

Accounting Standards

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Accounting Standard – 1, Disclosure of Accounting Policies (issued in 1979)

*(This Accounting Standard includes **paragraphs 24-27** set in **bold italic** type and **paragraphs 1-23** set in plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)*

The following is the text of the Accounting Standard (AS) 1 issued by the Accounting Standards Board, the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India on Disclosure of Accounting Policies'. The Standard deals with the disclosure of significant accounting policies followed in preparing and presenting financial statements.

In the initial years, this accounting standard will be recommendatory in character. During this period, this standard is recommended for use by companies listed on a recognised stock exchange and other large commercial, industrial and business enterprises in the public and private sectors.

Introduction

1. This statement deals with the disclosure of significant accounting policies followed in preparing and presenting financial statements.
2. The view presented in the financial statements of an enterprise of its state of affairs and of the profit or loss can be significantly affected by the accounting policies followed in the preparation and presentation of the financial statements. The accounting policies followed vary from enterprise to enterprise. Disclosure of significant accounting policies followed is necessary if the view presented is to be properly appreciated.
3. The disclosure of some of the accounting policies followed in the preparation and presentation of the financial statements is required by law in some cases.
4. The Institute of Chartered Accountants of India has, in Statements issued by it, recommended the disclosure of certain accounting policies, e.g., translation policies in respect of foreign currency items.
5. In recent years, a few enterprises in India have adopted the practice of including in their annual reports to shareholders a separate statement of accounting policies followed in preparing and presenting the financial statements.
6. In general, however, accounting policies are not at present regularly and fully disclosed in all financial statements. Many enterprises include in the Notes on the Accounts, descriptions of some of the significant accounting policies. But the nature and degree of disclosure vary considerably between the corporate and the non-corporate sectors and between units in the same sector.
7. Even among the few enterprises that presently include in their annual reports a separate statement of accounting policies, considerable variation exists. The statement of accounting policies forms part of accounts in some cases while in others it is given as supplementary information.
8. The purpose of this Statement is to promote better understanding of financial statements by establishing through an accounting standard the disclosure of significant accounting policies and the manner in which accounting policies are disclosed in the financial statements. Such disclosure would also facilitate a more meaningful comparison between financial statements of different enterprises.

Explanation

Fundamental Accounting Assumptions

9. Certain fundamental accounting assumptions underlie the preparation and presentation of financial statements. They are usually not specifically stated because their acceptance and use are assumed. Disclosure is necessary if they are not followed.
10. The following have been generally accepted as fundamental accounting assumptions:—
 - A. **Going Concern**
The enterprise is normally viewed as a going concern, that is, as continuing in operation for the foreseeable future. It is assumed that the enterprise has neither the intention nor the necessity of liquidation or of curtailing materially the scale of the operations.
 - B. **Consistency**
It is assumed that accounting policies are consistent from one period to another.
 - C. **Accrual**
Revenues and costs are accrued, that is, recognised as they are earned or incurred (and not as money is received or paid) and recorded in the financial statements of the periods to which they relate. (The considerations affecting the process of matching costs with revenues under the accrual assumption are not dealt with in this Statement.)

Nature of Accounting Policies

11. The accounting policies refer to the specific accounting principles and the methods of applying those principles adopted by the enterprise in the preparation and presentation of financial statements.
12. There is no single list of accounting policies which are applicable to all circumstances. The differing circumstances in which enterprises operate in a situation of diverse and complex economic activity make alternative accounting principles and methods of applying those principles acceptable. The choice of the appropriate accounting principles and the methods of applying those principles in the specific circumstances of each enterprise calls for considerable judgement by the management of the enterprise.
13. The various statements of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India combined with the efforts of government and other regulatory agencies and progressive managements have reduced in recent years the number of acceptable alternatives particularly in the case of corporate enterprises. While continuing efforts in this regard in future are likely to reduce the number still further, the availability of alternative accounting principles and methods of applying those principles is not likely to be eliminated altogether in view of the differing circumstances faced by the enterprises.

Areas in which Differing Accounting Policies are Encountered

14. The following are examples of the areas in which different accounting policies may be adopted by different enterprises.
 - ✍ Methods of depreciation, depletion and amortization
 - ✍ Treatment of expenditure during construction
 - ✍ Conversion or translation of foreign currency items
 - ✍ Valuation of inventories
 - ✍ Treatment of goodwill
 - ✍ Valuation of investments
 - ✍ Treatment of retirement benefits
 - ✍ Recognition of profit on long-term contracts

- ✍ Valuation of fixed assets
 - ✍ Treatment of contingent liabilities.
15. The above list of examples is not intended to be exhaustive.

Considerations in the Selection of Accounting Policies

16. The primary consideration in the selection of accounting policies by an enterprise is that the financial statements prepared and presented on the basis of such accounting policies should represent a true and fair view of the state of affairs of the enterprise as at the balance sheet date and of the profit or loss for the period ended on that date.
17. For this purpose, the major considerations governing the selection and application of accounting policies are:—
- A. Prudence
In view of the uncertainty attached to future events, profits are not anticipated but recognised only when realised though not necessarily in cash. Provision is made for all known liabilities and losses even though the amount cannot be determined with certainty and represents only a best estimate in the light of available information.
 - B. Substance over Form
The accounting treatment and presentation in financial statements of transactions and events should be governed by their substance and not merely by the legal form.
 - C. Materiality
Financial statements should disclose all “material” items, i.e. items the knowledge of which might influence the decisions of the user of the financial statements.

Disclosure of Accounting Policies

18. To ensure proper understanding of financial statements, it is necessary that all significant accounting policies adopted in the preparation and presentation of financial statements should be disclosed.
19. Such disclosure should form part of the financial statements.
20. It would be helpful to the reader of financial statements if they are all disclosed as such in one place instead of being scattered over several statements, schedules and notes.
21. Examples of matters in respect of which disclosure of accounting policies adopted will be required are contained in paragraph 14. This list of examples is not, however, intended to be exhaustive.
22. Any change in an accounting policy which has a material effect should be disclosed. The amount by which any item in the financial statements is affected by such change should also be disclosed to the extent ascertainable. Where such amount is not ascertainable, wholly or in part, the fact should be indicated. If a change is made in the accounting policies which has no material effect on the financial statements for the current period but which is reasonably expected to have a material effect in later periods, the fact of such change should be appropriately disclosed in the period in which the change is adopted.
23. Disclosure of accounting policies or of changes therein cannot remedy a wrong or inappropriate treatment of the item in the accounts.

Accounting Standard

- 24. All significant accounting policies adopted in the preparation and presentation of financial statements should be disclosed.**

- 25. The disclosure of the significant accounting policies as such should form part of the financial statements and the significant accounting policies should normally be disclosed in one place.**
- 26. Any change in the accounting policies which has a material effect in the current period or which is reasonably expected to have a material effect in later periods should be disclosed. In the case of a change in accounting policies which has a material effect in the current period, the amount by which any item in the financial statements is affected by such change should also be disclosed to the extent ascertainable. Where such amount is not ascertainable, wholly or in part, the fact should be indicated.**
- 27. If the fundamental accounting assumptions, viz. Going Concern, Consistency and Accrual are followed in financial statements, specific disclosure is not required. If a fundamental accounting assumption is not followed, the fact should be disclosed.**

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Accounting Standard – 2, Valuation of Inventories (issued in June, 1981; revised in 1999)

(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in **bold italic** type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)

The following is the text of the revised Accounting Standard (AS) 2, Valuation of Inventories', issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India. This revised Standard supersedes Accounting Standard (AS) 2, Valuation of Inventories', issued in June, 1981.

The revised standard comes into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1.4.1999 and is mandatory in nature.

Objective

A primary issue in accounting for inventories is the determination of the value at which inventories are carried in the financial statements until the related revenues are recognised. This Statement deals with the determination of such value, including the ascertainment of cost of inventories and any write-down thereof to net realisable value.

Scope

1. ***This Statement should be applied in accounting for inventories other than:***
 - A. ***work in progress arising under construction contracts, including directly related service contracts (see Accounting Standard (AS) 7, Accounting for Construction Contracts)***
 - B. ***work in progress arising in the ordinary course of business of service providers;***
 - C. ***shares, debentures and other financial instruments held as stock-in-trade; and***
 - D. ***producers' inventories of livestock, agricultural and forest products, and mineral oils, ores and gases to the extent that they are measured at net realisable value in accordance with well established practices in those industries.***
2. The inventories referred to in paragraph 1 (d) are measured at net realizable value at certain stages of production. This occurs, for example, when agricultural crops have been harvested or mineral oils, ores and gases have been extracted and sale is assured under a forward contract or a government guarantee, or when a homogenous market exists and there is a negligible risk of failure to sell. These inventories are excluded from the scope of this Statement.

Definitions

3. ***The following terms are used in this Statement with the meanings specified:***

Inventories are assets:

- a. ***held for sale in the ordinary course of business;***
- b. ***in the process of production for such sale; or***

- c. ***in the form of materials or supplies to be consumed in the production process or in the rendering of services.***

Net realisable value is the estimated selling price in the ordinary course of business less the estimated costs of completion and the estimated costs necessary to make the sale.

4. Inventories encompass goods purchased and held for resale, for example, merchandise purchased by a retailer and held for resale, computer software held for resale, or land and other property held for resale. Inventories also encompass finished goods produced, or work in progress being produced, by the enterprise and include materials, maintenance supplies, consumables and loose tools awaiting use in the production process. Inventories do not include machinery spares which can be used only in connection with an item of fixed asset and whose use is expected to be irregular; such machinery spares are accounted for in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 10, Accounting for Fixed Assets.

Measurement of Inventories

5. ***Inventories should be valued at the lower of cost and net realizable value.***

Cost of Inventories

6. ***The cost of inventories should comprise all costs of purchase, costs of conversion and other costs incurred in bringing the inventories to their present location and condition.***

Costs of Purchase

7. The costs of purchase consist of the purchase price including duties and taxes (other than those subsequently recoverable by the enterprise from the taxing authorities), freight inwards and other expenditure directly attributable to the acquisition. Trade discounts, rebates, duty drawbacks and other similar items are deducted in determining the costs of purchase.

Costs of Conversion

8. The costs of conversion of inventories include costs directly related to the units of production, such as direct labour. They also include a systematic allocation of fixed and variable production overheads that are incurred in converting materials into finished goods. Fixed production overheads are those indirect costs of production that remain relatively constant regardless of the volume of production, such as depreciation and maintenance of factory buildings and the cost of factory management and administration. Variable production overheads are those indirect costs of production that vary directly, or nearly directly, with the volume of production, such as indirect materials and indirect labour.
9. The allocation of fixed production overheads for the purpose of their inclusion in the costs of conversion is based on the normal capacity of the production facilities. Normal capacity is the production expected to be achieved on an average over a number of periods or seasons under normal circumstances, taking into account the loss of capacity resulting from planned maintenance. The actual level of production may be used if it approximates normal capacity. The amount of fixed production overheads allocated to each unit of production is not increased as a consequence of low production or idle plant. Unallocated overheads are recognised as an expense in the period in which they are incurred. In periods of abnormally high production, the amount of fixed

production overheads allocated to each unit of production is decreased so that inventories are not measured above cost. Variable production overheads are assigned to each unit of production on the basis of the actual use of the production facilities.

10. A production process may result in more than one product being produced simultaneously. This is the case, for example, when joint products are produced or when there is a main product and a by-product. When the costs of conversion of each product are not separately identifiable, they are allocated between the products on a rational and consistent basis. The allocation may be based, for example, on the relative sales value of each product either at the stage in the production process when the products become separately identifiable, or at the completion of production. Most by-products as well as scrap or waste materials, by their nature, are immaterial. When this is the case, they are often measured at net realizable value and this value is deducted from the cost of the main product. As a result, the carrying amount of the main product is not materially different from its cost.

Other Costs

11. Other costs are included in the cost of inventories only to the extent that they are incurred in bringing the inventories to their present location and condition. For example, it may be appropriate to include overheads other than production overheads or the costs of designing products for specific customers in the cost of inventories.
12. Interest and other borrowing costs are usually considered as not relating to bringing the inventories to their present location and condition and are, therefore, usually not included in the cost of inventories.

Exclusions from the Cost of Inventories

13. In determining the cost of inventories in accordance with paragraph 6, it is appropriate to exclude certain costs and recognise them as expenses in the period in which they are incurred. Examples of such costs are:
 - A. abnormal amounts of wasted materials, labour, or other production costs;
 - B. storage costs, unless those costs are necessary in the production process prior to a further production stage;
 - C. administrative overheads that do not contribute to bringing the inventories to their present location and condition; and
 - D. selling and distribution costs.

Cost Formulas

14. ***The cost of inventories of items that are not ordinarily interchangeable and goods or services produced and segregated for specific projects should be assigned by specific identification of their individual costs.***
15. Specific identification of cost means that specific costs are attributed to identified items of inventory. This is an appropriate treatment for items that are segregated for a specific project, regardless of whether they have been purchased or produced. However, when there are large numbers of items of inventory which are ordinarily interchangeable, specific identification of costs is inappropriate since, in such circumstances, an enterprise could obtain predetermined effects on the net profit or loss for the period by selecting a particular method of ascertaining the items that remain in inventories.
16. ***The cost of inventories, other than those dealt with in paragraph 14, should be assigned by using the first-in, first-out (FIFO), or weighted average cost formula. The formula used should reflect the fairest***

possible approximation to the cost incurred in bringing the items of inventory to their present location and condition.

17. A variety of cost formulas is used to determine the cost of inventories other than those for which specific identification of individual costs is appropriate. The formula used in determining the cost of an item of inventory needs to be selected with a view to providing the fairest possible approximation to the cost incurred in bringing the item to its present location and condition. The FIFO formula assumes that the items of inventory which were purchased or produced first are consumed or sold first, and consequently the items remaining in inventory at the end of the period are those most recently purchased or produced. Under the weighted average cost formula, the cost of each item is determined from the weighted average of the cost of similar items at the beginning of a period and the cost of similar items purchased or produced during the period. The average may be calculated on a periodic basis, or as each additional shipment is received, depending upon the circumstances of the enterprise.

Techniques for the Measurement of Cost

18. Techniques for the measurement of the cost of inventories, such as the standard cost method or the retail method, may be used for convenience if the results approximate the actual cost. Standard costs take into account normal levels of consumption of materials and supplies, labour, efficiency and capacity utilisation. They are regularly reviewed and, if necessary, revised in the light of current conditions.
19. The retail method is often used in the retail trade for measuring inventories of large numbers of rapidly changing items that have similar margins and for which it is impracticable to use other costing methods. The cost of the inventory is determined by reducing from the sales value of the inventory the appropriate percentage gross margin. The percentage used takes into consideration inventory which has been marked down to below its original selling price. An average percentage for each retail department is often used.

Net Realisable Value

20. The cost of inventories may not be recoverable if those inventories are damaged, if they have become wholly or partially obsolete, or if their selling prices have declined. The cost of inventories may also not be recoverable if the estimated costs of completion or the estimated costs necessary to make the sale have increased. The practice of writing down inventories below cost to net realisable value is consistent with the view that assets should not be carried in excess of amounts expected to be realised from their sale or use.
21. Inventories are usually written down to net realisable value on an item by- item basis. In some circumstances, however, it may be appropriate to group similar or related items. This may be the case with items of inventory relating to the same product line that have similar purposes or end uses and are produced and marketed in the same geographical area and cannot be practicably evaluated separately from other items in that product line. It is not appropriate to write down inventories based on a classification of inventory, for example, finished goods, or all the inventories in a particular business segment.
22. Estimates of net realisable value are based on the most reliable evidence available at the time the estimates are made as to the amount the inventories are expected to realise. These estimates take into consideration fluctuations of price or cost directly relating to events occurring after the balance sheet date to the extent that such events confirm the conditions existing at the balance sheet date.

23. Estimates of net realisable value also take into consideration the purpose for which the inventory is held. For example, the net realisable value of the quantity of inventory held to satisfy firm sales or service contracts is based on the contract price. If the sales contracts are for less than the inventory quantities held, the net realisable value of the excess inventory is based on general selling prices. Contingent losses on firm sales contracts in excess of inventory quantities held and contingent losses on firm purchase contracts are dealt with in accordance with the principles enunciated in Accounting Standard (AS) 4, Contingencies and Events Occurring After the Balance Sheet Date.
24. Materials and other supplies held for use in the production of inventories are not written down below cost if the finished products in which they will be incorporated are expected to be sold at or above cost. However, when there has been a decline in the price of materials and it is estimated that the cost of the finished products will exceed net realizable value, the materials are written down to net realisable value. In such circumstances, the replacement cost of the materials may be the best available measure of their net realisable value.
25. An assessment is made of net realisable value as at each balance sheet date.

Disclosure

26. ***The financial statements should disclose:***
 - a. ***the accounting policies adopted in measuring inventories, including the cost formula used; and***
 - b. ***the total carrying amount of inventories and its classification appropriate to the enterprise.***
27. Information about the carrying amounts held in different classifications of inventories and the extent of the changes in these assets is useful to financial statement users. Common classifications of inventories are raw materials and components, work in progress, finished goods, stores and spares, and loose tools.

Accounting Standard – 3, Cash Flow Statement (issued in June, 1981; revised in 1997)

*(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in **bold italic** type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)*

Accounting Standard (AS) 3, 'Cash Flow Statements' (revised 1997), issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, comes into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-1997. This Standard supersedes Accounting Standard (AS) 3, 'Changes in Financial Position', issued in June 1981. This Standard is mandatory in nature in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2004 for the enterprises which fall in any one or more of the following categories, at any time during the accounting period:

- A. Enterprises whose equity or debt securities are listed whether in India or outside India.
- B. Enterprises which are in the process of listing their equity or debt securities as evidenced by the board of directors' resolution in this regard.
- C. Banks including co-operative banks.
- D. Financial institutions.
- E. Enterprises carrying on insurance business.
- F. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises, whose turnover for the immediately preceding accounting period on the basis of audited financial statements exceeds Rs. 50 crore. Turnover does not include other income.
- G. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises having borrowings, including public deposits, in excess of Rs. 10 crore at any time during the accounting period.
- H. Holding and subsidiary enterprises of any one of the above at any time during the accounting period.

The enterprises which do not fall in any of the above categories are encouraged, but are not required, to apply this Standard.

Where an enterprise has been covered in any one or more of the above categories and subsequently, ceases to be so covered, the enterprise will not qualify for exemption from application of this Standard, until the enterprise ceases to be covered in any of the above categories for two consecutive years.

Where an enterprise has previously qualified for exemption from application of this Standard (being not covered by any of the above categories) but no longer qualifies for exemption in the current accounting period, this Standard becomes applicable from the current period. However, the corresponding previous period figures need not be disclosed.

An enterprise, which, pursuant to the above provisions, does not present a cash flow statement, should disclose the fact.

Objective

Information about the cash flows of an enterprise is useful in providing users of financial statements with a basis to assess the ability of the enterprise to generate cash

and cash equivalents and the needs of the enterprise to utilise those cash flows. The economic decisions that are taken by users require an evaluation of the ability of an enterprise to generate cash and cash equivalents and the timing and certainty of their generation.

The Statement deals with the provision of information about the historical changes in cash and cash equivalents of an enterprise by means of a cash flow statement which classifies cash flows during the period from operating, investing and financing activities.

Scope

1. ***An enterprise should prepare a cash flow statement and should present it for each period for which financial statements are presented.***
2. Users of an enterprise's financial statements are interested in how the enterprise generates and uses cash and cash equivalents. This is the case regardless of the nature of the enterprise's activities and irrespective of whether cash can be viewed as the product of the enterprise, as may be the case with a financial enterprise. Enterprises need cash for essentially the same reasons, however different their principal revenue-producing activities might be. They need cash to conduct their operations, to pay their obligations, and to provide returns to their investors.

Benefits of Cash Flow Information

3. A cash flow statement, when used in conjunction with the other financial statements, provides information that enables users to evaluate the changes in net assets of an enterprise, its financial structure (including its liquidity and solvency) and its ability to affect the amounts and timing of cash flows in order to adapt to changing circumstances and opportunities. Cash flow information is useful in assessing the ability of the enterprise to generate cash and cash equivalents and enables users to develop models to assess and compare the present value of the future cash flows of different enterprises. It also enhances the comparability of the reporting of operating performance by different enterprises because it eliminates the effects of using different accounting treatments for the same transactions and events.
4. Historical cash flow information is often used as an indicator of the amount, timing and certainty of future cash flows. It is also useful in checking the accuracy of past assessments of future cash flows and in examining the relationship between profitability and net cash flow and the impact of changing prices.

