Income Statement and Balance Sheet Forecast

Marco Yuyuan Zhang *

December 27, 2024

Abstract

Financial statements are collections of interdependent fields that collectively illustrate a firm's financial position. A robust model for predicting financial statements should adhere to the identities established by accounting principles, such as the equation: assets = liabilities + equity. This report is organized as follows: Section 1 transforms a standard spreadsheet model of the balance sheet and income statement into a time series representation and implements this model using TensorFlow. Section 2 examines the model's performance and explores machine learning techniques that can enhance prediction accuracy.

^{*}PhD Candidate in Economics, HKU Business School, The University of Hong Kong. Email: marcoyzhang@gmail.com. This report is intended for the 2025 Machine Learning Center of Excellence Summer Associate – Time Series & Reinforcement Learning Internship at J.P. Morgan Chase.

A balance sheet consists of three important indicators that aggregate key information representing the financial positions of a firm: assets, liabilities, and equity. Balance sheet forecasting involves predicting the future values of all three variables as well as their important components such as current assets and retained earnings. The balance sheet is designed in a way such that the fundamental accounting identity – namely, assets = liabilities + equity – always holds. A reasonable forecast model should respect this and other accounting identities when making predictions. In other words, the predicted output should satisfies some constraints imposed by basic accounting principles.

Mathematically, a balance sheet can be represented by a *state-space* model:

$$y(t+1) = f(x(t), y(t)) + n(t)$$
(0.1)

where y(t) is a random vector that collects all fields of a balance sheet. For example, $y(t) = (\operatorname{assets}_t, \operatorname{liabilities}_t, \operatorname{equity}_t)'$ is the most simplified version of a balance sheet¹. x(t) represents a vector of exogenous variables such as net income and/or cash flow from external financing. Exogenous variables are those that affect the balance sheet but not included in it. n(t) is the noise term, reflecting the uncertainty in forecasting balance sheet fields. The forecasting function, denoted by $f(\cdot,\cdot)$, is the key element we aim to identify. It is crucial that the choice of $f(\cdot,\cdot)$ has to reflect all accounting identities in order to produce a reasonable predictive model.

Model 0.1 represents a one-step-ahead, multi-output problem which is straightforward to implement using Google's TensorFlow library in Python. The program, named model_v1.py, implements a financial forecasting model using deep learning techniques. It begins by reading financial statements for various companies and preprocessing the data to ensure completeness and consistency. The processed data is then scaled and divided into training and testing sets. A customized LSTM model is constructed to predict key financial metrics such as total equity based on historical data. This model utilizes a customized loss function designed to take accounting identities into account.

Income statement can also be modeled in a similar fashion. Apart from different target variables and accounting identities such as earnings, or net income = total revenue - total expenses, training an income statement model can be achieved by cloning the program for

¹By default, all vectors are column vectors

training a balance sheet model.

Balance sheet, income statement, and cash flow data are sourced from Yahoo Finance using the yfinance data API. I obtain the financial statements for all companies included in the S&P 500 index – stocks of 500 large companies listed on stock exchanges in the United States and one of the most widely tracked stock index around the world. S&P 500 has a large concentration in blue chip stocks in the technology sector. In other words, a big fraction of companies in S&P 500 are industry-leading tech giants that have more stable financial health compared with small and medium cap companies. A notable data limitation is that the yfinance API only allows users to retrieve historical data of financial statements within the recent 4 years. Model implementation has to take the short history into account. Given this limitation, each company will provide 3 data points in the training process and the model is trained to make one-year-ahead prediction based on the historical data in the past 3 years.

Model performances are evaluated based on several metrics, including mean squared error (MSE), root mean squared error (RMSE), mean absolute error (MAE), and mean absolute percentage error (MAPE). Moreover, the mean squared error and mean absolute error for accounting identities are provided as another dimension of model evaluation. These additional metrics check whether a model respects the specified accounting identities.

I adopt Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks, a variant in the class of recurrent neural networks (RNNs), to improve the modeling of balance sheets and income statements. LSTMs excel at analyzing time series data because they are able to capture patterns in historical financial variables like revenue and expenses. By learning from past data, LSTMs can provide more accurate forecasts of future financial performance.

