.
- ◆ **Business Enterprise Institute — 9 Value Drivers framework** — Practitioner value-building priorities.
- ◆ **McKinsey (Rule of 40) and Morgan Stanley / Mauboussin** — Research linking recurring-revenue metrics, return on invested capital, and operating fundamentals to valuation multiples.
- ◆ **International Glossary of Business Valuation Terms** — Standard definitions (e.g., Fair Market Value) used across the profession.

Provider and data-source names above are the property of their respective owners and are listed for reference and further reading. Illustrative figures in this guide (sample multiples, the scenario table, and the size-effect map) are directional teaching examples, not appraisals of any specific company.

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