Definitions

5. ***The following terms are used in this Statement with the meanings specified:***

Cash comprises cash on hand and demand deposits with banks.

Cash equivalents are short term, highly liquid investments that are readily convertible into known amounts of cash and which are subject to an insignificant risk of changes in value.

Cash flows are inflows and outflows of cash and cash equivalents.

Operating activities are the principal revenue-producing activities of the enterprise and other activities that are not investing or financing activities.

Investing activities are the acquisition and disposal of long-term assets and other investments not included in cash equivalents.

Financing activities are activities that result in changes in the size and composition of the owners' capital (including preference share capital in the case of a company) and borrowings of the enterprise.

Cash and Cash Equivalents

6. Cash equivalents are held for the purpose of meeting short-term cash commitments rather than for investment or other purposes. For an investment to qualify as a cash equivalent, it must be readily convertible to a known amount of cash and be subject to an insignificant risk of changes in value. Therefore, an investment normally qualifies as a cash equivalent only when it has a short maturity of, say, three months or less from the date of acquisition. Investments in shares are excluded from cash equivalents unless they are, in substance, cash equivalents; for example, preference shares of a company acquired shortly before their specified redemption date (provided there is only an insignificant risk of failure of the company to repay the amount at maturity).
7. Cash flows exclude movements between items that constitute cash or cash equivalents because these components are part of the cash management of an enterprise rather than part of its operating, investing and financing activities. Cash management includes the investment of excess cash in cash equivalents.

Presentation of a Cash Flow Statement

8. ***The cash flow statement should report cash flows during the period classified by operating, investing and financing activities.***
9. An enterprise presents its cash flows from operating, investing and financing activities in a manner which is most appropriate to its business. Classification by activity provides information that allows users to assess the impact of those activities on the financial position of the enterprise and the amount of its cash and cash equivalents. This information may also be used to evaluate the relationships among those activities.
10. A single transaction may include cash flows that are classified differently. For example, when the instalment paid in respect of a fixed asset acquired on deferred payment basis includes both interest and loan, the interest element is classified under financing activities and the loan element is classified under investing activities.

Operating Activities

11. The amount of cash flows arising from operating activities is a key indicator of the extent to which the operations of the enterprise have generated sufficient cash flows to maintain the operating capability of the enterprise, pay dividends, repay loans and make new investments without recourse to external sources of financing. Information about the specific components of historical operating cash flows is useful, in conjunction with other information, in forecasting future operating cash flows.
12. Cash flows from operating activities are primarily derived from the principal revenue-producing activities of the enterprise. Therefore, they generally result from the transactions and other events that enter into the determination of net profit or loss. Examples of cash flows from operating activities are:

- A. cash receipts from the sale of goods and the rendering of services;
 - B. cash receipts from royalties, fees, commissions and other revenue;
 - C. cash payments to suppliers for goods and services;
 - D. cash payments to and on behalf of employees;
 - E. cash receipts and cash payments of an insurance enterprise for premiums and claims, annuities and other policy benefits;
 - F. cash payments or refunds of income taxes unless they can be specifically identified with financing and investing activities; and
 - G. cash receipts and payments relating to futures contracts, forward contracts, option contracts and swap contracts when the contracts are held for dealing or trading purposes.
13. Some transactions, such as the sale of an item of plant, may give rise to a gain or loss which is included in the determination of net profit or loss. However, the cash flows relating to such transactions are cash flows from investing activities.
14. An enterprise may hold securities and loans for dealing or trading purposes, in which case they are similar to inventory acquired specifically for resale. Therefore, cash flows arising from the purchase and sale of dealing or trading securities are classified as operating activities. Similarly, cash advances and loans made by financial enterprises are usually classified as operating activities since they relate to the main revenue-producing activity of that enterprise.

Investing Activities

15. The separate disclosure of cash flows arising from investing activities is important because the cash flows represent the extent to which expenditures have been made for resources intended to generate future income and cash flows. Examples of cash flows arising from investing activities are:
- A. cash payments to acquire fixed assets (including intangibles). These payments include those relating to capitalised research and development costs and self-constructed fixed assets;
 - B. cash receipts from disposal of fixed assets (including intangibles);
 - C. cash payments to acquire shares, warrants or debt instruments of other enterprises and interests in joint ventures (other than payments for those instruments considered to be cash equivalents and those held for dealing or trading purposes);
 - D. cash receipts from disposal of shares, warrants or debt instruments of other enterprises and interests in joint ventures (other than receipts from those instruments considered to be cash equivalents and those held for dealing or trading purposes);
 - E. cash advances and loans made to third parties (other than advances and loans made by a financial enterprise);
 - F. cash receipts from the repayment of advances and loans made to third parties (other than advances and loans of a financial enterprise);
 - G. cash payments for futures contracts, forward contracts, option contracts and swap contracts except when the contracts are held for dealing or trading purposes, or the payments are classified as financing activities; and
 - H. cash receipts from futures contracts, forward contracts, option contracts and swap contracts except when the contracts are held for dealing or trading purposes, or the receipts are classified as financing activities.
16. When a contract is accounted for as a hedge of an identifiable position, the cash flows of the contract are classified in the same manner as the cash flows of the position being hedged.

Financing Activities

17. The separate disclosure of cash flows arising from financing activities is important because it is useful in predicting claims on future cash flows by providers of funds (both capital and borrowings) to the enterprise. Examples of cash flows arising from financing activities are:
- A. cash proceeds from issuing shares or other similar instruments;
 - B. cash proceeds from issuing debentures, loans, notes, bonds, and other short or long-term borrowings; and
 - C. cash repayments of amounts borrowed.

Reporting Cash Flows from Operating Activities

18. ***An enterprise should report cash flows from operating activities using either:***

- A. the direct method, whereby major classes of gross cash receipts and gross cash payments are disclosed; or***
- B. the indirect method, whereby net profit or loss is adjusted for the effects of transactions of a non-cash nature, any deferrals or accruals of past or future operating cash receipts or payments, and items of income or expense associated with investing or financing cash flows.***

19. The direct method provides information which may be useful in estimating future cash flows and which is not available under the indirect method and is, therefore, considered more appropriate than the indirect method. Under the direct method, information about major classes of gross cash receipts and gross cash payments may be obtained either:

- A. from the accounting records of the enterprise; or
- B. by adjusting sales, cost of sales (interest and similar income and interest expense and similar charges for a financial enterprise) and other items in the statement of profit and loss for:
 - a. changes during the period in inventories and operating receivables and payables;
 - b. other non-cash items; and
 - c. other items for which the cash effects are investing or financing cash flows.

20. Under the indirect method, the net cash flow from operating activities is determined by adjusting net profit or loss for the effects of:

- A. changes during the period in inventories and operating receivables and payables;
- B. non-cash items such as depreciation, provisions, deferred taxes, and unrealised foreign exchange gains and losses; and
- C. all other items for which the cash effects are investing or financing cash flows.

Alternatively, the net cash flow from operating activities may be presented under the indirect method by showing the operating revenues and expenses excluding non-cash items disclosed in the statement of profit and loss and the changes during the period in inventories and operating receivables and payables.

Reporting Cash Flows from Investing and Financing Activities

21. ***An enterprise should report separately major classes of gross cash receipts and gross cash payments arising from investing and financing***

activities, except to the extent that cash flows described in paragraphs 22 and 24 are reported on a net basis.

Reporting Cash Flows on a Net Basis

- 22. Cash flows arising from the following operating, investing or financing activities may be reported on a net basis:**
- A. cash receipts and payments on behalf of customers when the cash flows reflect the activities of the customer rather than those of the enterprise; and**
 - B. cash receipts and payments for items in which the turnover is quick, the amounts are large, and the maturities are short.**
- 23.** Examples of cash receipts and payments referred to in paragraph 22(a) are:
- A. the acceptance and repayment of demand deposits by a bank;
 - B. funds held for customers by an investment enterprise; and
 - C. rents collected on behalf of, and paid over to, the owners of properties.
- Examples of cash receipts and payments referred to in paragraph 22(b) are advances made for, and the repayments of:
- A. principal amounts relating to credit card customers;
 - B. the purchase and sale of investments; and
 - C. other short-term borrowings, for example, those which have a maturity period of three months or less.
- 24. Cash flows arising from each of the following activities of a financial enterprise may be reported on a net basis:**
- A. cash receipts and payments for the acceptance and repayment of deposits with a fixed maturity date;**
 - B. the placement of deposits with and withdrawal of deposits from other financial enterprises; and**
 - C. cash advances and loans made to customers and the repayment of those advances and loans.**

Foreign Currency Cash Flows

- 25. Cash flows arising from transactions in a foreign currency should be recorded in an enterprise's reporting currency by applying to the foreign currency amount the exchange rate between the reporting currency and the foreign currency at the date of the cash flow. A rate that approximates the actual rate may be used if the result is substantially the same as would arise if the rates at the dates of the cash flows were used. The effect of changes in exchange rates on cash and cash equivalents held in a foreign currency should be reported as a separate part of the reconciliation of the changes in cash and cash equivalents during the period.**
- 26.** Cash flows denominated in foreign currency are reported in a manner consistent with Accounting Standard (AS) 11, Accounting for the Effects of Changes in Foreign Exchange Rates. This permits the use of an exchange rate that approximates the actual rate. For example, a weighted average exchange rate for a period may be used for recording foreign currency transactions.
- 27.** Unrealised gains and losses arising from changes in foreign exchange rates are not cash flows. However, the effect of exchange rate changes on cash and cash equivalents held or due in a foreign currency is reported in the cash flow statement in order to reconcile cash and cash equivalents at the beginning and the end of the period. This amount is presented separately from cash flows from operating, investing and financing activities and includes the differences, if any, had those cash flows been reported at the end-of-period exchange rates.

Extraordinary Items

- 28. The cash flows associated with extraordinary items should be classified as arising from operating, investing or financing activities as appropriate and separately disclosed.**
29. The cash flows associated with extraordinary items are disclosed separately as arising from operating, investing or financing activities in the cash flow statement, to enable users to understand their nature and effect on the present and future cash flows of the enterprise. These disclosures are in addition to the separate disclosures of the nature and amount of extraordinary items required by Accounting Standard (AS) 5, Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period Items and Changes in Accounting Policies.

Interest and Dividends

- 30. Cash flows from interest and dividends received and paid should each be disclosed separately. Cash flows arising from interest paid and interest and dividends received in the case of a financial enterprise should be classified as cash flows arising from operating activities. In the case of other enterprises, cash flows arising from interest paid should be classified as cash flows from financing activities while interest and dividends received should be classified as cash flows from investing activities. Dividends paid should be classified as cash flows from financing activities.**
31. The total amount of interest paid during the period is disclosed in the cash flow statement whether it has been recognised as an expense in the statement of profit and loss or capitalised in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 10, Accounting for Fixed Assets.
32. Interest paid and interest and dividends received are usually classified as operating cash flows for a financial enterprise. However, there is no consensus on the classification of these cash flows for other enterprises. Some argue that interest paid and interest and dividends received may be classified as operating cash flows because they enter into the determination of net profit or loss. However, it is more appropriate that interest paid and interest and dividends received are classified as financing cash flows and investing cash flows respectively, because they are cost of obtaining financial resources or returns on investments.
33. Some argue that dividends paid may be classified as a component of cash flows from operating activities in order to assist users to determine the ability of an enterprise to pay dividends out of operating cash flows. However, it is considered more appropriate that dividends paid should be classified as cash flows from financing activities because they are cost of obtaining financial resources.

Taxes on Income

- 34. Cash flows arising from taxes on income should be separately disclosed and should be classified as cash flows from operating activities unless they can be specifically identified with financing and investing activities.**
35. Taxes on income arise on transactions that give rise to cash flows that are classified as operating, investing or financing activities in a cash flow statement. While tax expense may be readily identifiable with investing or financing activities, the related tax cash flows are often impracticable to identify and may arise in a different period from the cash flows of the underlying transactions. Therefore, taxes paid are usually classified as cash flows from operating activities. However, when it is practicable to identify the tax cash flow with an

individual transaction that gives rise to cash flows that are classified as investing or financing activities, the tax cash flow is classified as an investing or financing activity as appropriate. When tax cash flow are allocated over more than one class of activity, the total amount of taxes paid is disclosed.

Investments in Subsidiaries, Associates and Joint Ventures

- 36. When accounting for an investment in an associate or a subsidiary or a joint venture, an investor restricts its reporting in the cash flow statement to the cash flows between itself and the investee/ joint venture, for example, cash flows relating to dividends and advances.**

Acquisitions and Disposals of Subsidiaries and Other Business Units

- 37. The aggregate cash flows arising from acquisitions and from disposals of subsidiaries or other business units should be presented separately and classified as investing activities.**
- 38. An enterprise should disclose, in aggregate, in respect of both acquisition and disposal of subsidiaries or other business units during the period each of the following:**
- A. the total purchase or disposal consideration; and**
 - B. the portion of the purchase or disposal consideration discharged by means of cash and cash equivalents.**
- 39. The separate presentation of the cash flow effects of acquisitions and disposals of subsidiaries and other business units as single line items helps to distinguish those cash flows from other cash flows. The cash flow effects of disposals are not deducted from those of acquisitions.**

Non-cash Transactions

- 40. Investing and financing transactions that do not require the use of cash or cash equivalents should be excluded from a cash flow statement. Such transactions should be disclosed elsewhere in the financial statements in a way that provides all the relevant information about these investing and financing activities.**
- 41. Many investing and financing activities do not have a direct impact on current cash flows although they do affect the capital and asset structure of an enterprise. The exclusion of non-cash transactions from the cash flow statement is consistent with the objective of a cash flow statement as these items do not involve cash flows in the current period. Examples of non-cash transactions are:**
- A. the acquisition of assets by assuming directly related liabilities;**
 - B. the acquisition of an enterprise by means of issue of shares; and**
 - C. the conversion of debt to equity.**

Components of Cash and Cash Equivalents

- 42. An enterprise should disclose the components of cash and cash equivalents and should present a reconciliation of the amounts in its cash flow statement with the equivalent items reported in the balance sheet.**
- 43. In view of the variety of cash management practices, an enterprise discloses the policy which it adopts in determining the composition of cash and cash equivalents.**
- 44. The effect of any change in the policy for determining components of cash and cash equivalents is reported in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 5, Net**

Other Disclosures

- 45. An enterprise should disclose, together with a commentary by management, the amount of significant cash and cash equivalent balances held by the enterprise that are not available for use by it.**
46. There are various circumstances in which cash and cash equivalent balances held by an enterprise are not available for use by it. Examples include cash and cash equivalent balances held by a branch of the enterprise that operates in a country where exchange controls or other legal restrictions apply as a result of which the balances are not available for use by the enterprise.
47. Additional information may be relevant to users in understanding the financial position and liquidity of an enterprise. Disclosure of this information, together with a commentary by management, is encouraged and may include:
- A. the amount of undrawn borrowing facilities that may be available for future operating activities and to settle capital commitments, indicating any restrictions on the use of these facilities; and
 - B. the aggregate amount of cash flows that represent increases in operating capacity separately from those cash flows that are required to maintain operating capacity.
48. The separate disclosure of cash flows that represent increases in operating capacity and cash flows that are required to maintain operating capacity is useful in enabling the user to determine whether the enterprise is investing adequately in the maintenance of its operating capacity. An enterprise that does not invest adequately in the maintenance of its operating capacity may be prejudicing future profitability for the sake of current liquidity and distributions to owners.

Accounting Standard – 4, Contingencies and Events Occurring After the Balance Sheet Date (issued in November, 1982; revised in 1995)

*(This Accounting Standard includes **paragraphs 10-17** set in **bold italic** type and **paragraphs 1-9** set in plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in bold italic type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)*

The following is the text of the revised Accounting Standard (AS) 4, 'Contingencies and Events Occurring After the Balance Sheet Date', issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India.

This revised standard comes into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1.4.1995 and is mandatory in nature. It is clarified that in respect of accounting periods commencing on a date prior to 1.4.1995, Accounting Standard 4 as originally issued in November 1982 (and subsequently made mandatory) applies.

Introduction

1. This Statement deals with the treatment in financial statements of
 - A. contingencies, and
 - B. events occurring after the balance sheet date.
2. The following subjects, which may result in contingencies, are excluded from the scope of this Statement in view of special considerations applicable to them:
 - A. liabilities of life assurance and general insurance enterprises arising from policies issued;
 - B. obligations under retirement benefit plans; and
 - C. commitments arising from long-term lease contracts.

Definitions

3. ***The following terms are used in this Statement with the meanings specified:***

A contingency is a condition or situation, the ultimate outcome of which, gain or loss, will be known or determined only on the occurrence, or non-occurrence, of one or more uncertain future events.

Events occurring after the balance sheet date are those significant events, both favourable and unfavourable, that occur between the balance sheet date and the date on which the financial statements are approved by the Board of Directors in the case of a company, and, by the corresponding approving authority in the case of any other entity.

Two types of events can be identified:

- A. ***those which provide further evidence of conditions that existed at the balance sheet date; and***
- B. ***those which are indicative of conditions that arose subsequent to the balance sheet date.***

Explanation

4. **Contingencies**

- 4.1 The term "contingencies" used in this Statement is restricted to conditions or situations at the balance sheet date, the financial effect of which is to be determined by future events which may or may not occur.
- 4.2 Estimates are required for determining the amounts to be stated in the financial statements for many on-going and recurring activities of an enterprise. One must, however, distinguish between an event which is certain and one which is uncertain. The fact that an estimate is involved does not, of itself, create the type of uncertainty which characterises a contingency. For example, the fact that estimates of useful life are used to determine depreciation, does not make depreciation a contingency; the eventual expiry of the useful life of the asset is not uncertain. Also, amounts owed for services received are not contingencies as defined in paragraph 3.1, even though the amounts may have been estimated, as there is nothing uncertain about the fact that these obligations have been incurred.
- 4.3 The uncertainty relating to future events can be expressed by a range of outcomes. This range may be presented as quantified probabilities, but in most circumstances, this suggests a level of precision that is not supported by the available information. The possible outcomes can, therefore, usually be generally described except where reasonable quantification is practicable.
- 4.4 The estimates of the outcome and of the financial effect of contingencies are determined by the judgement of the management of the enterprise. This judgement is based on consideration of information available up to the date on which the financial statements are approved and will include a review of events occurring after the balance sheet date, supplemented by experience of similar transactions and, in some cases, reports from independent experts.

5. **Accounting Treatment of Contingent Losses**

- 5.1 The accounting treatment of a contingent loss is determined by the expected outcome of the contingency. If it is likely that a contingency will result in a loss to the enterprise, then it is prudent to provide for that loss in the financial statements.
- 5.2 The estimation of the amount of a contingent loss to be provided for in the financial statements may be based on information referred to in paragraph 4.4.
- 5.3 If there is conflicting or insufficient evidence for estimating the amount of a contingent loss, then disclosure is made of the existence and nature of the contingency.
- 5.4 A potential loss to an enterprise may be reduced or avoided because a contingent liability is matched by a related counter-claim or claim against a third party. In such cases, the amount of the provision is determined after taking into account the probable recovery under the claim if no significant uncertainty as to its measurability or collectability exists. Suitable disclosure regarding the nature and gross amount of the contingent liability is also made.
- 5.5 The existence and amount of guarantees, obligations arising from discounted bills of exchange and similar obligations undertaken by an enterprise are generally disclosed in financial statements by way of note, even though the possibility that a loss to the enterprise will occur, is remote.

- 5.6 Provisions for contingencies are not made in respect of general or unspecified business risks since they do not relate to conditions or situations existing at the balance sheet date.

6. Accounting Treatment of Contingent Gains

Contingent gains are not recognised in financial statements since their recognition may result in the recognition of revenue which may never be realised. However, when the realisation of a gain is virtually certain, then such gain is not a contingency and accounting for the gain is appropriate.