Finally, enforcing a model to follow accounting identities come at the expenses of some predictive power. I compare the trained LSTM model with a simple random walk model which takes the observation from the last period as the forecast. The random walk model scores higher in model performance but its forecasts do not satisfy accounting identities. In other words, unsophisticated models that do not explicitly take accounting identities into account have an unfair advantage in forecast competitions. A reasonable model evaluation procedure should take this caveat into account.

Literature. Velez-Pareja (2010, 2011) provides a detailed description of the accounting identities built in standard financial statements. This balance sheet model formalizes the

spreadsheet model in Velez-Pareja (2010) and Velez-Pareja (2011) as a time series representation and applied machine learning techniques to improve its predictability.

1 Model

A simplified balance sheet model comprises only four key equations: three that govern the evolution of total assets, liabilities, and equity, and one that represents the fundamental accounting identity: assets = liabilities + equity.

Total assets $_{t+1}$

$$= f_1 \left[\text{Total assets}_t, \text{Total liabilities}_t, \text{Total equity}_t, \text{Net income}_t, \text{Operating cash flow}_t \right] + n_1(t)$$

$$(1.1)$$

Total liabilities $_{t+1}$

$$= f_2 \left[\text{Total assets}_t, \text{Total liabilities}_t, \text{Total equity}_t, \text{Net income}_t, \text{Operating cash flow}_t \right] + n_2(t)$$
(1.2)

Total equity $_{t+1}$

$$= f_3 \left[\text{Total assets}_t, \text{Total liabilities}_t, \text{Total equity}_t, \text{Net income}_t, \text{Operating cash flow}_t \right] + n_3(t)$$

$$(1.3)$$

$$Total assets_t = Total liabilities_t + Total equity_t$$
 (1.4)

This four-equation balance sheet model can be easily cast into Model 0.1 where

$$y(t) = \begin{pmatrix} \text{Total assets}_t \\ \text{Total liabilities}_t \\ \text{Total equity}_t \end{pmatrix}$$

and x(t) consists of net income (from income statement) and operating cash flow (from cash flow statement). The hypothesis posits that lagged values of both y(t) and x(t) are useful for predicting y(t).

Forecasting Earnings. Likewise, earnings can also be forecasted with a state-space model. ² To illustrate, I propose a four-equation income statement model much like the four-equation balance sheet model:

Revenues_{t+1} =
$$f_1$$
 [Revenues_t, Expenses_t, Net Income_t, Total assets_t, Operating cash flow_t] + $n_1(t)$ (1.5)

²Earnings, or net income, is defined as profits after all expenses, taxes, and costs have been deducted from total revenue. Henceforth, earnings and net income are used interchangeably.

Model Loss Curve

1.0 - Training Loss Validation Loss

0.8 - 0.4 - 0.2 - 0.2 - 0.9 - 0.0 -

Figure 1: Balance Sheet Model Loss Curve: LSTM

Expenses_{t+1}

$$= f_2 \left[\text{Revenues}_t, \text{Expenses}_t, \text{Net Income}_t, \text{Total assets}_t, \text{Operating cash flow}_t \right] + n_1(t)$$
(1.6)

Epochs

Net
$$income_{t+1} = f_3$$
 [Revenues_t, Expenses_t, Net $Income_t$, Total $assets_t$, Operating $cash flow_t$]
+ $n_1(t)$ (1.7)

$$Net Income_t = Revenues_t - Expenses_t$$
 (1.8)

Constraint 1.8 reflects the definition of net income, which is the difference between revenues and expenses. Appendix B specifies a comprehensive model that contains all detailed fields from a balance sheet, an income statement, a cash flow statement, and intermediate tables that are used to produce them (such as loan schedules). This model is the same as the spreadsheet model outlined by Velez-Pereja (2010).