7. Determination of the Amounts at which Contingencies are included in Financial Statements

- 7.1 The amount at which a contingency is stated in the financial statements is based on the information which is available at the date on which the financial statements are approved. Events occurring after the balance sheet date that indicate that an asset may have been impaired, or that a liability may have existed, at the balance sheet date are, therefore, taken into account in identifying contingencies and in determining the amounts at which such contingencies are included in financial statements.
- 7.2 In some cases, each contingency can be separately identified, and the special circumstances of each situation considered in the determination of the amount of the contingency. A substantial legal claim against the enterprise may represent such a contingency. Among the factors taken into account by management in evaluating such a contingency are the progress of the claim at the date on which the financial statements are approved, the opinions, wherever necessary, of legal experts or other advisers, the experience of the enterprise in similar cases and the experience of other enterprises in similar situations.
- 7.3 If the uncertainties which created a contingency in respect of an individual transaction are common to a large number of similar transactions, then the amount of the contingency need not be individually determined, but may be based on the group of similar transactions. An example of such contingencies may be the estimated uncollectable portion of accounts receivable. Another example of such contingencies may be the warranties for products sold. These costs are usually incurred frequently and experience provides a means by which the amount of the liability or loss can be estimated with reasonable precision although the particular transactions that may result in a liability or a loss are not identified. Provision for these costs results in their recognition in the same accounting period in which the related transactions took place.

8. Events Occurring after the Balance Sheet Date

- 8.1 Events which occur between the balance sheet date and the date on which the financial statements are approved, may indicate the need for adjustments to assets and liabilities as at the balance sheet date or may require disclosure.
- 8.2 Adjustments to assets and liabilities are required for events occurring after the balance sheet date that provide additional information materially affecting the determination of the amounts relating to conditions existing at the balance sheet date. For example, an adjustment may be made for a loss on a trade receivable account which is confirmed by the insolvency of a customer which occurs after the balance sheet date.
- 8.3 Adjustments to assets and liabilities are not appropriate for events occurring after the balance sheet date, if such events do not relate to

conditions existing at the balance sheet date. An example is the decline in market value of investments between the balance sheet date and the date on which the financial statements are approved. Ordinary fluctuations in market values do not normally relate to the condition of the investments at the balance sheet date, but reflect circumstances which have occurred in the following period.

- 8.4 Events occurring after the balance sheet date which do not affect the figures stated in the financial statements would not normally require disclosure in the financial statements although they may be of such significance that they may require a disclosure in the report of the approving authority to enable users of financial statements to make proper evaluations and decisions.
- 8.5 There are events which, although they take place after the balance sheet date, are sometimes reflected in the financial statements because of statutory requirements or because of their special nature. Such items include the amount of dividend proposed or declared by the enterprise after the balance sheet date in respect of the period covered by the financial statements.
- 8.6 Events occurring after the balance sheet date may indicate that the enterprise ceases to be a going concern. A deterioration in operating results and financial position, or unusual changes affecting the existence or substratum of the enterprise after the balance sheet date (e.g., destruction of a major production plant by a fire after the balance sheet date) may indicate a need to consider whether it is proper to use the fundamental accounting assumption of going concern in the preparation of the financial statements.

9. Disclosure

- 9.1 The disclosure requirements herein referred to apply only in respect of those contingencies or events which affect the financial position to a material extent.
- 9.2 If a contingent loss is not provided for, its nature and an estimate of its financial effect are generally disclosed by way of note unless the possibility of a loss is remote (other than the circumstances mentioned in paragraph 5.5). If a reliable estimate of the financial effect cannot be made, this fact is disclosed.
- 9.3 When the events occurring after the balance sheet date are disclosed in the report of the approving authority, the information given comprises the nature of the events and an estimate of their financial effects or a statement that such an estimate cannot be made.

Accounting Standard

Contingencies

- 10. The amount of a contingent loss should be provided for by a charge in the statement of profit and loss if:**
 - A. it is probable that future events will confirm that, after taking into account any related probable recovery, an asset has been impaired or a liability has been incurred as at the balance sheet date, and**
 - B. a reasonable estimate of the amount of the resulting loss can be made.**
- 11. The existence of a contingent loss should be disclosed in the financial statements if either of the conditions in paragraph 10 is not met, unless the possibility of a loss is remote.**
- 12. Contingent gains should not be recognised in the financial statements.**

Events Occurring after the Balance Sheet Date

- 13. Assets and liabilities should be adjusted for events occurring after the balance sheet date that provide additional evidence to assist the estimation of amounts relating to conditions existing at the balance sheet date or that indicate that the fundamental accounting assumption of going concern (i.e., the continuance of existence or substratum of the enterprise) is not appropriate.**
- 14. Dividends stated to be in respect of the period covered by the financial statements, which are proposed or declared by the enterprise after the balance sheet date but before approval of the financial statements, should be adjusted.**
- 15. Disclosure should be made in the report of the approving authority of those events occurring after the balance sheet date that represent material changes and commitments affecting the financial position of the enterprise.**

Disclosure

- 16. If disclosure of contingencies is required by paragraph 11 of this Statement, the following information should be provided:**
 - A. the nature of the contingency;**
 - B. the uncertainties which may affect the future outcome;**
 - C. an estimate of the financial effect, or a statement that such an estimate cannot be made.**
- 17. If disclosure of events occurring after the balance sheet date in the report of the approving authority is required by paragraph 15 of this Statement, the following information should be provided:**
 - A. the nature of the event;**
 - B. an estimate of the financial effect, or a statement that such an estimate cannot be made.**

Accounting Standard – 5, Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period Items and Changes in Accounting policies (issued in November, 1982; revised in 1997)

*(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in **bold italic** type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)*

The following is the text of the revised Accounting Standard (AS) 5, 'Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period Items and Changes in Accounting Policies', issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India.

This revised standard comes into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1.4.1996 and is mandatory in nature. It is clarified that in respect of accounting periods commencing on a date prior to 1.4.1996, Accounting Standard 5 as originally issued in November, 1982 (and subsequently made mandatory) will apply.

Objective

The objective of this Statement is to prescribe the classification and disclosure of certain items in the statement of profit and loss so that all enterprises prepare and present such a statement on a uniform basis. This enhances the comparability of the financial statements of an enterprise over time and with the financial statements of other enterprises. Accordingly, this Statement requires the classification and disclosure of extraordinary and prior period items, and the disclosure of certain items within profit or loss from ordinary activities. It also specifies the accounting treatment for changes in accounting estimates and the disclosures to be made in the financial statements regarding changes in accounting policies.

Scope

1. ***This Statement should be applied by an enterprise in presenting profit or loss from ordinary activities, extraordinary items and prior period items in the statement of profit and loss, in accounting for changes in accounting estimates, and in disclosure of changes in accounting policies.***
2. This Statement deals with, among other matters, the disclosure of certain items of net profit or loss for the period. These disclosures are made in addition to any other disclosures required by other Accounting Standards.
3. This Statement does not deal with the tax implications of extraordinary items, prior period items, changes in accounting estimates, and changes in accounting policies for which appropriate adjustments will have to be made depending on the circumstances.

Definitions

4. ***The following terms are used in this Statement with the meanings specified:***

Ordinary activities are any activities which are undertaken by an enterprise as part of its business and such related activities in which the enterprise engages in furtherance of, incidental to, or arising from, these activities.

Extraordinary items are income or expenses that arise from events or transactions that are clearly distinct from the ordinary activities of the enterprise and, therefore, are not expected to recur frequently or regularly.

Prior period items are income or expenses which arise in the current period as a result of errors or omissions in the preparation of the financial statements of one or more prior periods.

Accounting policies are the specific accounting principles and the methods of applying those principles adopted by an enterprise in the preparation and presentation of financial statements.

Net Profit or Loss for the Period

5. **All items of income and expense which are recognised in a period should be included in the determination of net profit or loss for the period unless an Accounting Standard requires or permits otherwise.**
6. Normally, all items of income and expense which are recognised in a period are included in the determination of the net profit or loss for the period. This includes extraordinary items and the effects of changes in accounting estimates.
7. **The net profit or loss for the period comprises the following components, each of which should be disclosed on the face of the statement of profit and loss:**
 - A. **profit or loss from ordinary activities; and**
 - B. **extraordinary items.**

Extraordinary Items

8. **Extraordinary items should be disclosed in the statement of profit and loss as a part of net profit or loss for the period. The nature and the amount of each extraordinary item should be separately disclosed in the statement of profit and loss in a manner that its impact on current profit or loss can be perceived.**
9. Virtually all items of income and expense included in the determination of net profit or loss for the period arise in the course of the ordinary activities of the enterprise. Therefore, only on rare occasions does an event or transaction give rise to an extraordinary item.
10. Whether an event or transaction is clearly distinct from the ordinary activities of the enterprise is determined by the nature of the event or transaction in relation to the business ordinarily carried on by the enterprise rather than by the frequency with which such events are expected to occur. Therefore, an event or transaction may be extraordinary for one enterprise but not so for another enterprise because of the differences between the irrespective ordinary activities. For example, losses sustained as a result of an earthquake may qualify as an extraordinary item for many enterprises. However, claims from policyholders arising from an earthquake do not qualify as an extraordinary item for an insurance enterprise that insures against such risks.
11. Examples of events or transactions that generally give rise to extraordinary items for most enterprises are:

- A. attachment of property of the enterprise; or
- B. an earthquake.

Profit or Loss from Ordinary Activities

- 12. *When items of income and expense within profit or loss from ordinary activities are of such size, nature or incidence that their disclosure is relevant to explain the performance of the enterprise for the period, the nature and amount of such items should be disclosed separately.***
13. Although the items of income and expense described in paragraph 12 are not extraordinary items, the nature and amount of such items may be relevant to users of financial statements in understanding the financial position and performance of an enterprise and in making projections about financial position and performance. Disclosure of such information is sometimes made in the notes to the financial statements.
14. Circumstances which may give rise to the separate disclosure of items of income and expense in accordance with paragraph 12 include:
- A. the write-down of inventories to net realisable value as well as the reversal of such write-downs;
 - B. a restructuring of the activities of an enterprise and the reversal of any provisions for the costs of restructuring;
 - C. disposals of items of fixed assets;
 - D. disposals of long-term investments;
 - E. legislative changes having retrospective application;
 - F. litigation settlements; and
 - G. other reversals of provisions.

Prior Period Items

- 15. *The nature and amount of prior period items should be separately disclosed in the statement of profit and loss in a manner that their impact on the current profit or loss can be perceived.***
16. The term 'prior period items', as defined in this Statement, refers only to income or expenses which arise in the current period as a result of errors or omissions in the preparation of the financial statements of one or more prior periods. The term does not include other adjustments necessitated by circumstances, which though related to prior periods, are determined in the current period, e.g., arrears payable to workers as a result of revision of wages with retrospective effect during the current period.
17. Errors in the preparation of the financial statements of one or more prior periods may be discovered in the current period. Errors may occur as a result of mathematical mistakes, mistakes in applying accounting policies, misinterpretation of facts, or oversight.
18. Prior period items are generally infrequent in nature and can be distinguished from changes in accounting estimates. Accounting estimates by their nature are approximations that may need revision as additional information becomes known. For example, income or expense recognized on the outcome of a contingency which previously could not be estimated reliably does not constitute a prior period item.
19. Prior period items are normally included in the determination of net profit or loss for the current period. An alternative approach is to show such items in the statement of profit and loss after determination of current net profit or loss. In either case, the objective is to indicate the effect of such items on the current profit or loss.

Changes in Accounting Estimates

20. As a result of the uncertainties inherent in business activities, many financial statement items cannot be measured with precision but can only be estimated. The estimation process involves judgments based on the latest information available. Estimates may be required, for example, of bad debts, inventory obsolescence or the useful lives of depreciable assets. The use of reasonable estimates is an essential part of the preparation of financial statements and does not undermine their reliability.
21. An estimate may have to be revised if changes occur regarding the circumstances on which the estimate was based, or as a result of new information, more experience or subsequent developments. The revision of the estimate, by its nature, does not bring the adjustment within the definitions of an extraordinary item or a prior period item.
22. Sometimes, it is difficult to distinguish between a change in an accounting policy and a change in an accounting estimate. In such cases, the change is treated as a change in an accounting estimate, with appropriate disclosure.
23. ***The effect of a change in an accounting estimate should be included in the determination of net profit or loss in:***
 - A. ***the period of the change, if the change affects the period only; or***
 - B. ***the period of the change and future periods, if the change affects both.***
24. A change in an accounting estimate may affect the current period only or both the current period and future periods. For example, a change in the estimate of the amount of bad debts is recognised immediately and therefore affects only the current period. However, a change in the estimated useful life of a depreciable asset affects the depreciation in the current period and in each period during the remaining useful life of the asset. In both cases, the effect of the change relating to the current period is recognised as income or expense in the current period. The effect, if any, on future periods, is recognised in future periods.
25. ***The effect of a change in an accounting estimate should be classified using the same classification in the statement of profit and loss as was used previously for the estimate.***
26. To ensure the comparability of financial statements of different periods, the effect of a change in an accounting estimate which was previously included in the profit or loss from ordinary activities is included in that component of net profit or loss. The effect of a change in an accounting estimate that was previously included as an extraordinary item is reported as an extraordinary item.
27. ***The nature and amount of a change in an accounting estimate which has a material effect in the current period, or which is expected to have a material effect in subsequent periods, should be disclosed. If it is impracticable to quantify the amount, this fact should be disclosed.***

Changes in Accounting Policies

28. Users need to be able to compare the financial statements of an enterprise over a period of time in order to identify trends in its financial position, performance and cash flows. Therefore, the same accounting policies are normally adopted for similar events or transactions in each period.
29. ***A change in an accounting policy should be made only if the adoption of a different accounting policy is required by statute or for compliance with an accounting standard or if it is considered that the change would result in a more appropriate presentation of the financial statements of the enterprise.***

30. A more appropriate presentation of events or transactions in the financial statements occurs when the new accounting policy results in more relevant or reliable information about the financial position, performance or cash flows of the enterprise.
31. The following are not changes in accounting policies :
- A. the adoption of an accounting policy for events or transactions that differ in substance from previously occurring events or transactions, e.g., introduction of a formal retirement gratuity scheme by an employer in place of ad hoc ex-gratia payments to employees on retirement; and
 - B. the adoption of a new accounting policy for events or transactions which did not occur previously or that were immaterial.
32. ***Any change in an accounting policy which has a material effect should be disclosed. The impact of, and the adjustments resulting from, such change, if material, should be shown in the financial statements of the period in which such change is made, to reflect the effect of such change. Where the effect of such change is not ascertainable, wholly or in part, the fact should be indicated. If a change is made in the accounting policies which has no material effect on the financial statements for the current period but which is reasonably expected to have a material effect in later periods, the fact of such change should be appropriately disclosed in the period in which the change is adopted.***
33. ***A change in accounting policy consequent upon the adoption of an Accounting Standard should be accounted for in accordance with the specific transitional provisions, if any, contained in that Accounting Standard. However, disclosures required by paragraph 32 of this Statement should be made unless the transitional provisions of any other Accounting Standard require alternative disclosures in this regard.***

Accounting Standard – 6, Depreciation Accounting (issued in November, 1982; revised in 1994)

(This Accounting Standard includes **paragraphs 20-29** set in **bold italic** type and **paragraphs 1-19** set in plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)

The following is the text of the revised Accounting Standard (AS) 6, Depreciation Accounting, issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India.

Introduction

1. This Statement deals with depreciation accounting and applies to all depreciable assets, except the following items to which special considerations apply:
 - A. forests, plantations and similar regenerative natural resources;
 - B. wasting assets including expenditure on the exploration for and extraction of minerals, oils, natural gas and similar non-regenerative resources;
 - C. expenditure on research and development;
 - D. goodwill;
 - E. live stock.This statement also does not apply to land unless it has a limited useful life for the enterprise.
2. Different accounting policies for depreciation are adopted by different enterprises. Disclosure of accounting policies for depreciation followed by an enterprise is necessary to appreciate the view presented in the financial statements of the enterprise.

Definitions

3. **The following terms are used in this Statement with the meanings specified:**
Depreciation is a measure of the wearing out, consumption or other loss of value of a depreciable asset arising from use, effluxion of time or obsolescence through technology and market changes. Depreciation is allocated so as to charge a fair proportion of the depreciable amount in each accounting period during the expected useful life of the asset. Depreciation includes amortisation of assets whose useful life is predetermined.

Depreciable assets are assets which

- A. are expected to be used during more than one accounting period; and***
- B. have a limited useful life; and***
- C. are held by an enterprise for use in the production or supply of goods and services, for rental to others, or for administrative purposes and not for the purpose of sale in the ordinary course of business.***

Useful life is either A., the period over which a depreciable asset is expected to be used by the enterprise; or B., the number of production or similar units expected to be obtained from the use of the asset by the enterprise.

Depreciable amount of a depreciable asset is its historical cost, or other amount substituted for historical cost in the financial statements, less the estimated residual value.

Explanation

4. Depreciation has a significant effect in determining and presenting the financial position and results of operations of an enterprise. Depreciation is charged in each accounting period by reference to the extent of the depreciable amount, irrespective of an increase in the market value of the assets.
5. Assessment of depreciation and the amount to be charged in respect thereof in an accounting period are usually based on the following three factors:
 - A. historical cost or other amount substituted for the historical cost of the depreciable asset when the asset has been revalued;
 - B. expected useful life of the depreciable asset; and
 - C. estimated residual value of the depreciable asset.
6. Historical cost of a depreciable asset represents its money outlay or its equivalent in connection with its acquisition, installation and commissioning as well as for additions to or improvement thereof. The historical cost of a depreciable asset may undergo subsequent changes arising as a result of increase or decrease in long term liability on account of exchange fluctuations, price adjustments, changes in duties or similar factors.
7. The useful life of a depreciable asset is shorter than its physical life and is:
 - A. pre-determined by legal or contractual limits, such as the expiry dates of related leases;
 - B. directly governed by extraction or consumption;
 - C. dependent on the extent of use and physical deterioration on account of wear and tear which again depends on operational factors, such as, the number of shifts for which the asset is to be used, repair and maintenance policy of the enterprise etc.; and
 - D. reduced by obsolescence arising from such factors as:
 - a. technological changes;
 - b. improvement in production methods;
 - c. change in market demand for the product or service output of the asset; or
 - d. legal or other restrictions.
8. Determination of the useful life of a depreciable asset is a matter of estimation and is normally based on various factors including experience with similar types of assets. Such estimation is more difficult for an asset using new technology or used in the production of a new product or in the provision of a new service but is nevertheless required on some reasonable basis.
9. Any addition or extension to an existing asset which is of a capital nature and which becomes an integral part of the existing asset is depreciated over the remaining useful life of that asset. As a practical measure, however, depreciation is sometimes provided on such addition or extension at the rate which is applied to an existing asset. Any addition or extension which retains a separate identity and is capable of being used after the existing asset is disposed of, is depreciated independently on the basis of an estimate of its own useful life.
10. Determination of residual value of an asset is normally a difficult matter. If such value is considered as insignificant, it is normally regarded as nil. On the contrary, if the residual value is likely to be significant, it is estimated at the time of acquisition/installation, or at the time of subsequent revaluation of the asset. One of the bases for determining the residual value would be the realisable value of similar assets which have reached the end of their useful lives

- and have operated under conditions similar to those in which the asset will be used.
11. The quantum of depreciation to be provided in an accounting period involves the exercise of judgement by management in the light of technical, commercial, accounting and legal requirements and accordingly may need periodical review. If it is considered that the original estimate of useful life of an asset requires any revision, the unamortised depreciable amount of the asset is charged to revenue over the revised remaining useful life.
 12. There are several methods of allocating depreciation over the useful life of the assets. Those most commonly employed in industrial and commercial enterprises are the straight line method and the reducing balance method. The management of a business selects the most appropriate method(s) based on various important factors e.g., (i) type of asset, (ii) the nature of the use of such asset and (iii) circumstances prevailing in the business. A combination of more than one method is sometimes used. In respect of depreciable assets which do not have material value, depreciation is often allocated fully in the accounting period in which they are acquired.
 13. The statute governing an enterprise may provide the basis for computation of the depreciation. For example, the Companies Act, 1956 lays down the rates of depreciation in respect of various assets. Where the management's estimate of the useful life of an asset of the enterprise is shorter than that envisaged under the provisions of the relevant statute, the depreciation provision is appropriately computed by applying a higher rate. If the management's estimate of the useful life of the asset is longer than that envisaged under the statute, depreciation rate lower than that envisaged by the statute can be applied only in accordance with requirements of the statute.
 14. Where depreciable assets are disposed of, discarded, demolished or destroyed, the net surplus or deficiency, if material, is disclosed separately.
 15. The method of depreciation is applied consistently to provide comparability of the results of the operations of the enterprise from period to period. A change from one method of providing depreciation to another is made only if the adoption of the new method is required by statute or for compliance with an accounting standard or if it is considered that the change would result in a more appropriate preparation or presentation of the financial statements of the enterprise. When such a change in the method of depreciation is made, depreciation is recalculated in accordance with the new method from the date of the asset coming into use. The deficiency or surplus arising from retrospective recomputation of depreciation in accordance with the new method is adjusted in the accounts in the year in which the method of depreciation is changed. In case the change in the method results in deficiency in depreciation in respect of past years, the deficiency is charged in the statement of profit and loss. In case the change in the method results in surplus, the surplus is credited to the statement of profit and loss. Such a change is treated as a change in accounting policy and its effect is quantified and disclosed.
 16. Where the historical cost of an asset has undergone a change due to circumstances specified in paragraph 6 above, the depreciation on the revised unamortised depreciable amount is provided prospectively over the residual useful life of the asset.

Disclosure

17. The depreciation methods used, the total depreciation for the period for each class of assets, the gross amount of each class of depreciable assets and the related accumulated depreciation are disclosed in the financial statements along with the disclosure of other accounting policies. The depreciation rates or the

useful lives of the assets are disclosed only if they are different from the principal rates specified in the statute governing the enterprise.

18. In case the depreciable assets are revalued, the provision for depreciation is based on the revalued amount on the estimate of the remaining useful life of such assets. In case the revaluation has a material effect on the amount of depreciation, the same is disclosed separately in the year in which revaluation is carried out.
19. A change in the method of depreciation is treated as a change in an accounting policy and is disclosed accordingly.

Accounting Standard

20. ***The depreciable amount of a depreciable asset should be allocated on a systematic basis to each accounting period during the useful life of the asset.***
21. ***The depreciation method selected should be applied consistently from period to period. A change from one method of providing depreciation to another should be made only if the adoption of the new method is required by statute or for compliance with an accounting standard or if it is considered that the change would result in a more appropriate preparation or presentation of the financial statements of the enterprise. When such a change in the method of depreciation is made, depreciation should be recalculated in accordance with the new method from the date of the asset coming into use. The deficiency or surplus arising from retrospective recomputation of depreciation in accordance with the new method should be adjusted in the accounts in the year in which the method of depreciation is changed. In case the change in the method results in deficiency in depreciation in respect of past years, the deficiency should be charged in the statement of profit and loss. In case the change in the method results in surplus, the surplus should be credited to the statement of profit and loss. Such a change should be treated as a change in accounting policy and its effect should be quantified and disclosed.***
22. ***The useful life of a depreciable asset should be estimated after considering the following factors:***
 - A. ***expected physical wear and tear;***
 - B. ***obsolescence;***
 - C. ***legal or other limits on the use of the asset.***
23. ***The useful lives of major depreciable assets or classes of depreciable assets may be reviewed periodically. Where there is a revision of the estimated useful life of an asset, the unamortised depreciable amount should be charged over the revised remaining useful life.***
24. ***Any addition or extension which becomes an integral part of the existing asset should be depreciated over the remaining useful life of that asset. The depreciation on such addition or extension may also be provided at the rate applied to the existing asset. Where an addition or extension retains a separate identity and is capable of being used after the existing asset is disposed of, depreciation should be provided independently on the basis of an estimate of its own useful life.***
25. ***Where the historical cost of a depreciable asset has undergone a change due to increase or decrease in long term liability on account of exchange fluctuations, price adjustments, changes in duties or similar factors, the depreciation on the revised unamortised depreciable amount should be provided prospectively over the residual useful life of the asset.***

- 26. Where the depreciable assets are revalued, the provision for depreciation should be based on the revalued amount and on the estimate of the remaining useful lives of such assets. In case the revaluation has a material effect on the amount of depreciation, the same should be disclosed separately in the year in which revaluation is carried out.**
- 27. If any depreciable asset is disposed of, discarded, demolished or destroyed, the net surplus or deficiency, if material, should be disclosed separately.**
- 28. The following information should be disclosed in the financial statements:**
 - A. the historical cost or other amount substituted for historical cost of each class of depreciable assets;**
 - B. total depreciation for the period for each class of assets; and**
 - C. the related accumulated depreciation.**
- 29. The following information should also be disclosed in the financial statements along with the disclosure of other accounting policies:**
 - A. depreciation methods used; and**
 - B. depreciation rates or the useful lives of the assets, if they are different from the principal rates specified in the statute governing the enterprise.**

Accounting Standard – 7, Construction Contracts (issued in December, 1983; revised in 2002)

(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in **bold italic** type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)

Accounting Standard (AS) 7, Construction Contracts (revised 2002), issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, comes into effect in respect of all contracts entered into during accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2003 and is mandatory in nature from that date. Accordingly, Accounting Standard (AS) 7, 'Accounting for Construction Contracts', issued by the Institute in December 1983, is not applicable in respect of such contracts. Early application of this Standard is, however, encouraged. The following is the text of the revised Accounting Standard.

Objective

The objective of this Statement is to prescribe the accounting treatment of revenue and costs associated with construction contracts. Because of the nature of the activity undertaken in construction contracts, the date at which the contract activity is entered into and the date when the activity is completed usually fall into different accounting periods. Therefore, the primary issue in accounting for construction contracts is the allocation of contract revenue and contract costs to the accounting periods in which construction work is performed. This Statement uses the recognition criteria established in the Framework for the Preparation and Presentation of Financial Statements to determine when contract revenue and contract costs should be recognized as revenue and expenses in the statement of profit and loss. It also provides practical guidance on the application of these criteria.

Scope

1. ***This Statement should be applied in accounting for construction contracts in the financial statements of contractors.***

Definitions

2. ***The following terms are used in this Statement with the meanings specified:***

A construction contract is a contract specifically negotiated for the construction of an asset or a combination of assets that are closely interrelated or interdependent in terms of their design, technology and function or their ultimate purpose or use.

A fixed price contract is a construction contract in which the contractor agrees to a fixed contract price, or a fixed rate per unit of output, which in some cases is subject to cost escalation clauses.

A cost plus contract is a construction contract in which the contractor is reimbursed for allowable or otherwise defined costs, plus percentage of these costs or a fixed fee.

3. A construction contract may be negotiated for the construction of a single asset such as a bridge, building, dam, pipeline, road, ship or tunnel. A construction contract may also deal with the construction of a number of assets which are closely interrelated or interdependent in terms of their design, technology and function or their ultimate purpose or use; examples of such contracts include those for the construction of refineries and other complex pieces of plant or equipment.
4. For the purposes of this Statement, construction contracts include:
 - A. contracts for the rendering of services which are directly related to the construction of the asset, for example, those for the services of project managers and architects; and
 - B. contracts for destruction or restoration of assets, and the restoration of the environment following the demolition of assets.
5. Construction contracts are formulated in a number of ways which, for the purposes of this Statement, are classified as fixed price contracts and cost plus contracts. Some construction contracts may contain characteristics of both a fixed price contract and a cost plus contract, for example, in the case of a cost plus contract with an agreed maximum price. In such circumstances, a contractor needs to consider all the conditions in paragraphs 22 and 23 in order to determine when to recognise contract revenue and expenses.

Combining and Segmenting Construction Contracts

6. The requirements of this Statement are usually applied separately to each construction contract. However, in certain circumstances, it is necessary to apply the Statement to the separately identifiable components of a single contract or to a group of contracts together in order to reflect the substance of a contract or a group of contracts.
7. ***When a contract covers a number of assets, the construction of each asset should be treated as a separate construction contract when:***
 - A. *separate proposals have been submitted for each asset;*
 - B. *each asset has been subject to separate negotiation and the contractor and customer have been able to accept or reject that part of the contract relating to each asset; and*
 - C. *the costs and revenues of each asset can be identified.*
8. ***A group of contracts, whether with a single customer or with several customers, should be treated as a single construction contract when:***
 - A. *the group of contracts is negotiated as a single package;*
 - B. *the contracts are so closely interrelated that they are, in effect, part of a single project with an overall profit margin; and*
 - C. *the contracts are performed concurrently or in a continuous sequence.*
9. ***A contract may provide for the construction of an additional asset at the option of the customer or may be amended to include the construction of an additional asset. The construction of the additional asset should be treated as a separate construction contract when:***
 - A. *the asset differs significantly in design, technology or function from the asset or assets covered by the original contract; or*
 - B. *the price of the asset is negotiated without regard to the original contract price.*

Contract Revenue

10. ***Contract revenue should comprise:***
 - A. *the initial amount of revenue agreed in the contract; and*

- B. variations in contract work, claims and incentive payments:**
- a. to the extent that it is probable that they will result in revenue; and**
 - b. they are capable of being reliably measured.**

11. Contract revenue is measured at the consideration received or receivable. The measurement of contract revenue is affected by a variety of uncertainties that depend on the outcome of future events. The estimates often need to be revised as events occur and uncertainties are resolved. Therefore, the amount of contract revenue may increase or decrease from one period to the next. For example:
- A. a contractor and a customer may agree to variations or claims that increase or decrease contract revenue in a period subsequent to that in which the contract was initially agreed;
 - B. the amount of revenue agreed in a fixed price contract may increase as a result of cost escalation clauses;
 - C. the amount of contract revenue may decrease as a result of penalties arising from delays caused by the contractor in the completion of the contract; or
 - D. when a fixed price contract involves a fixed price per unit of output, contract revenue increases as the number of units is increased.
12. A variation is an instruction by the customer for a change in the scope of the work to be performed under the contract. A variation may lead to an increase or a decrease in contract revenue. Examples of variations are changes in the specifications or design of the asset and changes in the duration of the contract. A variation is included in contract revenue when:
- A. it is probable that the customer will approve the variation and the amount of revenue arising from the variation; and
 - B. the amount of revenue can be reliably measured.
13. A claim is an amount that the contractor seeks to collect from the customer or another party as reimbursement for costs not included in the contract price. A claim may arise from, for example, customer caused delays, errors in specifications or design, and disputed variations in contract work. The measurement of the amounts of revenue arising from claims is subject to a high level of uncertainty and often depends on the outcome of negotiations. Therefore, claims are only included in contract revenue when:
- A. negotiations have reached an advanced stage such that it is probable that the customer will accept the claim; and
 - B. the amount that it is probable will be accepted by the customer can be measured reliably.
14. Incentive payments are additional amounts payable to the contractor if specified performance standards are met or exceeded. For example, a contract may allow for an incentive payment to the contractor for early completion of the contract. Incentive payments are included in contract revenue when:
- A. the contract is sufficiently advanced that it is probable that the specified performance standards will be met or exceeded; and
 - B. the amount of the incentive payment can be measured reliably.

Contract Costs

- 15. Contract costs should comprise:**
- A. costs that relate directly to the specific contract;**
 - B. costs that are attributable to contract activity in general and can be allocated to the contract; and**
 - C. such other costs as are specifically chargeable to the customer under the terms of the contract.**

16. Costs that relate directly to a specific contract include:
- A. site labour costs, including site supervision;
 - B. costs of materials used in construction;
 - C. depreciation of plant and equipment used on the contract;
 - D. costs of moving plant, equipment and materials to and from the contract site;
 - E. costs of hiring plant and equipment;
 - F. costs of design and technical assistance that is directly related to the contract;
 - G. the estimated costs of rectification and guarantee work, including expected warranty costs; and
 - H. claims from third parties.
- These costs may be reduced by any incidental income that is not included in contract revenue, for example income from the sale of surplus materials and the disposal of plant and equipment at the end of the contract.
17. Costs that may be attributable to contract activity in general and can be allocated to specific contracts include:
- A. insurance;
 - B. costs of design and technical assistance that is not directly related to a specific contract; and
 - C. construction overheads.
- Such costs are allocated using methods that are systematic and rational and are applied consistently to all costs having similar characteristics. The allocation is based on the normal level of construction activity. Construction overheads include costs such as the preparation and processing of construction personnel payroll. Costs that may be attributable to contract activity in general and can be allocated to specific contracts also include borrowing costs as per Accounting Standard (AS) 16, Borrowing Costs.
18. Costs that are specifically chargeable to the customer under the terms of the contract may include some general administration costs and development costs for which reimbursement is specified in the terms of the contract.
19. Costs that cannot be attributed to contract activity or cannot be allocated to a contract are excluded from the costs of a construction contract. Such costs include:
- A. general administration costs for which reimbursement is not specified in the contract;
 - B. selling costs;
 - C. research and development costs for which reimbursement is not specified in the contract; and
 - D. depreciation of idle plant and equipment that is not used on a particular contract.
20. Contract costs include the costs attributable to a contract for the period from the date of securing the contract to the final completion of the contract. However, costs that relate directly to a contract and which are incurred in securing the contract are also included as part of the contract costs if they can be separately identified and measured reliably and it is probable that the contract will be obtained. When costs incurred in securing a contract are recognised as an expense in the period in which they are incurred, they are not included in contract costs when the contract is obtained in a subsequent period.

Recognition of Contract Revenue and Expenses

- 21. When the outcome of a construction contract can be estimated reliably, contract revenue and contract costs associated with the construction contract should be recognised as revenue and expenses respectively by**

reference to the stage of completion of the contract activity at the reporting date. An expected loss on the construction contract should be recognised as an expense immediately in accordance with paragraph 35.

22. In the case of a fixed price contract, the outcome of a construction contract can be estimated reliably when all the following conditions are satisfied:

- A. total contract revenue can be measured reliably;**
- B. it is probable that the economic benefits associated with the contract will flow to the enterprise;**
- C. both the contract costs to complete the contract and the stage of contract completion at the reporting date can be measured reliably; and**
- D. the contract costs attributable to the contract can be clearly identified and measured reliably so that actual contract costs incurred can be compared with prior estimates.**

23. In the case of a cost plus contract, the outcome of a construction contract can be estimated reliably when all the following conditions are satisfied:

- A. it is probable that the economic benefits associated with the contract will flow to the enterprise; and**
- B. the contract costs attributable to the contract, whether or not specifically reimbursable, can be clearly identified and measured reliably.**

24. The recognition of revenue and expenses by reference to the stage of completion of a contract is often referred to as the percentage of completion method. Under this method, contract revenue is matched with the contract costs incurred in reaching the stage of completion, resulting in the reporting of revenue, expenses and profit which can be attributed to the proportion of work completed. This method provides useful information on the extent of contract activity and performance during a period.

25. Under the percentage of completion method, contract revenue is recognised as revenue in the statement of profit and loss in the accounting periods in which the work is performed. Contract costs are usually recognized as an expense in the statement of profit and loss in the accounting periods in which the work to which they relate is performed. However, any expected excess of total contract costs over total contract revenue for the contract is recognised as an expense immediately in accordance with paragraph 35.

26. A contractor may have incurred contract costs that relate to future activity on the contract. Such contract costs are recognised as an asset provided it is probable that they will be recovered. Such costs represent an amount due from the customer and are often classified as contract work in progress.

27. When an uncertainty arises about the collectability of an amount already included in contract revenue, and already recognised in the statement of profit and loss, the uncollectable amount or the amount in respect of which recovery has ceased to be probable is recognised as an expense rather than as an adjustment of the amount of contract revenue.

28. An enterprise is generally able to make reliable estimates after it has agreed to a contract which establishes:

- A. each party's enforceable rights regarding the asset to be constructed;
- B. the consideration to be exchanged; and
- C. the manner and terms of settlement.

It is also usually necessary for the enterprise to have an effective internal financial budgeting and reporting system. The enterprise reviews and, when necessary, revises the estimates of contract revenue and contract costs as the

- contract progresses. The need for such revisions does not necessarily indicate that the outcome of the contract cannot be estimated reliably.
29. The stage of completion of a contract may be determined in a variety of ways. The enterprise uses the method that measures reliably the work performed. Depending on the nature of the contract, the methods may include:
- A. the proportion that contract costs incurred for work performed upto the reporting date bear to the estimated total contract costs; or
 - B. surveys of work performed; or
 - C. completion of a physical proportion of the contract work.
- Progress payments and advances received from customers may not necessarily reflect the work performed.
30. When the stage of completion is determined by reference to the contract costs incurred upto the reporting date, only those contract costs that reflect work performed are included in costs incurred upto the reporting date. Examples of contract costs which are excluded are:
- A. contract costs that relate to future activity on the contract, such as costs of materials that have been delivered to a contract site or set aside for use in a contract but not yet installed, used or applied during contract performance, unless the materials have been made specially for the contract; and
 - B. payments made to subcontractors in advance of work performed under the subcontract.
- 31. When the outcome of a construction contract cannot be estimated reliably:**
- A. revenue should be recognised only to the extent of contract costs incurred of which recovery is probable; and**
 - B. contract costs should be recognised as an expense in the period in which they are incurred.**
- An expected loss on the construction contract should be recognised as an expense immediately in accordance with paragraph 35.**
32. During the early stages of a contract it is often the case that the outcome of the contract cannot be estimated reliably. Nevertheless, it may be probable that the enterprise will recover the contract costs incurred. Therefore, contract revenue is recognised only to the extent of costs incurred that are expected to be recovered. As the outcome of the contract cannot be estimated reliably, no profit is recognised. However, even though the outcome of the contract cannot be estimated reliably, it may be probable that total contract costs will exceed total contract revenue. In such cases, any expected excess of total contract costs over total contract revenue for the contract is recognised as an expense immediately in accordance with paragraph 35.
33. Contract costs recovery of which is not probable are recognised as an expense immediately. Examples of circumstances in which the recoverability of contract costs incurred may not be probable and in which contract costs may, therefore, need to be recognised as an expense immediately include contracts:
- A. which are not fully enforceable, that is, their validity is seriously in question;
 - B. the completion of which is subject to the outcome of pending litigation or legislation;
 - C. relating to properties that are likely to be condemned or expropriated;
 - D. where the customer is unable to meet its obligations; or
 - E. where the contractor is unable to complete the contract or otherwise meet its obligations under the contract.
- 34. When the uncertainties that prevented the outcome of the contract being estimated reliably no longer exist, revenue and expenses associated with the construction contract should be recognised in**

accordance with paragraph 21 rather than in accordance with paragraph 31.

Recognition of Expected Losses

- 35. When it is probable that total contract costs will exceed total contract revenue, the expected loss should be recognised as an expense immediately.**
36. The amount of such a loss is determined irrespective of:
- A. whether or not work has commenced on the contract;
 - B. the stage of completion of contract activity; or
 - C. the amount of profits expected to arise on other contracts which are not treated as a single construction contract in accordance with paragraph 8.

Changes in Estimates

37. The percentage of completion method is applied on a cumulative basis in each accounting period to the current estimates of contract revenue and contract costs. Therefore, the effect of a change in the estimate of contract revenue or contract costs, or the effect of a change in the estimate of the outcome of a contract, is accounted for as a change in accounting estimate (see Accounting Standard (AS) 5, Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period Items and Changes in Accounting Policies). The changed estimates are used in determination of the amount of revenue and expenses recognized in the statement of profit and loss in the period in which the change is made and in subsequent periods.

Disclosure

- 38. An enterprise should disclose:**
- A. **the amount of contract revenue recognised as revenue in the period;**
 - B. **the methods used to determine the contract revenue recognized in the period; and**
 - C. **the methods used to determine the stage of completion of contracts in progress.**
- 39. An enterprise should disclose the following for contracts in progress at the reporting date:**
- A. **the aggregate amount of costs incurred and recognised profits (less recognised losses) upto the reporting date;**
 - B. **the amount of advances received; and**
 - C. **the amount of retentions.**
40. Retentions are amounts of progress billings which are not paid until the satisfaction of conditions specified in the contract for the payment of such amounts or until defects have been rectified. Progress billings are amounts billed for work performed on a contract whether or not they have been paid by the customer. Advances are amounts received by the contractor before the related work is performed.
- 41. An enterprise should present:**
- A. **the gross amount due from customers for contract work as an asset; and**
 - B. **the gross amount due to customers for contract work as a liability.**
42. The gross amount due from customers for contract work is the net amount of:
- A. costs incurred plus recognised profits; less

- B. the sum of recognised losses and progress billings for all contracts in progress for which costs incurred plus recognised profits (less recognised losses) exceeds progress billings.
43. The gross amount due to customers for contract work is the net amount of:
- A. the sum of recognised losses and progress billings; less
 - B. costs incurred plus recognised profits for all contracts in progress for which progress billings exceed costs incurred plus recognised profits (less recognised losses).
44. An enterprise discloses any contingencies in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 4, Contingencies and Events Occurring After the Balance Sheet Date. Contingencies may arise from such items as warranty costs, penalties or possible losses.

Ishan

Accounting Standard – 8, Accounting for Research and Development (revised in 2002)

(Accounting Standard 8, Accounting for Research and Development, is removed; and the contents of same is now added in AS 26, Intangible Assets, becoming mandatory for respective enterprises.)