Implementation in TensorFlow. The program begins by importing necessary libraries, including TensorFlow for deep learning and PyTickerSymbols to fetch ticker symbols. The script defines functions to retrieve financial statements (balance sheet, income statement, and cash flow) for each ticker and preprocesses this data by merging the statements, handling missing values, and converting figures to billions of USD. Key features and targets for modeling are specified, and valid tickers are filtered based on the presence of required data. The

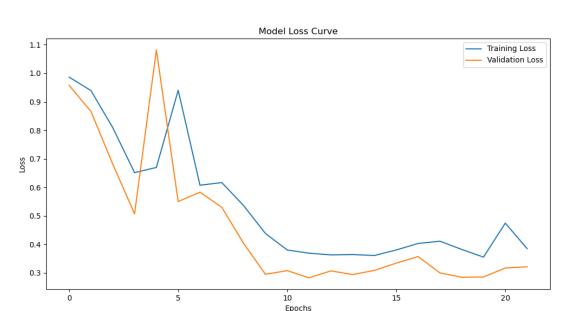


Figure 2: Income Statement Model Loss Curve: LSTM

program then constructs a dataset for training a Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) model to predict financial outcomes, while also implementing a custom loss function that ensures the accounting equation (e.g., Total Assets = Total Liabilities + Equity) is satisfied. An early stopping will be triggered if the validation losses no longer improve after iterating over 10 consecutive epchos. Figure 1 and 2 depicts the loss functions for the balance sheet and income statement model, respectively. After training the model, it evaluates performance using several metrics, such as mean squared error and R-squared, and compares the results with a simple random walk model. Finally, the script exports the evaluation metrics to a CSV file for further analysis.

The LSTM model consists of four layersL

- Layer 1: The first layer consists of 128 LSTM units with a ReLU activation function. This layer captures temporal dependencies in the input data, allowing the model to learn patterns over time.
- Layer 2: The second layer has 64 LSTM units, further refining the model's ability to learn complex sequences.
- **Dense Layer:** A fully connected layer with 64 units follows, providing additional processing before the output.

<u>Table 1: Model Evaluation: Balance Sheet</u> **LSTM** Random Walk Metric **MSE** 65.22 785.96 7.76 **RMSE** 26.62 4.78 MAE 13.17 **MAPE** 1.55 0.420.82 0.98 R-squared MSE Constraint 13.83 0 MAE Constraint 0 1.84

Table 2: Model Evaluation: Income Statement

Metric	LSTM	Random Walk
MSE	750.83	206.85
RMSE	24.88	12.99
MAE	14.44	6.11
MAPE	2.19	0.8
R-squared	0.53	0.87
MSE Constraint	0	26.96
MAE Constraint	0	2.56

• Output Layer: The final layer outputs predictions for the specified targets, which include fields such as total assets and liabilities.

2 Evaluation

Model performances are evaluated based on multiple metrics. The first set of metrics provide evaluation in traditional sense by calculating the standardized forecast errors on the testing set. I split the training-testing set by 80-20. For mean squared error (MSE), root mean squared error (RMSE), mean absolute error (MAE), and mean absolute percentage error (MAPE), smaller values indicate smaller forecast errors which are favorable. Higher R-squared means better goodness-of-fit. The second set of metrics evaluate to what extend the model's forecast respect accounting identities. A lower MSE and/or MAE for accounting constraint means the model's output are closer to following the specified identity. If the identity hold exactly, the MSE and MAE for the accounting constraint should be precisely 0.

The machine learning models for financial statements obtain decent performances in the testing sets. Table 1 and Table 2 presents the model performances for the balance sheet and income statement model. In both cases, the LSTM model is compared with a benchmark

random walk model. The MAPEs for the LSTM balance sheet model is 1.55% and for the LSTM income statement model is 2.19%. This result suggests that, on average, the forecast miss the actual value by only 2 percent. Moreover, it is worth point out that both model respect the corresponding accounting identities, as indicated by the MSE and MAE for constraint in the last two rows.

Nonetheless, adhering to accounting identities can reduce predictive power. In my comparison, the trained LSTM model was outperformed by a simple random walk model in the traditional metrics. The caveat is that while the random walk model achieved higher performances, it does not comply with accounting identities. This highlights that simpler models, which ignore these identities, may have an unfair advantage in forecasting competitions. Therefore, a comprehensive model evaluation should consider this limitation.

Reference

Velez-Pareja, I. (2010). Constructing Consistent Financial Planning Models for Valuation. IIMS Journal of Management of Science, 1.

Vélez-Pareja, I. (2011). Forecasting Financial Statements with No Plugs and No Circularity. The IUP Journal of Accounting Research & Audit Practices, 10(1).

Appendix

A Question 2: Income Statement and Balance Sheet Forecast

Part 1

- 1) We would like to forecast the balance sheet of a company. Unfortunately, the different fields of a balance sheet are not independent. Hence we have to construct a model that respects these identities. For a short introduction to the problem, please consider the papers Velez-Pareja(09) and Velez-Pareja(10). For a much more detailed exposition of the problem, please consult Shahnazarian(04) and the textbook "Financial Forecasting, Analysis and Modelling" by Samonas, as well as other standard accounting textbooks.
- 2) Construct a very simple model of the balance sheet based on the tools of Velez-Pareja(09) and Velez-Pareja(10). Please write down the mathematical equations governing the evolution of the fields of balance sheet. Is it possible to model this problem as a time series? How do we handle the accounting identities?
 - 3) Implement the model in TensorFlow and Python.
- 4) You can get income statement and balance sheet data from Yahoo Finance. This blog post may help you: https://rfachrizal.medium.com/how-to-obtain-financial-statements-from-s
- 5) Choose some companies to apply your model to. How are you going to train your model? How can you test if your model is good at forecasting the balance sheet of the company? How can you ensure that your forecast at least respects the accounting identities and at least satisfies the asset = liability + equity identity as other relationships stated in the papers quoted here?
 - 6) Can you use your model to forecast earnings?
 - 7) What are the ML techniques we can use to make your model better?
- 8) Hint: simulation is highly related to prediction. Suppose that you can simulate y(t+1) given y(t). The prediction problem is very simple to implement numerically. A general form of the model can be written as y(t+1) = f(x(t), y(t)) + n(t), where n(t) is some noise term to be specified, and x(t) are additional sets of variables that are relevant for the simulation. What should x(t) be?

Part 2

- a) Choose your favourite LLM to apply the problem of financial statement analysis.
- b) Let's try the task of balance sheet forecast using the same set of data as collected in part 1, does the LLM you picked perform better or worse than your model?
- c) Is it possible to combine your model in part 1 and LLM to create an ensemble model that performs better than the individual model in balance sheet forecast?
- d) Given the results of your analysis, pick a company you have analysed, what would you recommend to the CFO or CEO of this particular company given your results?

B Full Model

Table 2 Nominal increase

$$Selling_t = (1 + Inflation \ rate_t)(1 + Real \ increase \ in \ selling \ price_t) - 1 \tag{.1}$$

$$\operatorname{Purchasing}_t = (1 + \operatorname{Inflation} \, \operatorname{rate}_t)(1 + \operatorname{Real} \, \operatorname{increase} \, \operatorname{in} \, \operatorname{purchase} \, \operatorname{price}_t) - 1 \qquad \ (.2)$$

 $\label{eq:overhead} \text{Overhead expenses}_t = (1 + \text{Inflation rate}_t)(1 + \text{Real increase in overhead expenses}_t) - 1 \ \ \text{(.3)}$

 ${\bf Payroll\ expenses}_t = (1 + {\bf Inflation\ rate}_t)(1 + {\bf Real\ increase\ in\ payroll\ expenses}_t) - 1 \qquad (.4)$

$$\begin{cases} \text{Minimum cash required}_0 = \text{Minimum cash required for initial year} & t = 0 \\ \text{Minimum cash required}_t = \% \text{ of sales as } \cosh \times \text{Total sales}_t & t \geq 1 \end{cases}$$
 (.5)

Table 3 Forecasting volume, prices and sales revenues

Increase factor in volume_t =
$$1 + \text{Increase in sales volume (units)}_t$$
, $t \ge 1$ (.6)

$$\begin{cases} \text{Sales in units}_0 = b_0 \times \text{Price}^b & t = 0 \\ \text{Sales in units}_t = \text{Sales in units}_{t-1} \times \text{Increase factor in volume}_t & t \ge 1 \end{cases}$$

$$(.7)$$

$$\begin{cases} \text{Selling price}_0 = \text{selling price} & t = 0 \\ \text{Selling price}_t = \text{Selling price}_{t-1} \times (1 + \text{selling}_t) & t \ge 1 \end{cases} \tag{.8}$$