Ishan

Accounting Standard – 9, Revenue Recognition (issued in 1985)

*(This Accounting Standard includes **paragraphs 10-14** set in **bold italic** type and **paragraphs 1-9** set in plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)*

The following is the text of the Accounting Standard (AS) 9 issued by the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India on Revenue Recognition :

In the initial years, this accounting standard will be recommendatory in character. During this period, this standard is recommended for use by companies listed on a recognised stock exchange and other large commercial, industrial and business enterprises in the public and private sectors.

Introduction

1. This Statement deals with the bases for recognition of revenue in the statement of profit and loss of an enterprise. The Statement is concerned with the recognition of revenue arising in the course of the ordinary activities of the enterprise from:
 - A. the sale of goods,
 - B. the rendering of services, and
 - C. the use by others of enterprise resources yielding interest, royalties and dividends.
2. This Statement does not deal with the following aspects of revenue recognition to which special considerations apply:
 - A. Revenue arising from construction contracts;
 - B. Revenue arising from hire-purchase, lease agreements;
 - C. Revenue arising from government grants and other similar subsidies;
 - D. Revenue of insurance companies arising from insurance contracts.
3. Examples of items not included within the definition of "revenue" for the purpose of this Statement are:
 - A. Realised gains resulting from the disposal of, and unrealised gains resulting from the holding of, non-current assets e.g. appreciation in the value of fixed assets;
 - B. Unrealised holding gains resulting from the change in value of current assets, and the natural increases in herds and agricultural and forest products;
 - C. Realised or unrealised gains resulting from changes in foreign exchange rates and adjustments arising on the translation of foreign currency financial statements;
 - D. Realised gains resulting from the discharge of an obligation at less than its carrying amount;
 - E. Unrealised gains resulting from the restatement of the carrying amount of an obligation.

Definitions

4. **The following terms are used in this Statement with the meanings specified:**

Revenue is the gross inflow of cash, receivables or other consideration arising in the course of the ordinary activities of an enterprise from the sale of goods, from the rendering of services, and from the use by others of enterprise resources yielding interest, royalties and dividends. Revenue is measured by the charges made to customers or clients for goods supplied and services rendered to them and by the charges and rewards arising from the use of resources by them. In an agency relationship, the revenue is the amount of commission and not the gross inflow of cash, receivables or other consideration.

Completed service contract method is a method of accounting which recognises revenue in the statement of profit and loss only when the rendering of services under a contract is completed or substantially completed.

Proportionate completion method is a method of accounting which recognises revenue in the statement of profit and loss proportionately with the degree of completion of services under a contract.

Explanation

5. Revenue recognition is mainly concerned with the timing of recognition of revenue in the statement of profit and loss of an enterprise. The amount of revenue arising on a transaction is usually determined by agreement between the parties involved in the transaction. When uncertainties exist regarding the determination of the amount, or its associated costs, these uncertainties may influence the timing of revenue recognition.

6. **Sale of Goods**

- 6.1 A key criterion for determining when to recognise revenue from a transaction involving the sale of goods is that the seller has transferred the property in the goods to the buyer for a consideration. The transfer of property in goods, in most cases, results in or coincides with the transfer of significant risks and rewards of ownership to the buyer. However, there may be situations where transfer of property in goods does not coincide with the transfer of significant risks and rewards of ownership. Revenue in such situations is recognised at the time of transfer of significant risks and rewards of ownership to the buyer. Such cases may arise where delivery has been delayed through the fault of either the buyer or the seller and the goods are at the risk of the party at fault as regards any loss which might not have occurred but for such fault. Further, sometimes the parties may agree that the risk will pass at a time different from the time when ownership passes.
- 6.2 At certain stages in specific industries, such as when agricultural crops have been harvested or mineral ores have been extracted, performance may be substantially complete prior to the execution of the transaction generating revenue. In such cases when sale is assured under a forward contract or a government guarantee or where market exists and there is a negligible risk of failure to sell, the goods involved are often valued at net realisable value. Such amounts, while not revenue as defined in this Statement, are sometimes recognised in the statement of profit and loss and appropriately described.

7. Rendering of Services

Revenue from service transactions is usually recognised as the service is performed, either by the proportionate completion method or by the completed service contract method.

- A. Proportionate completion method—Performance consists of the execution of more than one act. Revenue is recognized proportionately by reference to the performance of each act. The revenue recognised under this method would be determined on the basis of contract value, associated costs, number of acts or other suitable basis. For practical purposes, when services are provided by an indeterminate number of acts over a specific period of time, revenue is recognised on a straight line basis over the specific period unless there is evidence that some other method better represents the pattern of performance.
- B. Completed service contract method—Performance consists of the execution of a single act. Alternatively, services are performed in more than a single act, and the services yet to be performed are so significant in relation to the transaction taken as a whole that performance cannot be deemed to have been completed until the execution of those acts. The completed service contract method is relevant to these patterns of performance and accordingly revenue is recognised when the sole or final act takes place and the service becomes chargeable.

8. The Use by Others of Enterprise Resources Yielding Interest, Royalties and Dividends

- 8.1 The use by others of such enterprise resources gives rise to:
 - A. interest—charges for the use of cash resources or amounts due to the enterprise;
 - B. royalties—charges for the use of such assets as know-how, patents, trade marks and copyrights;
 - C. dividends—rewards from the holding of investments in shares.
- 8.2 Interest accrues, in most circumstances, on the time basis determined by the amount outstanding and the rate applicable. Usually, discountor premium on debt securities held is treated as though it were accruing over the period to maturity.
- 8.3 Royalties accrue in accordance with the terms of the relevant agreement and are usually recognised on that basis unless, having regard to the substance of the transactions, it is more appropriate to recognise revenue on some other systematic and rational basis.
- 8.4 Dividends from investments in shares are not recognised in the statement of profit and loss until a right to receive payment is established.
- 8.5 When interest, royalties and dividends from foreign countries require exchange permission and uncertainty in remittance is anticipated, revenue recognition may need to be postponed.

9. Effect of Uncertainties on Revenue Recognition

- 9.1 Recognition of revenue requires that revenue is measurable and that at the time of sale or the rendering of the service it would not be unreasonable to expect ultimate collection.
- 9.2 Where the ability to assess the ultimate collection with reasonable certainty is lacking at the time of raising any claim, e.g., for escalation of price, export incentives, interest etc., revenue recognition is postponed to the extent of uncertainty involved. In such cases, it may be appropriate to recognise revenue only when it is reasonably certain that the ultimate collection will be made. Where there is no uncertainty as to ultimate

collection, revenue is recognised at the time of sale or rendering of service even though payments are made by instalments.

- 9.3 When the uncertainty relating to collectability arises subsequent to the time of sale or the rendering of the service, it is more appropriate to make a separate provision to reflect the uncertainty rather than to adjust the amount of revenue originally recorded.
- 9.4 An essential criterion for the recognition of revenue is that the consideration receivable for the sale of goods, the rendering of services or from the use by others of enterprise resources is reasonably determinable. When such consideration is not determinable within reasonable limits, the recognition of revenue is postponed.
- 9.5 When recognition of revenue is postponed due to the effect of uncertainties, it is considered as revenue of the period in which it is properly recognised.

Accounting Standard

- 10. Revenue from sales or service transactions should be recognized when the requirements as to performance set out in paragraphs 11 and 12 are satisfied, provided that at the time of performance it is not unreasonable to expect ultimate collection. If at the time of raising of any claim it is unreasonable to expect ultimate collection, revenue recognition should be postponed.**
- 11. In a transaction involving the sale of goods, performance should be regarded as being achieved when the following conditions have been fulfilled:**
- A. the seller of goods has transferred to the buyer the property in the goods for a price or all significant risks and rewards of ownership have been transferred to the buyer and the seller retains no effective control of the goods transferred to a degree usually associated with ownership; and**
 - B. no significant uncertainty exists regarding the amount of the consideration that will be derived from the sale of the goods.**
- 12. In a transaction involving the rendering of services, performance should be measured either under the completed service contract method or under the proportionate completion method, whichever relates the revenue to the work accomplished. Such performance should be regarded as being achieved when no significant uncertainty exists regarding the amount of the consideration that will be derived from rendering the service.**
- 13. Revenue arising from the use by others of enterprise resources yielding interest, royalties and dividends should only be recognised when no significant uncertainty as to measurability or collectability exists. These revenues are recognised on the following bases:**
- A. Interest : on a time proportion basis taking into account the amount outstanding and the rate applicable.**
 - B. Royalties : on an accrual basis in accordance with the terms of the relevant agreement.**
 - C. Dividends from investments in shares : when the owner's right to receive payment is established.**

Disclosure

- 14. *In addition to the disclosures required by Accounting Standard 1 on Disclosure of Accounting Policies' (AS 1), an enterprise should also disclose the circumstances in which revenue recognition has been postponed pending the resolution of significant uncertainties.***

Ishan

Accounting Standard – 10, Accounting for Fixed Assets (issued in 1985)

*(This Accounting Standard includes **paragraphs 18-39** set in **bold italic** type and **paragraphs 1-17** set in plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)*

The following is the text of the Accounting Standard (AS) 10 issued by the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India on 'Accounting for Fixed Assets' :

In the initial years, this accounting standard will be recommendatory in character. During this period, this standard is recommended for use by companies listed on a recognised stock exchange and other large commercial, industrial and business enterprises in the public and private sectors.

Introduction

1. Financial statements disclose certain information relating to fixed assets. In many enterprises these assets are grouped into various categories, such as land, buildings, plant and machinery, vehicles, furniture and fittings, goodwill, patents, trade marks and designs. This statement deals with accounting for such fixed assets except as described in paragraphs 2 to 5 below.
2. This statement does not deal with the specialised aspects of accounting for fixed assets that arise under a comprehensive system reflecting the effects of changing prices but applies to financial statements prepared on historical cost basis.
3. This statement does not deal with accounting for the following items to which special considerations apply:
 - A. forests, plantations and similar regenerative natural resources;
 - B. wasting assets including mineral rights, expenditure on the exploration for and extraction of minerals, oil, natural gas and similar non-regenerative resources;
 - C. expenditure on real estate development; and
 - D. livestock.Expenditure on individual items of fixed assets used to develop or maintain the activities covered in A. to D. above, but separable from those activities, are to be accounted for in accordance with this Statement.
4. This statement does not cover the allocation of the depreciable amount of fixed assets to future periods since this subject is dealt with in Accounting Standard 6 on Depreciation Accounting.
5. This statement does not deal with the treatment of government grants and subsidies, and assets under leasing rights. It makes only a brief reference to the capitalisation of borrowing costs and to assets acquired in an amalgamation or merger. These subjects require more extensive consideration than can be given within this Statement.

Definitions

6. ***The following terms are used in this Statement with the meanings specified:***

Fixed asset is an asset held with the intention of being used for the purpose of producing or providing goods or services and is not held for sale in the normal course of business.

Fair market value is the price that would be agreed to in an open and unrestricted market between knowledgeable and willing parties dealing at arm's length who are fully informed and are not under any compulsion to transact.

Gross book value of a fixed asset is its historical cost or other amount substituted for historical cost in the books of account or financial statements. When this amount is shown net of accumulated depreciation, it is termed as net book value.

Explanation

7. Fixed assets often comprise a significant portion of the total assets of an enterprise, and therefore are important in the presentation of financial position. Furthermore, the determination of whether an expenditure represents an asset or an expense can have a material effect on an enterprise's reported results of operations.

8. **Identification of Fixed Assets**

- 8.1 The definition in paragraph 6.1 gives criteria for determining whether items are to be classified as fixed assets. Judgement is required in applying the criteria to specific circumstances or specific types of enterprises. It may be appropriate to aggregate individually insignificant items, and to apply the criteria to the aggregate value. An enterprise may decide to expense an item which could otherwise have been included as fixed asset, because the amount of the expenditure is not material.
- 8.2 Stand-by equipment and servicing equipment are normally capitalised. Machinery spares are usually charged to the profit and loss statement as and when consumed. However, if such spares can be used only in connection with an item of fixed asset and their use is expected to be irregular, it may be appropriate to allocate the total cost on a systematic basis over a period not exceeding the useful life of the principal item.
- 8.3 In certain circumstances, the accounting for an item of fixed asset may be improved if the total expenditure thereon is allocated to its component parts, provided they are in practice separable, and estimates are made of the useful lives of these components. For example, rather than treat an aircraft and its engines as one unit, it may be better to treat the engines as a separate unit if it is likely that their useful life is shorter than that of the aircraft as a whole.

9. **Components of Cost**

- 9.1 The cost of an item of fixed asset comprises its purchase price, including import duties and other non-refundable taxes or levies and any directly attributable cost of bringing the asset to its working condition for its intended use; any trade discounts and rebates are deducted in arriving at the purchase price. Examples of directly attributable costs are:
- A. site preparation;
 - B. initial delivery and handling costs;
 - C. installation cost, such as special foundations for plant; and
 - D. professional fees, for example fees of architects and engineers.

The cost of a fixed asset may undergo changes subsequent to its acquisition or construction on account of exchange fluctuations, price adjustments, changes in duties or similar factors.

- 9.2 Financing costs relating to deferred credits or to borrowed funds attributable to construction or acquisition of fixed assets for the period up to the completion of construction or acquisition of fixed assets are also sometimes included in the gross book value of the asset to which they relate. However, financing costs (including interest) on fixed assets purchased on a deferred credit basis or on monies borrowed for construction or acquisition of fixed assets are not capitalised to the extent that such costs relate to periods after such assets are ready to be put to use.
- 9.3 Administration and other general overhead expenses are usually excluded from the cost of fixed assets because they do not relate to a specific fixed asset. However, in some circumstances, such expenses as are specifically attributable to construction of a project or to the acquisition of a fixed asset or bringing it to its working condition, may be included as part of the cost of the construction project or as a part of the cost of the fixed asset.
- 9.4 The expenditure incurred on start-up and commissioning of the project, including the expenditure incurred on test runs and experimental production, is usually capitalised as an indirect element of the construction cost. However, the expenditure incurred after the plant has begun commercial production, i.e., production intended for sale or captive consumption, is not capitalized and is treated as revenue expenditure even though the contract may stipulate that the plant will not be finally taken over until after the satisfactory completion of the guarantee period.
- 9.5 If the interval between the date a project is ready to commence commercial production and the date at which commercial production actually begins is prolonged, all expenses incurred during this period are charged to the profit and loss statement. However, the expenditure incurred during this period is also sometimes treated as deferred revenue expenditure to be amortised over a period not exceeding 3 to 5 years after the commencement of commercial production.

10. Self-constructed Fixed Assets

In arriving at the gross book value of self-constructed fixed assets, the same principles apply as those described in paragraphs 9.1 to 9.5. Included in the gross book value are costs of construction that relate directly to the specific asset and costs, that are attributable to the construction activity in general and can be allocated to the specific asset. Any internal profits are eliminated in arriving at such costs.

11. Non-monetary Consideration

- 11.1 When a fixed asset is acquired in exchange for another asset, its cost is usually determined by reference to the fair market value of the consideration given. It may be appropriate to consider also the fair market value of the asset acquired if this is more clearly evident. An alternative accounting treatment that is sometimes used for an exchange of assets, particularly when the assets exchanged are similar, is to record the asset acquired at the net book value of the asset given up; in each case an adjustment is made for any balancing receipt or payment of cash or other consideration.

- 11.2 When a fixed asset is acquired in exchange for shares or other securities in the enterprise, it is usually recorded at its fair market value, or the fair market value of the securities issued, whichever is more clearly evident.

12. Improvements and Repairs

- 12.1 Frequently, it is difficult to determine whether subsequent expenditure related to fixed asset represents improvements that ought to be added to the gross book value or repairs that ought to be charged to the profit and loss statement. Only expenditure that increases the future benefits from the existing asset beyond its previously assessed standard of performance is included in the gross book value, e.g., an increase in capacity.
- 12.2 The cost of an addition or extension to an existing asset which is of a capital nature and which becomes an integral part of the existing asset is usually added to its gross book value. Any addition or extension, which has a separate identity and is capable of being used after the existing asset is disposed of, is accounted for separately.

13. Amount Substituted for Historical Cost

- 13.1 Sometimes financial statements that are otherwise prepared on a historical cost basis include part or all of fixed assets at a valuation in substitution for historical costs and depreciation is calculated accordingly. Such financial statements are to be distinguished from financial statements prepared on a basis intended to reflect comprehensively the effects of changing prices.
- 13.2 A commonly accepted and preferred method of restating fixed assets is by appraisal, normally undertaken by competent valuers. Other methods sometimes used are indexation and reference to current prices which when applied are cross checked periodically by appraisal method.
- 13.3 The revalued amounts of fixed assets are presented in financial statements either by restating both the gross book value and accumulated depreciation so as to give a net book value equal to the net revalued amount or by restating the net book value by adding therein the net increase on account of revaluation. An upward revaluation does not provide a basis for crediting to the profit and loss statement the accumulated depreciation existing at the date of revaluation.
- 13.4 Different bases of valuation are sometimes used in the same financial statements to determine the book value of the separate items within each of the categories of fixed assets or for the different categories of fixed assets. In such cases, it is necessary to disclose the gross book value included on each basis.
- 13.5 Selective revaluation of assets can lead to unrepresentative amounts being reported in financial statements. Accordingly, when revaluations do not cover all the assets of a given class, it is appropriate that the selection of assets to be revalued be made on a systematic basis. For example, an enterprise may revalue a whole class of assets within a unit.
- 13.6 It is not appropriate for the revaluation of a class of assets to result in the net book value of that class being greater than the recoverable amount of the assets of that class.
- 13.7 An increase in net book value arising on revaluation of fixed assets is normally credited directly to owner's interests under the heading of revaluation reserves and is regarded as not available for distribution. A decrease in net book value arising on revaluation of fixed assets is charged to profit and loss statement except that, to the extent that such a decrease is considered to be related to a previous increase on revaluation that is included in revaluation reserve, it is sometimes charged against

that earlier increase. It sometimes happens that an increase to be recorded is a reversal of a previous decrease arising on revaluation which has been charged to profit and loss statement in which case the increase is credited to profit and loss statement to the extent that it offsets the previously recorded decrease.

14. Retirements and Disposals

- 14.1 An item of fixed asset is eliminated from the financial statements on disposal.
- 14.2 Items of fixed assets that have been retired from active use and are held for disposal are stated at the lower of their net book value and net realisable value and are shown separately in the financial statements. Any expected loss is recognised immediately in the profit and loss statement.
- 14.3 In historical cost financial statements, gains or losses arising on disposal are generally recognised in the profit and loss statement.
- 14.4 On disposal of a previously revalued item of fixed asset, the difference between net disposal proceeds and the net book value is normally charged or credited to the profit and loss statement except that, to the extent such a loss is related to an increase which was previously recorded as a credit to revaluation reserve and which has not been subsequently reversed or utilised, it is charged directly to that account. The amount standing in revaluation reserve following the retirement or disposal of an asset which relates to that asset may be transferred to general reserve.

15. Valuation of Fixed Assets in Special Cases

- 15.1 In the case of fixed assets acquired on hire purchase terms, although legal ownership does not vest in the enterprise, such assets are recorded at their cash value, which, if not readily available, is calculated by assuming an appropriate rate of interest. They are shown in the balance sheet with an appropriate narration to indicate that the enterprise does not have full ownership thereof.
- 15.2 Where an enterprise owns fixed assets jointly with others (otherwise than as a partner in a firm), the extent of its share in such assets, and the proportion in the original cost, accumulated depreciation and written down value are stated in the balance sheet. Alternatively, the pro rata cost of such jointly owned assets is grouped together with similar fully owned assets. Details of such jointly owned assets are indicated separately in the fixed assets register.
- 15.3 Where several assets are purchased for a consolidated price, the consideration is apportioned to the various assets on a fair basis as determined by competent valuers.

16. Fixed Assets of Special Types

- 16.1 Goodwill, in general, is recorded in the books only when some consideration in money or money's worth has been paid for it. Whenever a business is acquired for a price (payable either in cash or in shares or otherwise) which is in excess of the value of the net assets of the business taken over, the excess is termed as goodwill. Goodwill arises from business connections, trade name or reputation of an enterprise or from other intangible benefits enjoyed by an enterprise.
- 16.2 As a matter of financial prudence, goodwill is written off over a period. However, many enterprises do not write off goodwill and retain it as an asset.