Total sales_t = Selling price_t × sales in units_t,
$$t \ge 1$$
 (.9)

Table 4 Forecasting Risk free rate and cost of debt and investment return

Risk free rate,
$$R_{f,t} = (1 + \text{inflation rate}_t)(1 + \text{Real interest rate}_t) - 1$$
 (.10)

Return on ST investment_t = Risk free rate, $R_{f,t}$ + Risk premium for return on ST investment_t (.11)

Cost of debt, $K_{d,t} = \text{Risk}$ free rate, $R_{f,t} + \text{Risk}$ premium for cost of debt_t (.12)

Table 5 Depreciation schedule and investment in fixed assets

Beginning Net fixed $assets_0 = 0$ Beginning Net fixed $assets_t = Beginning Net fixed <math>assets_{t-1} + New fixed assets_{t-1} - Annual depreciation (.13)$

$$\begin{cases} \text{Annual depreciation for investment in year } 0_1 = \frac{\text{New fixed assets}_0}{\text{Lineal depreciation (4 years)}} & t = \\ \text{Annual depreciation for investment in year } 0_t = \text{Annual depreciation for investment in year } 0_1 & t = \\ & (.14) \end{cases}$$

Annual depreciation for investment in year $1_2 = \frac{\text{New fixed assets}_1}{\text{Lineal depreciation (4 years)}}$ t=2Annual depreciation for investment in year $1_t = \text{Annual depreciation for investment in year } 1_t = 3$ (.15)

Annual depreciation for investment in year $2_3 = \frac{\text{New fixed assets}_2}{\text{Lineal depreciation (4 years)}}$ Annual depreciation for investment in year $2_t = \text{Annual depreciation for investment in year } 2_t = 2_t$

 $\label{eq:Annual depreciation for investment in year 3} {4} = \frac{\text{New fixed assets}_3}{\text{Lineal depreciation (4 years)}}$ (.17)

Annual depreciation
$$_0 = 0$$
 $t = 0$

Annual depreciation $_0=0$ t=0 Annual depreciation $_t=\sum_{k=\max(0,t-4)}^{t-1}$ Annual depreciation for investment in year k_t $t\geq 1$ (.18)

 $\label{eq:cumulated} \textbf{Cumulated depreciation}_{t-1} + \textbf{Annual depreciation}_{t+1}$

(not available for the last period)

$$\begin{cases} \text{Investment to keep fixed assets constant}_{-1} = \text{Fixed assets}_{0} & t = 0 \\ \text{Investment to keep fixed assets constant}_{t} = \text{Annual depreciation}_{t+1} & t \geq 1 \end{cases} \tag{.20}$$

(up to second last period)

Investment in fixed assets for growth_t = Net fixed assets_{t-1}×Increase in sales volume (units)_{t+1} (.21)

New fixed assets t = Investment in fixed assets for growth t + Investment to keep fixed assets constant t_{t-1} (.22)

Net fixed assets_t = Beginning Net fixed assets_t + New fixed assets_t - Annual depreciation_t (.23)

Table 6a Inventory and purchases in units

Units
$$sold_t = Sales in units_t$$
 (.24)

$$\begin{cases} \text{Final inv.}_0 = \text{Initial investing (units)}_0 & t = 0 \\ \text{Final inv.}_t = \text{Units sold}_t \times \text{Inventory as \% of volume in units sold}_t & t \ge 1 \end{cases}$$

$$(.25)$$

In.
$$inv._t = Final inv._{t-1}$$
 (.26)

$$Purchases_t = Units sold_t + Final inv._t - In. inv._t$$
 (.27)

Table 6b Inventory valuation and cost of goods sold in dollars

$$\begin{cases} \text{Unit } \cos t_0 = \text{Initial purchase price}_0 & t = 0 \\ \text{Unit } \cos t_t = \text{Unit } \cos t_{t-1} \times (1 + \text{Purchasing}_t) & t \geq 1 \end{cases}$$
 (.28)

In.
$$inv_{t} = Final\ inv_{t-1}$$
 (.29)

$$Purchases_t = Purchases_t \times unit cost_t \quad (purchase on RHS is unit)$$
 (.30)

Final inv._t = Unit
$$cost_t \times Final inv._t$$
 (.31)

$$COGS_t = In. inv._t + Purchases_t - Final inv._t$$
 (.32)

Table 7 Administrative and selling A&S expenses

$$Sales commissions_t = Total sales_t \times Selling commissions_{t-1}$$
 (.33)

$$\begin{cases} \text{Overhead expenses}_0 = \text{Estimated overhead expenses}_0 & t = 0 \\ \text{Overhead expenses}_t = \text{Overhead expenses}_{t-1} \times (1 + \text{Overhead expenses}_t) & t \geq 1 \end{cases}$$
 (.34)

$$\begin{cases} \text{Payroll expenses}_0 = \text{Administrative and sales payroll} & t = 0 \\ \text{Payroll expenses}_t = \text{Payroll expenses}_{t-1} \times (1 + \text{Payroll expenses}_t) & t \ge 1 \end{cases}$$
 (.35)

$$Advertising \ expenses_t = Total \ sales_t \times Promotion \ and \ advertising \ as \ a \ fraction \ of \ sales$$

$$(.36)$$

A & S expenses_{$$t$$} = Sales commissions _{t} +Overhead expenses _{t} +Payroll expenses _{t} +Advertising expenses _{t} (.37)

Table 8a Sales and purchases disaggregated according to the timing of flows

Total sales revenues_t = Total sales_t
$$(.38)$$

Inflow from current year_t = Total sales_t \times (1 – Account receivable as % of sales – advanced payment from (.39)

Credit sales_t = Total sales revenues_t \times Account receivable as % of sales (.40)

Payment in advance_t = Total sales revenues_t×advanced payment from customers as % of next year sale (.41)

 $Total purchases_t = Purchases_t \tag{.42}$

Purchases paid the same $year_0 = Total \ purchases_0$ Purchases paid the same $year_t = Total \ purchases \times (1 - Accounts \ payable \ as \% \ of \ purchases - Adva (.43)$

Purchases on $\operatorname{credit}_0 = \operatorname{Purchases}_0 - \operatorname{Purchases}$ paid the same $\operatorname{year}_0 \qquad t = 0$ Purchases on $\operatorname{credit}_t = \operatorname{Total} \operatorname{purchases}_t \times \operatorname{Account}$ payable as % of purchases $t \geq 1$ (.44)

Payment in $advance_t = Total purchases_t \times Advance payments to suppliers as a % of next year purchases (.45)$

Table 8b Flows from sales and purchases

Sales revenues from current $year_t = Inflow from current year_t$ (.46)

Account Receivable_{$$t$$} = Credit sales _{$t-1$} (.47)

$$Advance payments_t = Payment in advance_{t+1}$$
 (.48)

Total inflows_t = Account Receivable_t+Sales revenue from current year_t+Advance payments_t (.49)

Purchases paid the current $year_t = Purchases paid the same <math>year_t$ (.50)

Payment of Accounts Payable_t = Purchases on credit_{t-1} (.51)

Table 9a Cash budget module 1 operating activities

Inflows from sales_t = Total inflows_t (.52)

Total inflows_t = Inflows from sales_t (.53)

Payments for purchases_t = Total outflows_t (.54)

Administrative and Selling expenses_t = A&S expenses_t (.55)

 $Income taxes_t = Income Taxes_t$ (.56)

(RHS from table 12)

Total cash outflows_t = Payments for purchases_t+Administrative and selling expenses_t+Income Taxes_t (.57)

Operating
$$NCB_t = Total inflows_t - Total cash outflows_t$$
 (.58)

net cash balance NCB

Table 9b Cash budget module 2 investing activities

Investment in fixed assets_{$$t$$} = New fixed assets _{t} (.59)

NCB of investment in assets_{$$t$$} = $-$ Investment in fixed assets _{t} (.60)

NCB after
$$Capex_t = NCB$$
 of investment in $assets_t + operating NCB_t$ (.61)