- 16.3 Patents are normally acquired in two ways: (i) by purchase, in which case patents are valued at the purchase cost including incidental expenses, stamp duty, etc. and (ii) by development within the enterprise, in which case identifiable costs incurred in developing the patents are capitalised. Patents are normally written off over their legal term of validity or over their working life, whichever is shorter.
- 16.4 Know-how in general is recorded in the books only when some consideration in money or money's worth has been paid for it. Know-how is generally of two types:
- A. relating to manufacturing processes; and
 - B. relating to plans, designs and drawings of buildings or plant and machinery.
- 16.5 Know-how related to plans, designs and drawings of buildings or plant and machinery is capitalised under the relevant asset heads. In such cases depreciation is calculated on the total cost of those assets, including the cost of the know-how capitalised. Know-how related to manufacturing processes is usually expensed in the year in which it is incurred.
- 16.6 Where the amount paid for know-how is a composite sum in respect of both the types mentioned in paragraph 16.4, such consideration is apportioned amongst them on a reasonable basis.
- 16.7 Where the consideration for the supply of know-how is a series of recurring annual payments as royalties, technical assistance fees, contribution to research, etc., such payments are charged to the profit and loss statement each year.

17. Disclosure

- 17.1 Certain specific disclosures on accounting for fixed assets are already required by Accounting Standard 1 on 'Disclosure of Accounting Policies' and Accounting Standard 6 on 'Depreciation Accounting'.
- 17.2 Further disclosures that are sometimes made in financial statements include:
- A. gross and net book values of fixed assets at the beginning and end of an accounting period showing additions, disposals, acquisitions and other movements;
 - B. expenditure incurred on account of fixed assets in the course of construction or acquisition; and
 - C. revalued amounts substituted for historical costs of fixed assets, the method adopted to compute the revalued amounts, the nature of any indices used, the year of any appraisal made, and whether an external valuer was involved, in case where fixed assets are stated at revalued amounts.

Accounting Standard

- 18. The items determined in accordance with the definition in paragraph 6.1 of this Statement should be included under fixed assets in financial statements.**
- 19. The gross book value of a fixed asset should be either historical cost or a revaluation computed in accordance with this Standard. The method of accounting for fixed assets included at historical cost is set out in paragraphs 20 to 26; the method of accounting of revalued assets is set out in paragraphs 27 to 32.**
- 20. The cost of a fixed asset should comprise its purchase price and any attributable cost of bringing the asset to its working condition for its intended use. The cost of a fixed asset should comprise its purchase**

price and any attributable cost of bringing the asset to its working condition for its intended use. Financing costs relating to deferred credits or to borrowed funds attributable to construction or acquisition of fixed assets for the period up to the completion of construction or acquisition of fixed assets should also be included in the gross book value of the asset to which they relate. However, the financing costs (including interest) on fixed assets purchased on a deferred credit basis or on monies borrowed for construction or acquisition of fixed assets should not be capitalised to the extent that such costs relate to periods after such assets are ready to be put to use.

- 21. The cost of a self-constructed fixed asset should comprise those costs that relate directly to the specific asset and those that are attributable to the construction activity in general and can be allocated to the specific asset.**
- 22. When a fixed asset is acquired in exchange or in part exchange for another asset, the cost of the asset acquired should be recorded either at fair market value or at the net book value of the asset given up, adjusted for any balancing payment or receipt of cash or other consideration. For these purposes fair market value may be determined by reference either to the asset given up or to the asset acquired, whichever is more clearly evident. Fixed asset acquired in exchange for shares or other securities in the enterprise should be recorded at its fair market value, or the fair market value of the securities issued, whichever is more clearly evident.**
- 23. Subsequent expenditures related to an item of fixed asset should be added to its book value only if they increase the future benefits from the existing asset beyond its previously assessed standard of performance.**
- 24. Material items retired from active use and held for disposal should be stated at the lower of their net book value and net realisable value and shown separately in the financial statements.**
- 25. Fixed asset should be eliminated from the financial statements on disposal or when no further benefit is expected from its use and disposal.**
- 26. Losses arising from the retirement or gains or losses arising from disposal of fixed asset which is carried at cost should be recognised in the profit and loss statement.**
- 27. When a fixed asset is revalued in financial statements, an entire class of assets should be revalued, or the selection of assets for revaluation should be made on a systematic basis. This basis should be disclosed.**
- 28. The revaluation in financial statements of a class of assets should not result in the net book value of that class being greater than the recoverable amount of assets of that class.**
- 29. When a fixed asset is revalued upwards, any accumulated depreciation existing at the date of the revaluation should not be credited to the profit and loss statement.**
- 30. An increase in net book value arising on revaluation of fixed assets should be credited directly to owners' interests under the head of revaluation reserve, except that, to the extent that such increase is related to and not greater than a decrease arising on revaluation previously recorded as a charge to the profit and loss statement, it may be credited to the profit and loss statement. A decrease in net book value arising on revaluation of fixed asset should be charged directly to the profit and loss statement except that to the extent that such a decrease is related to an increase which was previously recorded as a**

credit to revaluation reserve and which has not been subsequently reversed or utilised, it may be charged directly to that account.

- 31.** *The provisions of paragraphs 23, 24 and 25 are also applicable to fixed assets included in financial statements at a revaluation.*
- 32.** *On disposal of a previously revalued item of fixed asset, the difference between net disposal proceeds and the net book value should be charged or credited to the profit and loss statement except that to the extent that such a loss is related to an increase which was previously recorded as a credit to revaluation reserve and which has not been subsequently reversed or utilised, it may be charged directly to that account.*
- 33.** *Fixed assets acquired on hire purchase terms should be recorded at their cash value, which, if not readily available, should be calculated by assuming an appropriate rate of interest. They should be shown in the balance sheet with an appropriate narration to indicate that the enterprise does not have full ownership thereof.*
- 34.** *In the case of fixed assets owned by the enterprise jointly with others, the extent of the enterprise's share in such assets, and the proportion of the original cost, accumulated depreciation and written down value should be stated in the balance sheet. Alternatively, the pro rata cost of such jointly owned assets may be grouped together with similar fully owned assets with an appropriate disclosure thereof.*
- 35.** *Where several fixed assets are purchased for a consolidated price, the consideration should be apportioned to the various assets on a fair basis as determined by competent valuers.*
- 36.** *Goodwill should be recorded in the books only when some consideration in money or money's worth has been paid for it. Whenever a business is acquired for a price (payable in cash or in shares or otherwise) which is in excess of the value of the net assets of the business taken over, the excess should be termed as 'goodwill'.*
- 37.** *The direct costs incurred in developing the patents should be capitalized and written off over their legal term of validity or over their working life, whichever is shorter.*
- 38.** *Amount paid for know-how for the plans, layout and designs of buildings and/or design of the machinery should be capitalised under the relevant asset heads, such as buildings, plants and machinery, etc. Depreciation should be calculated on the total cost of those assets, including the cost of the know-how capitalised. Where the amount paid for know-how is a composite sum in respect of both the manufacturing process as well as plans, drawings and designs for buildings, plant and machinery, etc., the management should apportion such consideration into two parts on a reasonable basis.*

Disclosure

- 39.** *The following information should be disclosed in the financial statements:*
 - A.** *gross and net book values of fixed assets at the beginning and end of an accounting period showing additions, disposals, acquisitions and other movements;*
 - B.** *expenditure incurred on account of fixed assets in the course of construction or acquisition; and*
 - C.** *revalued amounts substituted for historical costs of fixed assets, the method adopted to compute the revalued amounts, the nature of indices used, the year of any appraisal made, and whether an*

external valuer was involved, in case where fixed assets are stated at revalued amounts.

Ishan

Accounting Standard – 11, The Effects of Changes in Foreign Exchange Rates (issued in 1994; revised in 2003)

*(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in **bold italic** type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)*

Accounting Standard (AS) 11, The Effects of Changes in Foreign Exchange Rates (revised 2003), issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, comes into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2004 and is mandatory in nature from that date. The revised Standard supersedes Accounting Standard (AS) 11, Accounting for the Effects of Changes in Foreign Exchange Rates (1994), except that in respect of accounting for transactions in foreign currencies entered into by the reporting enterprise itself or through its branches before the date this Standard comes into effect, AS 11 (1994) will continue to be applicable. The following is the text of the revised Accounting Standard.

Objective

An enterprise may carry on activities involving foreign exchange in two ways. It may have transactions in foreign currencies or it may have foreign operations. In order to include foreign currency transactions and foreign operations in the financial statements of an enterprise, transactions must be expressed in the enterprise's reporting currency and the financial statements of foreign operations must be translated into the enterprise's reporting currency.

The principal issues in accounting for foreign currency transactions and foreign operations are to decide which exchange rate to use and how to recognise in the financial statements the financial effect of changes in exchange rates.

Scope

1. ***This Statement should be applied:***
 - A. ***in accounting for transactions in foreign currencies; and***
 - B. ***in translating the financial statements of foreign operations.***
2. This Statement also deals with accounting for foreign currency transactions in the nature of forward exchange contracts.
3. This Statement does not specify the currency in which an enterprise presents its financial statements. However, an enterprise normally uses the currency of the country in which it is domiciled. If it uses a different currency, this Statement requires disclosure of the reason for using that currency. This Statement also requires disclosure of the reason for any change in the reporting currency.
4. This Statement does not deal with the restatement of an enterprise's financial statements from its reporting currency into another currency for the convenience of users accustomed to that currency or for similar purposes.
5. This Statement does not deal with the presentation in a cash flow statement of cash flows arising from transactions in a foreign currency and the translation of cash flows of a foreign operation (see AS 3, Cash Flow Statements).
6. This Statement does not deal with exchange differences arising from foreign currency borrowings to the extent that they are regarded as an adjustment to interest costs (see paragraph 4(e) of AS 16, Borrowing Costs).

Definitions

7. *The following terms are used in this Statement with the meanings specified:*

Average rate is the mean of the exchange rates in force during a period.

Closing rate is the exchange rate at the balance sheet date.

Exchange difference is the difference resulting from reporting the same number of units of a foreign currency in the reporting currency at different exchange rates.

Exchange rate is the ratio for exchange of two currencies.

Fair value is the amount for which an asset could be exchanged, or a liability settled, between knowledgeable, willing parties in an arm's length transaction.

Foreign currency is a currency other than the reporting currency of an enterprise.

Foreign operation is a subsidiary, associate, joint venture or branch of the reporting enterprise, the activities of which are based or conducted in a country other than the country of the reporting enterprise.

Forward exchange contract means an agreement to exchange different currencies at a forward rate.

Forward rate is the specified exchange rate for exchange of two currencies at a specified future date.

Integral foreign operation is a foreign operation, the activities of which are an integral part of those of the reporting enterprise.

Monetary items are money held and assets and liabilities to be received or paid in fixed or determinable amounts of money.

Net investment in a non-integral foreign operation is the reporting enterprise's share in the net assets of that operation.

Non-integral foreign operation is a foreign operation that is not an integral foreign operation.

Non-monetary items are assets and liabilities other than monetary items.

Reporting currency is the currency used in presenting the financial statements.

Foreign Currency Transactions

Initial Recognition

8. A foreign currency transaction is a transaction which is denominated in or requires settlement in a foreign currency, including transactions arising when an enterprise either:

- A. buys or sells goods or services whose price is denominated in a foreign currency;
 - B. borrows or lends funds when the amounts payable or receivable are denominated in a foreign currency;
 - C. becomes a party to an unperformed forward exchange contract; or
 - D. otherwise acquires or disposes of assets, or incurs or settles liabilities, denominated in a foreign currency.
9. ***A foreign currency transaction should be recorded, on initial recognition in the reporting currency, by applying to the foreign currency amount the exchange rate between the reporting currency and the foreign currency at the date of the transaction.***
10. For practical reasons, a rate that approximates the actual rate at the date of the transaction is often used, for example, an average rate for a week or a month might be used for all transactions in each foreign currency occurring during that period. However, if exchange rates fluctuate significantly, the use of the average rate for a period is unreliable.

Reporting at Subsequent Balance Sheet Dates

11. ***At each balance sheet date:***

- A. ***foreign currency monetary items should be reported using the closing rate. However, in certain circumstances, the closing rate may not reflect with reasonable accuracy the amount in reporting currency that is likely to be realised from, or required to disburse, a foreign currency monetary item at the balance sheet date, e.g., where there are restrictions on remittances or where the closing rate is unrealistic and it is not possible to effect an exchange of currencies at that rate at the balance sheet date. In such circumstances, the relevant monetary item should be reported in the reporting currency at the amount which is likely to be realised from, or required to disburse, such item at the balance sheet date;***
 - B. ***non-monetary items which are carried in terms of historical cost denominated in a foreign currency should be reported using the exchange rate at the date of the transaction; and***
 - C. ***non-monetary items which are carried at fair value or other similar valuation denominated in a foreign currency should be reported using the exchange rates that existed when the values were determined.***
12. Cash, receivables, and payables are examples of monetary items. Fixed assets, inventories, and investments in equity shares are examples of non-monetary items. The carrying amount of an item is determined in accordance with the relevant Accounting Standards. For example, certain assets may be measured at fair value or other similar valuation (e.g., net realisable value) or at historical cost. Whether the carrying amount is determined based on fair value or other similar valuation or at historical cost, the amounts so determined for foreign currency items are then reported in the reporting currency in accordance with this Statement. The contingent liability denominated in foreign currency at the balance sheet date is disclosed by using the closing rate.

Recognition of Exchange Differences

13. ***Exchange differences arising on the settlement of monetary items or on reporting an enterprise's monetary items at rates different from those at which they were initially recorded during the period, or reported in previous financial statements, should be recognised as income or as***

expenses in the period in which they arise, with the exception of exchange differences dealt with in accordance with paragraph 15.

14. An exchange difference results when there is a change in the exchange rate between the transaction date and the date of settlement of any monetary items arising from a foreign currency transaction. When the transaction is settled within the same accounting period as that in which it occurred, all the exchange difference is recognised in that period. However, when the transaction is settled in a subsequent accounting period, the exchange difference recognised in each intervening period up to the period of settlement is determined by the change in exchange rates during that period.

Net Investment in a Non-integral Foreign Operation

15. ***Exchange differences arising on a monetary item that, in substance, forms part of an enterprise's net investment in a non-integral foreign operation should be accumulated in a foreign currency translation reserve in the enterprise's financial statements until the disposal of the net investment, at which time they should be recognized as income or as expenses in accordance with paragraph 31.***
16. An enterprise may have a monetary item that is receivable from, or payable to, a non-integral foreign operation. An item for which settlement is neither planned nor likely to occur in the foreseeable future is, in substance, an extension to, or deduction from, the enterprise's net investment in that non-integral foreign operation. Such monetary items may include long-term receivables or loans but do not include trade receivables or trade payables.

Financial Statements of Foreign Operations

Classification of Foreign Operations

17. The method used to translate the financial statements of a foreign operation depends on the way in which it is financed and operates in relation to the reporting enterprise. For this purpose, foreign operations are classified as either "integral foreign operations" or "non-integral foreign operations".
18. A foreign operation that is integral to the operations of the reporting enterprise carries on its business as if it were an extension of the reporting enterprise's operations. For example, such a foreign operation might only sell goods imported from the reporting enterprise and remit the proceeds to the reporting enterprise. In such cases, a change in the exchange rate between the reporting currency and the currency in the country of foreign operation has an almost immediate effect on the reporting enterprise's cash flow from operations. Therefore, the change in the exchange rate affects the individual monetary items held by the foreign operation rather than the reporting enterprise's net investment in that operation.
19. In contrast, a non-integral foreign operation accumulates cash and other monetary items, incurs expenses, generates income and perhaps arranges borrowings, all substantially in its local currency. It may also enter into transactions in foreign currencies, including transactions in the reporting currency. When there is a change in the exchange rate between the reporting currency and the local currency, there is little or no direct effect on the present and future cash flows from operations of either the non-integral foreign operation or the reporting enterprise. The change in the exchange rate affects the reporting enterprise's net investment in the non-integral foreign operation rather than the individual monetary and non-monetary items held by the non-integral foreign operation.
20. The following are indications that a foreign operation is a non-integral foreign operation rather than an integral foreign operation:

- A. while the reporting enterprise may control the foreign operation, the activities of the foreign operation are carried out with a significant degree of autonomy from those of the reporting enterprise;
- B. transactions with the reporting enterprise are not a high proportion of the foreign operation's activities;
- C. the activities of the foreign operation are financed mainly from its own operations or local borrowings rather than from the reporting enterprise;
- D. costs of labour, material and other components of the foreign operation's products or services are primarily paid or settled in the local currency rather than in the reporting currency;
- E. the foreign operation's sales are mainly in currencies other than the reporting currency;
- F. cash flows of the reporting enterprise are insulated from the day-to-day activities of the foreign operation rather than being directly affected by the activities of the foreign operation;
- G. sales prices for the foreign operation's products are not primarily responsive on a short-term basis to changes in exchange rates but are determined more by local competition or local government regulation; and
- H. there is an active local sales market for the foreign operation's products, although there also might be significant amounts of exports.

The appropriate classification for each operation can, in principle, be established from factual information related to the indicators listed above. In some cases, the classification of a foreign operation as either a non-integral foreign operation or an integral foreign operation of the reporting enterprise may not be clear, and judgement is necessary to determine the appropriate classification.

Integral Foreign Operations

- 21. ***The financial statements of an integral foreign operation should be translated using the principles and procedures in paragraphs 8 to 16 as if the transactions of the foreign operation had been those of the reporting enterprise itself.***
- 22. The individual items in the financial statements of the foreign operation are translated as if all its transactions had been entered into by the reporting enterprise itself. The cost and depreciation of tangible fixed assets is translated using the exchange rate at the date of purchase of the asset or, if the asset is carried at fair value or other similar valuation, using the rate that existed on the date of the valuation. The cost of inventories is translated at the exchange rates that existed when those costs were incurred. The recoverable amount or realisable value of an asset is translated using the exchange rate that existed when the recoverable amount or net realizable value was determined. For example, when the net realisable value of an item of inventory is determined in a foreign currency, that value is translated using the exchange rate at the date as at which the net realisable value is determined. The rate used is therefore usually the closing rate. An adjustment may be required to reduce the carrying amount of an asset in the financial statements of the reporting enterprise to its recoverable amount or net realisable value even when no such adjustment is necessary in the financial statements of the foreign operation. Alternatively, an adjustment in the financial statements of the foreign operation may need to be reversed in the financial statements of the reporting enterprise.
- 23. For practical reasons, a rate that approximates the actual rate at the date of the transaction is often used, for example, an average rate for a week or a month might be used for all transactions in each foreign currency occurring during that period. However, if exchange rates fluctuate significantly, the use of the average rate for a period is unreliable.

Non-integral Foreign Operations

- 24. In translating the financial statements of a non-integral foreign operation for incorporation in its financial statements, the reporting enterprise should use the following procedures:**
- A. the assets and liabilities, both monetary and non-monetary, of the non-integral foreign operation should be translated at the closing rate;**
 - B. income and expense items of the non-integral foreign operation should be translated at exchange rates at the dates of the transactions; and**
 - C. all resulting exchange differences should be accumulated in a foreign currency translation reserve until the disposal of the net investment.**
25. For practical reasons, a rate that approximates the actual exchange rates, for example an average rate for the period, is often used to translate income and expense items of a foreign operation.
26. The translation of the financial statements of a non-integral foreign operation results in the recognition of exchange differences arising from:
- A. translating income and expense items at the exchange rates at the dates of transactions and assets and liabilities at the closing rate;
 - B. translating the opening net investment in the non-integral foreign operation at an exchange rate different from that at which it was previously reported; and
 - C. other changes to equity in the non-integral foreign operation.
- These exchange differences are not recognised as income or expenses for the period because the changes in the exchange rates have little or no direct effect on the present and future cash flows from operations of either the non-integral foreign operation or the reporting enterprise. When a non-integral foreign operation is consolidated but is not wholly owned, accumulated exchange differences arising from translation and attributable to minority interests are allocated to, and reported as part of, the minority interest in the consolidated balance sheet.
27. Any goodwill or capital reserve arising on the acquisition of a non-integral foreign operation is translated at the closing rate in accordance with paragraph 24.
28. A contingent liability disclosed in the financial statements of a non-integral foreign operation is translated at the closing rate for its disclosure in the financial statements of the reporting enterprise.
29. The incorporation of the financial statements of a non-integral foreign operation in those of the reporting enterprise follows normal consolidation procedures, such as the elimination of intra-group balances and intra-group transactions of a subsidiary (see AS 21, Consolidated Financial Statements, and AS 27, Financial Reporting of Interests in Joint Ventures). However, an exchange difference arising on an intra-group monetary item, whether short-term or long-term, cannot be eliminated against a corresponding amount arising on other intra-group balances because the monetary item represents a commitment to convert one currency into another and exposes the reporting enterprise to a gain or loss through currency fluctuations. Accordingly, in the consolidated financial statements of the reporting enterprise, such an exchange difference continues to be recognised as income or an expense or, if it arises from the circumstances described in paragraph 15, it is accumulated in a foreign currency translation reserve until the disposal of the net investment.
30. When the financial statements of a non-integral foreign operation are drawn up to a different reporting date from that of the reporting enterprise, the non-integral foreign operation often prepares, for purposes of incorporation in the

financial statements of the reporting enterprise, statements as at the same date as the reporting enterprise. When it is impracticable to do this, AS 21, Consolidated Financial Statements, allows the use of financial statements drawn up to a different reporting date provided that the difference is no greater than six months and adjustments are made for the effects of any significant transactions or other events that occur between the different reporting dates. In such a case, the assets and liabilities of the non-integral foreign operation are translated at the exchange rate at the balance sheet date of the non-integral foreign operation and adjustments are made when appropriate for significant movements in exchange rates up to the balance sheet date of the reporting enterprises in accordance with AS 21. The same approach is used in applying the equity method to associates and in applying proportionate consolidation to joint ventures in accordance with AS 23, Accounting for Investments in Associates in Consolidated Financial Statements and AS 27, Financial Reporting of Interests in Joint Ventures.