Table 9c Cash budget module 3 external financing

$$ST Loan_{t} = \begin{cases} 0 \\ - \text{(cumulated NCB}_{t-1} + \text{Operating NCB}_{t} - \text{Total ST loan payment}_{t} - \text{Minimum cash required} \end{cases}$$

$$(.62)$$

$$LT Loan_{t} = \begin{cases} 0 \\ - \text{(cumulated NCB}_{t-1} + \text{NCB after Capex}_{t} + \text{ST Loan}_{t} - \text{Total loan payment}_{t} - \text{Payments} \end{cases}$$
(.63)

$$Principal ST Loan_{t} = ST loan_{t-1}$$
 (.64)

$$Interest ST loan_t = IP_t$$
 (.65)

(from Table 11a)

$$Interest LT loan_t = Total Interest_t (from Table 11b) (.68)$$

Total loan payment_t = Total ST loan payment_t + Principal LT loan_t + Interest LT loan_t (.69)

NCB of financing activities_t =
$$ST loan_t + LT loan_t - Total loan payment_t$$
 (.70)

Table 9d Cash budget module 4 transactions with owners

$$IE_t = \frac{LT \log_t}{\% \text{ of financing with debt, the rest is financed by equity}} \times (1 - \% \text{ of financing with debt, the rest is financed})$$
(.71)

$$Div_t = \text{Next year dividends}_{t-1}$$
 (.72)

 $RS_t = \text{Annual depreciation}_t \times \text{Stock Repurchases as a % of depreciation}_t$ (.73)

Payments to owners_t =
$$Div_t + RS_t$$
 (.74)

NCB with owners_t =
$$IE_t$$
 – Payments to owners_t (.75)

NCB of previous $modules_t = NCB$ with $owners_t + NCB$ of financing activities $_t + NCB$ after $Capex_t$ (.76)

Table 9e Cash budget module 5 discretionary transactions

Return from ST Investments_t = Return on ST Investments_t \times Redemption of ST Investments_t (.78)

Total inflow from ST Investments_t = Return from ST Investments_t+Redemption of ST Investments_t (.79)

$$ST Investments_{t} = \begin{cases} 0 \\ Cumulatively NCB_{t-1} + NCB \text{ of previous modules}_{t} + Total \text{ inflow from ST Investration} \end{cases}$$

$$(.80)$$

NCB of discretionary transactions $_t$ = Total inflow from ST Investments $_t$ – ST Investments $_t$ (.81)

Year $NCB_t = NCB$ at previous $modules_t + NCB$ of discretionary transactions_t (.82)

 $\mbox{Cumulated NCB} = \mbox{Minimum required } \mbox{cash}_{t-1} \eqno(.83)$

Table 10 Checking the cumulated NCB and the minimum cash target

Check with MCT = Calculated Cumulated NCB_t - Minimum cash require_t (.85)

Table 11a Short-term loan schedules

$$BB_t = EB_{t-1} \tag{.86}$$

$$IP_t = EB_{t-1} \times Kd_t \tag{.87}$$

$$PP_{t} = \frac{EB_{t-1}}{Short-term loan 2 (1 year)}$$
 (.88)

$$\begin{cases} EB_0 = ST \log n_0 \\ EB_t = EB_{t-1} - PP_t + ST \log n_t & t \ge 1 \end{cases}$$
 (.89)

$$Kd_t = Cost \text{ of debt, } Kd_t$$
 (.90)

Table 11b Long-term loan schedules

$$BB LT debt_t = EB LT debt_{t-1}$$
 (.91)

$$LT loan yr 0 = LT loan_0 (.92)$$

$$\begin{cases} \text{PP loan yr } 0_1 = \frac{\text{LT loan yr } 0}{\text{Long-term (LT) years Loan 3 (M years)}} & t = 1 \\ \text{PP loan yr } 0_t = \text{PP loan yr } 0_1 & t \geq 2 \end{cases} \tag{.93}$$

New loan
$$yr 1 = LT loan_1$$
 (.94)

$$\begin{cases} \text{PP loan yr 1}_2 = \frac{\text{New loan yr 1}}{\text{Long-term (LT) years Loan 3 (M years)}} & t = 2 \\ \text{PP loan yr 1}_t = \text{PP loan yr 1}_2 & t \geq 3 \end{cases} \tag{.95}$$