Disposal of a Non-integral Foreign Operation

- 31. *On the disposal of a non-integral foreign operation, the cumulative amount of the exchange differences which have been deferred and which relate to that operation should be recognised as income or as expenses in the same period in which the gain or loss on disposal is recognised.***
32. An enterprise may dispose of its interest in a non-integral foreign operation through sale, liquidation, repayment of share capital, or abandonment of all, or part of, that operation. The payment of a dividend forms part of a disposal only when it constitutes a return of the investment. In the case of a partial disposal, only the proportionate share of the related accumulated exchange differences is included in the gain or loss. A write down of the carrying amount of a non-integral foreign operation does not constitute a partial disposal. Accordingly, no part of the deferred foreign exchange gain or loss is recognised at the time of a write-down.

Change in the Classification of a Foreign Operation

- 33. *When there is a change in the classification of a foreign operation, the translation procedures applicable to the revised classification should be applied from the date of the change in the classification.***
34. The consistency principle requires that foreign operation once classified as integral or non-integral is continued to be so classified. However, a change in the way in which a foreign operation is financed and operates in relation to the reporting enterprise may lead to a change in the classification of that foreign operation. When a foreign operation that is integral to the operations of the reporting enterprise is reclassified as a non-integral foreign operation, exchange differences arising on the translation of non-monetary assets at the date of the reclassification are accumulated in a foreign currency translation reserve. When a non-integral foreign operation is reclassified as an integral foreign operation, the translated amounts for non-monetary items at the date of the change are treated as the historical cost for those items in the period of change and subsequent periods. Exchange differences which have been deferred are not recognised as income or expenses until the disposal of the operation.

All Changes in Foreign Exchange Rates

Tax Effects of Exchange Differences

35. Gains and losses on foreign currency transactions and exchange differences arising on the translation of the financial statements of foreign operations may

have associated tax effects which are accounted for in accordance with AS 22, Accounting for Taxes on Income.

Forward Exchange Contracts

- 36. An enterprise may enter into a forward exchange contract or another financial instrument that is in substance a forward exchange contract, which is not intended for trading or speculation purposes, to establish the amount of the reporting currency required or available at the settlement date of a transaction. The premium or discount arising at the inception of such a forward exchange contract should be amortised as expense or income over the life of the contract. Exchange differences on such a contract should be recognised in the statement of profit and loss in the reporting period in which the exchange rates change. Any profit or loss arising on cancellation or renewal of such a forward exchange contract should be recognized as income or as expense for the period.**
37. The risks associated with changes in exchange rates may be mitigated by entering into forward exchange contracts. Any premium or discount arising at the inception of a forward exchange contract is accounted for separately from the exchange differences on the forward exchange contract. The premium or discount that arises on entering into the contract is measured by the difference between the exchange rate at the date of the inception of the forward exchange contract and the forward rate specified in the contract. Exchange difference on a forward exchange contract is the difference between (a) the foreign currency amount of the contract translated at the exchange rate at the reporting date, or the settlement date where the transaction is settled during the reporting period, and (b) the same foreign currency amount translated at the latter of the date of inception of the forward exchange contract and the last reporting date.
- 38. A gain or loss on a forward exchange contract to which paragraph 36 does not apply should be computed by multiplying the foreign currency amount of the forward exchange contract by the difference between the forward rate available at the reporting date for the remaining maturity of the contract and the contracted forward rate (or the forward rate last used to measure a gain or loss on that contract for an earlier period). The gain or loss so computed should be recognised in the statement of profit and loss for the period. The premium or discount on the forward exchange contract is not recognised separately.**
39. In recording a forward exchange contract intended for trading or speculation purposes, the premium or discount on the contract is ignored and at each balance sheet date, the value of the contract is marked to its current market value and the gain or loss on the contract is recognised.

Disclosure

- 40. An enterprise should disclose:**
- A. the amount of exchange differences included in the net profit or loss for the period; and**
 - B. net exchange differences accumulated in foreign currency translation reserve as a separate component of shareholders' funds, and a reconciliation of the amount of such exchange differences at the beginning and end of the period.**
- 41. When the reporting currency is different from the currency of the country in which the enterprise is domiciled, the reason for using a different currency should be disclosed. The reason for any change in the reporting currency should also be disclosed.**

- 42. When there is a change in the classification of a significant foreign operation, an enterprise should disclose:**
- A. the nature of the change in classification;**
 - B. the reason for the change;**
 - C. the impact of the change in classification on shareholders' funds; and**
 - D. the impact on net profit or loss for each prior period presented had the change in classification occurred at the beginning of the earliest period presented.**
- 43. The effect on foreign currency monetary items or on the financial statements of a foreign operation of a change in exchange rates occurring after the balance sheet date is disclosed in accordance with AS 4, Contingencies and Events Occurring After the Balance Sheet Date.**
- 44. Disclosure is also encouraged of an enterprise's foreign currency risk management policy.**

Transitional Provisions

- 45. On the first time application of this Statement, if a foreign branch is classified as a non-integral foreign operation in accordance with the requirements of this Statement, the accounting treatment prescribed in paragraphs 33 and 34 of the Statement in respect of change in the classification of a foreign operation should be applied.**

Accounting Standard – 12,

Accounting for Government Grants

(issued in 1991)

(This Accounting Standard includes **paragraphs 13-23** set in **bold italic** type and **paragraphs 1-12** set in plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)

The following is the text of the Accounting Standard (AS) 12 issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India on 'Accounting for Government Grants'.

The Standard comes into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1.4.1992 and will be recommendatory in nature for an initial period of two years. Accordingly, the Guidance Note on 'Accounting for Capital Based Grants' issued by the Institute in 1981 shall stand withdrawn from this date. This Standard will become mandatory in respect of accounts for periods commencing on or after 1.4.1994.

Introduction

1. This Statement deals with accounting for government grants. Government grants are sometimes called by other names such as subsidies, cash incentives, duty drawbacks, etc.
2. This Statement does not deal with:
 - A. the special problems arising in accounting for government grants in financial statements reflecting the effects of changing prices or in supplementary information of a similar nature;
 - B. government assistance other than in the form of government grants;
 - C. government participation in the ownership of the enterprise.

Definitions

3. ***The following terms are used in this Statement with the meanings specified:***
Government refers to government, government agencies and similar bodies whether local, national or international.

Government grants are assistance by government in cash or kind to an enterprise for past or future compliance with certain conditions. They exclude those forms of government assistance which cannot reasonably have a value placed upon them and transactions with government which cannot be distinguished from the normal trading transactions of the enterprise.

Explanation

4. The receipt of government grants by an enterprise is significant for preparation of the financial statements for two reasons. Firstly, if a government grant has been received, an appropriate method of accounting there for is necessary. Secondly, it is desirable to give an indication of the extent to which the enterprise has benefited from such grant during the reporting period. This facilitates comparison of an enterprise's financial statements with those of prior periods and with those of other enterprises.

Accounting Treatment of Government Grants

5. Capital Approach versus Income Approach

- 5.1 Two broad approaches may be followed for the accounting treatment of government grants: the 'capital approach', under which a grant is treated as part of shareholders' funds, and the 'income approach', under which a grant is taken to income over one or more periods.
- 5.2 Those in support of the 'capital approach' argue as follows:
 - A. Many government grants are in the nature of promoters' contribution, i.e., they are given with reference to the total investment in an undertaking or by way of contribution towards its total capital outlay and no repayment is ordinarily expected in the case of such grants. These should, therefore, be credited directly to shareholders' funds.
 - B. It is inappropriate to recognise government grants in the profit and loss statement, since they are not earned but represent an incentive provided by government without related costs.
- 5.3 arguments in support of the 'income approach' are as follows:
 - A. Government grants are rarely gratuitous. The enterprise earns them through compliance with their conditions and meeting the envisaged obligations. They should therefore be taken to income and matched with the associated costs which the grant is intended to compensate.
 - B. As income tax and other taxes are charges against income, it is logical to deal also with government grants, which are an extension of fiscal policies, in the profit and loss statement.
 - C. In case grants are credited to shareholders' funds, no correlation is done between the accounting treatment of the grant and the accounting treatment of the expenditure to which the grant relates.
- 5.4 It is generally considered appropriate that accounting for government grant should be based on the nature of the relevant grant. Grants which have the characteristics similar to those of promoters' contribution should be treated as part of shareholders' funds. Income approach may be more appropriate in the case of other grants.
- 5.5 It is fundamental to the 'income approach' that government grants be recognised in the profit and loss statement on a systematic and rational basis over the periods necessary to match them with the related costs. Income recognition of government grants on a receipts basis is not in accordance with the accrual accounting assumption (see Accounting Standard (AS) 1, Disclosure of Accounting Policies).
- 5.6 In most cases, the periods over which an enterprise recognises the costs or expenses related to a government grant are readily ascertainable and thus grants in recognition of specific expenses are taken to income in the same period as the relevant expenses.

6. Recognition of Government Grants

- 6.1 Government grants available to the enterprise are considered for inclusion in accounts:
 - A. where there is reasonable assurance that the enterprise will comply with the conditions attached to them; and
 - B. where such benefits have been earned by the enterprise and it is reasonably certain that the ultimate collection will be made.Mere receipt of a grant is not necessarily a conclusive evidence that conditions attaching to the grant have been or will be fulfilled.
- 6.2 An appropriate amount in respect of such earned benefits, estimated on a prudent basis, is credited to income for the year even though the actual

amount of such benefits may be finally settled and received after the end of the relevant accounting period.

- 6.3 A contingency related to a government grant, arising after the grant has been recognised, is treated in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 4, Contingencies and Events Occurring After the Balance Sheet Date.
- 6.4 In certain circumstances, a government grant is awarded for the purpose of giving immediate financial support to an enterprise rather than as an incentive to undertake specific expenditure. Such grants may be confined to an individual enterprise and may not be available to a whole class of enterprises. These circumstances may warrant taking the grant to income in the period in which the enterprise qualifies to receive it, as an extraordinary item if appropriate (see Accounting Standard (AS) 5, Prior Period and Extraordinary Items and Changes in Accounting Policies).
- 6.5 Government grants may become receivable by an enterprise as compensation for expenses or losses incurred in a previous accounting period. Such a grant is recognised in the income statement of the period in which it becomes receivable, as an extraordinary item if appropriate (see Accounting Standard (AS) 5, Prior Period and Extraordinary Items and Changes in Accounting Policies).

7. Non-monetary Government Grants

Government grants may take the form of non-monetary assets, such as land or other resources, given at concessional rates. In these circumstances, it is usual to account for such assets at their acquisition cost. Non-monetary assets given free of cost are recorded at a nominal value.

8. Presentation of Grants Related to Specific Fixed Assets

- 8.1 Grants related to specific fixed assets are government grants whose primary condition is that an enterprise qualifying for them should purchase, construct or otherwise acquire such assets. Other conditions may also be attached restricting the type or location of the assets or the periods during which they are to be acquired or held.
- 8.2 Two methods of presentation in financial statements of grants (or the appropriate portions of grants) related to specific fixed assets are regarded as acceptable alternatives.
- 8.3 Under one method, the grant is shown as a deduction from the gross value of the asset concerned in arriving at its book value. The grant is thus recognised in the profit and loss statement over the useful life of a depreciable asset by way of a reduced depreciation charge. Where the grant equals the whole, or virtually the whole, of the cost of the asset, the asset is shown in the balance sheet at a nominal value.
- 8.4 Under the other method, grants related to depreciable assets are treated as deferred income which is recognised in the profit and loss statement on a systematic and rational basis over the useful life of the asset. Such allocation to income is usually made over the periods and in the proportions in which depreciation on related assets is charged. Grants related to non-depreciable assets are credited to capital reserve under this method, as there is usually no charge to income in respect of such assets. However, if a grant related to a non-depreciable asset requires the fulfillment of certain obligations, the grant is credited to income over the same period over which the cost of meeting such obligations is charged to income. The deferred income is suitably disclosed in the balance sheet pending its apportionment to profit and loss account. For example, in the case of a company, it is shown after 'Reserves and Surplus' but before

Secured Loans ' with a suitable description, e.g., Deferred government grants '.

- 8.5 The purchase of assets and the receipt of related grants can cause major movements in the cash flow of an enterprise. For this reason and in order to show the gross investment in assets, such movements are often disclosed as separate items in the statement of changes in financial position regardless of whether or not the grant is deducted from the related asset for the purpose of balance sheet presentation.

9. Presentation of Grants Related to Revenue

- 9.1 Grants related to revenue are sometimes presented as a credit in the profit and loss statement, either separately or under a general heading such as Other Income '. Alternatively, they are deducted in reporting the related expense.
- 9.2 Supporters of the first method claim that it is inappropriate to net income and expense items and that separation of the grant from the expense facilitates comparison with other expenses not affected by a grant. For the second method, it is argued that the expense might well not have been incurred by the enterprise if the grant had not been available and presentation of the expense without offsetting the grant may therefore be misleading.

10. Presentation of Grants of the nature of Promoters 'contribution

Where the government grants are of the nature of promoters 'contribution, i.e., they are given with reference to the total investment in an undertaking or by way of contribution towards its total capital outlay (for example, central investment subsidy scheme) and no repayment is ordinarily expected in respect thereof, the grants are treated as capital reserve which can be neither distributed as dividend nor considered as deferred income.

11. Refund of Government Grants

- 11.1 Government grants sometimes become refundable because certain conditions are not fulfilled. A government grant that becomes refundable is treated as an extraordinary item (see Accounting Standard (AS) 5, Prior Period and Extraordinary Items and Changes in Accounting Policies).
- 11.2 The amount refundable in respect of a government grant related to revenue is applied first against any unamortised deferred credit remaining in respect of the grant. To the extent that the amount refundable exceeds any such deferred credit, or where no deferred credit exists, the amount is charged immediately to profit and loss statement.
- 11.3 The amount refundable in respect of a government grant related to a specific fixed asset is recorded by increasing the book value of the asset or by reducing the capital reserve or the deferred income balance, as appropriate, by the amount refundable. In the first alternative, i.e., where the book value of the asset is increased, depreciation on the revised book value is provided prospectively over the residual useful life of the asset.
- 11.4 Where a grant which is in the nature of promoters 'contribution becomes refundable, in part or in full, to the government on non-fulfillment of some specified conditions, the relevant amount recoverable by the government is reduced from the capital reserve.

Disclosure

12. The following disclosures are appropriate:

- 12.1 the accounting policy adopted for government grants, including the methods of presentation in the financial statements;
- 12.2 the nature and extent of government grants recognised in the financial statements, including grants of non-monetary assets given at a concessional rate or free of cost.

Accounting Standard

- 13. ***Government grants should not be recognised until there is reasonable assurance that (i) the enterprise will comply with the conditions attached to them, and (ii) the grants will be received.***
- 14. ***Government grants related to specific fixed assets should be presented in the balance sheet by showing the grant as a deduction from the gross value of the assets concerned in arriving at their book value. Where the grant related to a specific fixed asset equals the whole, or virtually the whole, of the cost of the asset, the asset should be shown in the balance sheet at a nominal value. Alternatively, government grants related to depreciable fixed assets may be treated as deferred income which should be recognised in the profit and loss statement on a systematic and rational basis over the useful life of the asset, i.e., such grants should be allocated to income over the periods and in the proportions in which depreciation on those assets is charged. Grants related to non-depreciable assets should be credited to capital reserve under this method. However, if a grant related to a non-depreciable asset requires the fulfillment of certain obligations, the grant should be credited to income over the same period over which the cost of meeting such obligations is charged to income. The deferred income balance should be separately disclosed in the financial statements.***
- 15. ***Government grants related to revenue should be recognised on a systematic basis in the profit and loss statement over the periods necessary to match them with the related costs which they are intended to compensate. Such grants should either be shown separately under 'other income' or deducted in reporting the related expense.***
- 16. ***Government grants of the nature of promoters' contribution should be credited to capital reserve and treated as a part of shareholders' funds.***
- 17. ***Government grants in the form of non-monetary assets, given at a concessional rate, should be accounted for on the basis of their acquisition cost. In case a non-monetary asset is given free of cost, it should be recorded at a nominal value.***
- 18. ***Government grants that are receivable as compensation for expenses or losses incurred in a previous accounting period or for the purpose of giving immediate financial support to the enterprise with no further related costs, should be recognised and disclosed in the profit and loss statement of the period in which they are receivable, as an extraordinary item if appropriate (see Accounting Standard (AS) 5, Prior Period and Extraordinary Items and Changes in Accounting Policies).***
- 19. ***A contingency related to a government grant, arising after the grant has been recognised, should be treated in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 4, Contingencies and Events Occurring After the Balance Sheet Date.***
- 20. ***Government grants that become refundable should be accounted for as an extraordinary item (see Accounting Standard (AS) 5, Prior Period and Extraordinary Items and Changes in Accounting Policies).***
- 21. ***The amount refundable in respect of a grant related to revenue should be applied first against any unamortised deferred credit remaining in***

respect of the grant. To the extent that the amount refundable exceeds any such deferred credit, or where no deferred credit exists, the amount should be charged to profit and loss statement. The amount refundable in respect of a grant related to a specific fixed asset should be recorded by increasing the book value of the asset or by reducing the capital reserve or the deferred income balance, as appropriate, by the amount refundable. In the first alternative, i.e., where the book value of the asset is increased, depreciation on the revised book value should be provided prospectively over the residual useful life of the asset.

- 22. Government grants in the nature of promoters' contribution that become refundable should be reduced from the capital reserve.**

Disclosure

- 23. The following should be disclosed:**

- A. the accounting policy adopted for government grants, including the methods of presentation in the financial statements;**
- B. the nature and extent of government grants recognised in the financial statements, including grants of non-monetary assets given at a concessional rate or free of cost.**

Accounting Standard – 13, Accounting for Investments (issued in 1993)

(This Accounting Standard includes **paragraphs 26-35** set in **bold italic** type and **paragraphs 1-25** set in plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)

The following is the text of Accounting Standard (AS) 13, 'Accounting for Investments', issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India.

Introduction

1. This Statement deals with accounting for investments in the financial statements of enterprises and related disclosure requirements.
2. This Statement does not deal with:
 - A. the bases for recognition of interest, dividends and rentals earned on investments which are covered by Accounting Standard 9 on Revenue Recognition;
 - B. operating or finance leases;
 - C. investments of retirement benefit plans and life insurance enterprises; and
 - D. mutual funds and venture capital funds and/or the related asset management companies, banks and public financial institutions formed under a Central or State Government Act or so declared under the Companies Act, 1956.

Definitions

3. **The following terms are used in this Statement with the meanings assigned:**

Investments are assets held by an enterprise for earning income by way of dividends, interest, and rentals, for capital appreciation, or for other benefits to the investing enterprise. Assets held as stock-in-trade are not investments.

Current investment is an investment that is by its nature readily realisable and is intended to be held for not more than one year from the date on which such investment is made.

Long term investment is an investment other than a current investment.

Investment property is an investment in land or buildings that are not intended to be occupied substantially for use by, or in the operations of, the investing enterprise.

Fair value is the amount for which an asset could be exchanged between a knowledgeable, willing buyer and a knowledgeable, willing seller in an arm's length transaction. Under appropriate circumstances, market value or net realisable value provides an evidence of fair value.