New loan yr
$$2 = LT loan_2$$
 (.96)

$$\begin{cases} \text{PP loan yr 2}_3 = \frac{\text{New loan yr 2}}{\text{Long-term (LT) years Loan 3 (M years)}} & t = 3 \\ \text{PP loan yr 2}_t = \text{PP loan yr 2}_3 & t \ge 4 \end{cases} \tag{.97}$$

New loan yr
$$3 = LT loan_3$$
 (.98)

$$\begin{cases} \text{PP loan yr 3}_4 = \frac{\text{New loan yr 3}}{\text{Long-term (LT) years Loan 3 (M years)}} & t = 4 \\ \text{PP loan yr 3}_t = \text{PP loan yr 3}_4 & t \ge 5 \end{cases} \tag{.99}$$

New loan yr
$$4 = LT loan_4$$
 (.100)

Total Interest_t = EB LT debt_{t-1} × Kd_t
$$t \ge 1$$
 (.101)

New debt
$$LT_t = New loan yr t$$
 (.102)

Total PP LT_t =
$$\sum_{k=0}^{t}$$
 PP loan year k (.103)

$$EB LT debt_t = BB LT debt_t + New debt LT_t - Total PP LT_t$$
 (.104)

Table 12 Income Statement

Sales revenues_{$$t$$} = Total sales _{t} (.105)

$$COGS_t = COGS_t (.106)$$

RHS from Table 6b

$$Gross Income_t = Sales revenues_t - COGS_t$$
 (.107)

$$A\&S expenses_t = A\&S expenses_t$$
 (.108)

RHS from Table 7

$$Depreciation_t = Annual depreciation_t (.109)$$

$$EBIT_t = Gross Income_t - A&S expenses_t - Depreciation_t$$
 (.110)

$$Interest payments_t = Total interest_{t+IP_t}$$
 (.111)

RHS from Table 9e

$$EBT_t = EBIT_t + Return from ST investment_t - Interest payments_t$$
 (.113)

$$Income Taxes_{t} = \begin{cases} 0 & EBT_{t} \leq 0 \\ EBT_{t} \times Corporate tax rate & otherwise \end{cases}$$
 (.114)

$$Net Income_t = EBT_t - Income Taxes_t$$
 (.115)

Next year Dividends_t = Net Income_t
$$\times$$
 Payout ratio (.116)

$$CRE_t = CRE_{t-1} + Net Income_{t-1} + Next year Dividends_{t-1}$$
 (.117)

Table 13 The Balance Sheet

$$Cash CB_t = Cumulated NCB_t$$
 (.118)

$$AR IT_t = Credit sales_t (.119)$$

Inventory
$$IT_t = Final inv._t$$
 (.120)

$$APP_t = Advance payment to suppliers_t$$
 (.121)

ST investment
$$CB_t = ST$$
 investments._t (.122)

$$Current \ assets_t = Cash \ CB_t + AR \ IT_t + Inventory \ IT_t + APP_t + ST \ investment \ CB_t \quad (.123)$$

Net fixed assets
$$IT_t = Net fixed assets_t$$
 (.124)

$$Total_t = Net fixed assets IT_t + Current assets_t$$
 (.125)

$$AP IT_t = Purchases on credit_t$$
 (.126)

$$APR_t = Advance payments_t (.127)$$

Short-term debt
$$CB_t = EB_t$$
 (.128)

$$Long-term debt CB_t = EB LT debt_t$$
 (.130)

Total Liabilities_t = Long-term debt
$$CB_t + Current \ liabilities_t$$
 (.131)

Equity investment
$$CB_t = Equity$$
 investment $CB_{t-1} + IE_t$ (.132)

Retained earnings
$$IS_t = CRE_t$$
 (.133)

Current year
$$NI_t = Net Income_t$$
 (.134)

 $\label{eq:linear_linear_linear} \mbox{Liabilities and equity}_t = \mbox{Equity investment CB}_t + \mbox{Retained earnings IS}_t + \mbox{Current year NI}_t + \mbox{Repurchase}$ $\mbox{(.136)}$

$$Check_t = Liabilities and equity_t - Total_t$$
 (.137)