Market value is the amount obtainable from the sale of an investment in an open market, net of expenses necessarily to be incurred on or before disposal.

Explanation

Forms of Investments

4. Enterprises hold investments for diverse reasons. For some enterprises, investment activity is a significant element of operations, and assessment of the performance of the enterprise may largely, or solely, depend on the reported results of this activity.
5. Some investments have no physical existence and are represented merely by certificates or similar documents (e.g., shares) while others exist in a physical form (e.g., buildings). The nature of an investment may be that of a debt, other than a short or long term loan or a trade debt, representing a monetary amount owing to the holder and usually bearing interest; alternatively, it may be a stake in the results and net assets of an enterprise such as an equity share. Most investments represent financial rights, but some are tangible, such as certain investments in land or buildings.
6. For some investments, an active market exists from which a market value can be established. For such investments, market value generally provides the best evidence of fair value. For other investments, an active market does not exist and other means are used to determine fair value.

Classification of Investments

7. Enterprises present financial statements that classify fixed assets, investments and current assets into separate categories. Investments are classified as long term investments and current investments. Current investments are in the nature of current assets, although the common practice may be to include them in investments.
8. Investments other than current investments are classified as long term investments, even though they may be readily marketable.

Cost of Investments

9. The cost of an investment includes acquisition charges such as brokerage, fees and duties.
10. If an investment is acquired, or partly acquired, by the issue of shares or other securities, the acquisition cost is the fair value of the securities issued (which, in appropriate cases, may be indicated by the issue price as determined by statutory authorities). The fair value may not necessarily be equal to the nominal or par value of the securities issued.
11. If an investment is acquired in exchange, or part exchange, for another asset, the acquisition cost of the investment is determined by reference to the fair value of the asset given up. It may be appropriate to consider the fair value of the investment acquired if it is more clearly evident.
12. Interest, dividends and rentals receivables in connection with an investment are generally regarded as income, being the return on the investment. However, in some circumstances, such inflows represent a recovery of cost and do not form part of income. For example, when unpaid interest has accrued before the acquisition of an interest-bearing investment and is therefore included in the price paid for the investment, the subsequent receipt of interest is allocated between pre-acquisition and post-acquisition periods; the pre-acquisition portion is deducted from cost. When dividends on equity are declared from pre-acquisition profits, a similar treatment may apply. If it is difficult to make such an allocation except on an arbitrary basis, the cost of investment is normally

reduced by dividends receivable only if they clearly represent a recovery of a part of the cost.

13. When right shares offered are subscribed for, the cost of the right shares is added to the carrying amount of the original holding. If rights are not subscribed for but are sold in the market, the sale proceeds are taken to the profit and loss statement. However, where the investments are acquired on cum-right basis and the market value of investments immediately after their becoming ex-right is lower than the cost for which they were acquired, it may be appropriate to apply the sale proceeds of rights to reduce the carrying amount of such investments to the market value.

Carrying Amount of Investments

Current Investments

14. The carrying amount for current investments is the lower of cost and fair value. In respect of investments for which an active market exists, market value generally provides the best evidence of fair value. The valuation of current investments at lower of cost and fair value provides a prudent method of determining the carrying amount to be stated in the balance sheet.
15. Valuation of current investments on overall (or global) basis is not considered appropriate. Sometimes, the concern of an enterprise may be with the value of a category of related current investments and not with each individual investment, and accordingly the investments may be carried at the lower of cost and fair value computed category wise (i.e. equity shares, preference shares, convertible debentures, etc.). However, the more prudent and appropriate method is to carry investments individually at the lower of cost and fair value.
16. For current investments, any reduction to fair value and any reversals of such reductions are included in the profit and loss statement.

Long-term Investments

17. Long-term investments are usually carried at cost. However, when there is a decline, other than temporary, in the value of a long term investment, the carrying amount is reduced to recognise the decline. Indicators of the value of an investment are obtained by reference to its market value, the investee's assets and results and the expected cash flows from the investment. The type and extent of the investor's stake in the investee are also taken into account. Restrictions on distributions by the investee or on disposal by the investor may affect the value attributed to the investment.
18. Long-term investments are usually of individual importance to the investing enterprise. The carrying amount of long-term investments is therefore determined on an individual investment basis.
19. Where there is a decline, other than temporary, in the carrying amounts of long term investments, the resultant reduction in the carrying amount is charged to the profit and loss statement. The reduction in carrying amount is reversed when there is a rise in the value of the investment, or if the reasons for the reduction no longer exist.

Investment Properties

20. The cost of any shares in a co-operative society or a company, the holding of which is directly related to the right to hold the investment property, is added to the carrying amount of the investment property.

Disposal of Investments

21. On disposal of an investment, the difference between the carrying amount and the disposal proceeds, net of expenses, is recognised in the profit and loss statement.
22. When disposing of a part of the holding of an individual investment, the carrying amount to be allocated to that part is to be determined on the basis of the average carrying amount of the total holding of the investment.

Reclassification of Investments

23. Where long-term investments are reclassified as current investments, transfers are made at the lower of cost and carrying amount at the date of transfer.
24. Where investments are reclassified from current to long-term, transfers are made at the lower of cost and fair value at the date of transfer.

Disclosure

25. The following disclosures in financial statements in relation to investments are appropriate:—
 - A. the accounting policies for the determination of carrying amount of investments;
 - B. the amounts included in profit and loss statement for:
 - a. interest, dividends (showing separately dividends from subsidiary companies), and rentals on investments showing separately such income from long term and current investments. Gross income should be stated, the amount of income tax deducted at source being included under Advance Taxes Paid;
 - b. profits and losses on disposal of current investments and changes in carrying amount of such investments;
 - c. profits and losses on disposal of long term investments and changes in the carrying amount of such investments;
 - C. significant restrictions on the right of ownership, realisability of investments or the remittance of income and proceeds of disposal;
 - D. the aggregate amount of quoted and unquoted investments, giving the aggregate market value of quoted investments;
 - E. other disclosures as specifically required by the relevant statute governing the enterprise.

Accounting Standard

Classification of Investments

26. ***An enterprise should disclose current investments and long term investments distinctly in its financial statements.***
27. ***Further classification of current and long-term investments should be as specified in the statute governing the enterprise. In the absence of a statutory requirement, such further classification should disclose, where applicable, investments in:***
 - A. Government or Trust securities**
 - B. Shares, debentures or bonds**
 - C. Investment properties**
 - D. Others—specifying nature.**

Cost of Investments

28. ***The cost of an investment should include acquisition charges such as brokerage, fees and duties.***
29. ***If an investment is acquired, or partly acquired, by the issue of shares or other securities, the acquisition cost should be the fair value of the***

securities issued (which in appropriate cases may be indicated by the issue price as determined by statutory authorities). The fair value may not necessarily be equal to the nominal or par value of the securities issued. If an investment is acquired in exchange for another asset, the acquisition cost of the investment should be determined by reference to the fair value of the asset given up. Alternatively, the acquisition cost of the investment may be determined with reference to the fair value of the investment acquired if it is more clearly evident.

Investment Properties

- 30. An enterprise holding investment properties should account for them as long term investments.**

Carrying Amount of Investments

- 31. Investments classified as current investments should be carried in the financial statements at the lower of cost and fair value determined either on an individual investment basis or by category of investment, but not on an overall (or global) basis.**
- 32. Investments classified as long term investments should be carried in the financial statements at cost. However, provision for diminution shall be made to recognise a decline, other than temporary, in the value of the investments, such reduction being determined and made for each investment individually.**

Changes in Carrying Amounts of Investments

- 33. Any reduction in the carrying amount and any reversals of such reductions should be charged or credited to the profit and loss statement.**

Disposal of Investments

- 34. On disposal of an investment, the difference between the carrying amount and net disposal proceeds should be charged or credited to the profit and loss statement.**

Disclosure

- 35. The following information should be disclosed in the financial statements:**
- A. the accounting policies for determination of carrying amount of investments;**
 - B. classification of investments as specified in paragraphs 26 and 27 above;**
 - C. the amounts included in profit and loss statement for:**
 - a. interest, dividends (showing separately dividends from subsidiary companies), and rentals on investments showing separately such income from long term and current investments. Gross income should be stated, the amount of income tax deducted at source being included under Advance Taxes Paid; (ii) profits and losses on disposal of current investments and changes in the carrying amount of such investments; and**
 - b. profits and losses on disposal of long term investments and changes in the carrying amount of such investments;**
 - D. significant restrictions on the right of ownership, realisability of investments or the remittance of income and proceeds of disposal;**

- E. the aggregate amount of quoted and unquoted investments, giving the aggregate market value of quoted investments;**
- F. other disclosures as specifically required by the relevant statute governing the enterprise.**

Effective Date

- 36. This Accounting Standard comes into effect for financial statements covering periods commencing on or after April 1, 1995.**

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Accounting Standard – 14,

Accounting for Amalgamations

(issued in 1994)

*(This Accounting Standard includes **paragraphs 28-46** set in **bold italic** type and **paragraphs 1-27** set in plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)*

The following is the text of Accounting Standard (AS) 14, 'Accounting for Amalgamations', issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India.

This standard will come into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1.4.1995 and will be mandatory in nature. The Guidance Note on Accounting Treatment of Reserves in Amalgamations issued by the Institute in 1983 will stand withdrawn from the aforesaid date.

Introduction

1. This statement deals with accounting for amalgamations and the treatment of any resultant goodwill or reserves. This statement is directed principally to companies although some of its requirements also apply to financial statements of other enterprises.
2. This statement does not deal with cases of acquisitions which arise when there is a purchase by one company (referred to as the acquiring company) of the whole or part of the shares, or the whole or part of the assets, of another company (referred to as the acquired company) in consideration for payment in cash or by issue of shares or other securities in the acquiring company or partly in one form and partly in the other. The distinguishing feature of an acquisition is that the acquired company is not dissolved and its separate entity continues to exist.

Definitions

3. ***The following terms are used in this statement with the meanings specified:***
 - A. ***Amalgamation means an amalgamation pursuant to the provisions of the Companies Act, 1956 or any other statute which may be applicable to companies.***
 - B. ***Transferor company means the company which is amalgamated into another company.***
 - C. ***Transferee company means the company into which a transferor company is amalgamated.***
 - D. ***Reserve means the portion of earnings, receipts or other surplus of an enterprise (whether capital or revenue) appropriated by the management for a general or a specific purpose other than a provision for depreciation or diminution in the value of assets or for a known liability.***
 - E. ***Amalgamation in the nature of merger is an amalgamation which satisfies all the following conditions.***
 - a. ***All the assets and liabilities of the transferor company become, after amalgamation, the assets and liabilities of the transferee company.***

- b. Shareholders holding not less than 90 % of the face value of the equity shares of the transferor company (other than the equity shares already held therein, immediately before the amalgamation, by the transferee company or its subsidiaries or their nominees) become equity shareholders of the transferee company by virtue of the amalgamation.*
- c. The consideration for the amalgamation receivable by those equity shareholders of the transferor company who agree to become equity shareholders of the transferee company is discharged by the transferee company wholly by the issue of equity shares in the transferee company, except that cash may be paid in respect of any fractional shares.*
- d. The business of the transferor company is intended to be carried on, after the amalgamation, by the transferee company.*
- e. No adjustment is intended to be made to the book values of the assets and liabilities of the transferor company when they are incorporated in the financial statements of the transferee company except to ensure uniformity of accounting policies.*
- F. Amalgamation in the nature of purchase is an amalgamation which does not satisfy any one or more of the conditions specified in sub-paragraph E. above.*
- G. Consideration for the amalgamation means the aggregate of the shares and other securities issued and the payment made in the form of cash or other assets by the transferee company to the shareholders of the transferor company.*
- H. Fair value is the amount for which an asset could be exchanged between a knowledgeable, willing buyer and a knowledgeable, willing seller in an arm's length transaction.*
- I. Pooling of interests is a method of accounting for amalgamations the object of which is to account for the amalgamation as if the separate businesses of the amalgamating companies were intended to be continued by the transferee company. Accordingly, only minimal changes are made in aggregating the individual financial statements of the amalgamating companies.*

Explanation

Types of Amalgamations

4. Generally speaking, amalgamations fall into two broad categories. In the first category are those amalgamations where there is a genuine pooling not merely of the assets and liabilities of the amalgamating companies but also of the shareholders' interests and of the businesses of these companies. Such amalgamations are amalgamations which are in the nature of 'merger' and the accounting treatment of such amalgamations should ensure that the resultant figures of assets, liabilities, capital and reserves more or less represent the sum of the relevant figures of the amalgamating companies. In the second category are those amalgamations which are in effect a mode by which one company acquires another company and, as a consequence, the shareholders of the company which is acquired normally do not continue to have a proportionate share in the equity of the combined company, or the business of the company

which is acquired is not intended to be continued. Such amalgamations are amalgamations in the nature of purchase'.

5. An amalgamation is classified as an 'amalgamation in the nature of merger' when all the conditions listed in paragraph 3E. are satisfied. There are, however, differing views regarding the nature of any further conditions that may apply. Some believe that, in addition to an exchange of equity shares, it is necessary that the shareholders of the transferor company obtain a substantial share in the transferee company even to the extent that it should not be possible to identify any one party as dominant therein. This belief is based in part on the view that the exchange of control of one company for an insignificant share in a larger company does not amount to a mutual sharing of risks and benefits.
6. Others believe that the substance of an amalgamation in the nature of merger is evidenced by meeting certain criteria regarding the relationship of the parties, such as the former independence of the amalgamating companies, the manner of their amalgamation, the absence of planned transactions that would undermine the effect of the amalgamation, and the continuing participation by the management of the transferor company in the management of the transferee company after the amalgamation.

Methods of Accounting for Amalgamations

7. There are two main methods of accounting for amalgamations:
 - A. the pooling of interests method; and
 - B. the purchase method.
8. The use of the pooling of interests method is confined to circumstances which meet the criteria referred to in paragraph 3 E. for an amalgamation in the nature of merger.
9. The object of the purchase method is to account for the amalgamation by applying the same principles as are applied in the normal purchase of assets. This method is used in accounting for amalgamations in the nature of purchase.

The Pooling of Interests Method

10. Under the pooling of interests method, the assets, liabilities and reserves of the transferor company are recorded by the transferee company at their existing carrying amounts (after making the adjustments required in paragraph 11).
11. If, at the time of the amalgamation, the transferor and the transferee companies have conflicting accounting policies, a uniform set of accounting policies is adopted following the amalgamation. The effects on the financial statements of any changes in accounting policies are reported in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 5, Prior Period and Extraordinary Items and Changes in Accounting Policies'.

The Purchase Method

12. Under the purchase method, the transferee company accounts for the amalgamation either by incorporating the assets and liabilities at their existing carrying amounts or by allocating the consideration to individual identifiable assets and liabilities of the transferor company on the basis of their fair values at the date of amalgamation. The identifiable assets and liabilities may include assets and liabilities not recorded in the financial statements of the transferor company.
13. Where assets and liabilities are restated on the basis of their fair values, the determination of fair values may be influenced by the intentions of the transferee company. For example, the transferee company may have a specialised use for an asset, which is not available to other potential buyers. The transferee company may intend to effect changes in the activities of the

transferor company which necessitate the creation of specific provisions for the expected costs, e.g. planned employee termination and plant relocation costs.

Consideration

14. The consideration for the amalgamation may consist of securities, cash or other assets. In determining the value of the consideration, an assessment is made of the fair value of its elements. A variety of techniques is applied in arriving at fair value. For example, when the consideration includes securities, the value fixed by the statutory authorities may be taken to be the fair value. In case of other assets, the fair value may be determined by reference to the market value of the assets given up. Where the market value of the assets given up cannot be reliably assessed, such assets may be valued at their respective net book values.
15. Many amalgamations recognise that adjustments may have to be made to the consideration in the light of one or more future events. When the additional payment is probable and can reasonably be estimated at the date of amalgamation, it is included in the calculation of the consideration. In all other cases, the adjustment is recognised as soon as the amount is determinable [see Accounting Standard (AS) 4, Contingencies and Events Occurring After the Balance Sheet Date].

Treatment of Reserves on Amalgamation

16. If the amalgamation is an 'amalgamation in the nature of merger', the identity of the reserves is preserved and they appear in the financial statements of the transferee company in the same form in which they appeared in the financial statements of the transferor company. Thus, for example, the General Reserve of the transferor company becomes the General Reserve of the transferee company, the Capital Reserve of the transferor company becomes the Capital Reserve of the transferee company and the Revaluation Reserve of the transferor company becomes the Revaluation Reserve of the transferee company. As a result of preserving the identity, reserves which are available for distribution as dividend before the amalgamation would also be available for distribution as dividend after the amalgamation. The difference between the amount recorded as share capital issued (plus any additional consideration in the form of cash or other assets) and the amount of share capital of the transferor company is adjusted in reserves in the financial statements of the transferee company.
17. If the amalgamation is an 'amalgamation in the nature of purchase', the identity of the reserves, other than the statutory reserves dealt with in paragraph 18, is not preserved. The amount of the consideration is deducted from the value of the net assets of the transferor company acquired by the transferee company. If the result of the computation is negative, the difference is debited to goodwill arising on amalgamation and dealt with in the manner stated in paragraphs 19-20. If the result of the computation is positive, the difference is credited to Capital Reserve.
18. Certain reserves may have been created by the transferor company pursuant to the requirements of, or to avail of the benefits under, the Income Tax Act, 1961; for example, Development Allowance Reserve, or Investment Allowance Reserve. The Act requires that the identity of the reserves should be preserved for a specified period. Likewise, certain other reserves may have been created in the financial statements of the transferor company in terms of the requirements of other statutes. Though, normally, in an amalgamation in the nature of purchase, the identity of reserves is not preserved, an exception is made in respect of reserves of the aforesaid nature (referred to hereinafter as statutory reserves) and such reserves retain their identity in the financial

statements of the transferee company in the same form in which they appeared in the financial statements of the transferor company, so long as their identity is required to be maintained to comply with the relevant statute. This exception is made only in those amalgamations where the requirements of the relevant statute for recording the statutory reserves in the books of the transferee company are complied with. In such cases the statutory reserves are recorded in the financial statements of the transferee company by a corresponding debit to a suitable account head (e.g., 'Amalgamation Adjustment Account') which is disclosed as a part of 'miscellaneous expenditure' or other similar category in the balance sheet. When the identity of the statutory reserves is no longer required to be maintained, both the reserves and the aforesaid account are reversed.

Treatment of Goodwill Arising on Amalgamation

19. Goodwill arising on amalgamation represents a payment made in anticipation of future income and it is appropriate to treat it as an asset to be amortised to income on a systematic basis over its useful life. Due to the nature of goodwill, it is frequently difficult to estimate its useful life with reasonable certainty. Such estimation is, therefore, made on a prudent basis. Accordingly, it is considered appropriate to amortise goodwill over a period not exceeding five years unless a somewhat longer period can be justified.
20. Factors which may be considered in estimating the useful life of goodwill arising on amalgamation include:
 - A. the foreseeable life of the business or industry;
 - B. the effects of product obsolescence, changes in demand and other economic factors;
 - C. the service life expectancies of key individuals or groups of employees;
 - D. expected actions by competitors or potential competitors; and
 - E. legal, regulatory or contractual provisions affecting the useful life.

Balance of Profit and Loss Account

21. In the case of an 'amalgamation in the nature of merger', the balance of the Profit and Loss Account appearing in the financial statements of the transferor company is aggregated with the corresponding balance appearing in the financial statements of the transferee company. Alternatively, it is transferred to the General Reserve, if any.
22. In the case of an 'amalgamation in the nature of purchase', the balance of the Profit and Loss Account appearing in the financial statements of the transferor company, whether debit or credit, loses its identity.

Treatment of Reserves Specified in A Scheme of Amalgamation

23. The scheme of amalgamation sanctioned under the provisions of the Companies Act, 1956 or any other statute may prescribe the treatment to be given to the reserves of the transferor company after its amalgamation. Where the treatment is so prescribed, the same is followed. In some cases, the scheme of amalgamation sanctioned under a statute may prescribe a different treatment to be given to the reserves of the transferor company after amalgamation as compared to the requirements of this Statement that would have been followed had no treatment been prescribed by the scheme. In such cases, the following disclosures are made in the first financial statements following the amalgamation:
 - A. A description of the accounting treatment given to the reserves and the reasons for following the treatment different from that prescribed in this Statement.

- B. Deviations in the accounting treatment given to the reserves as prescribed by the scheme of amalgamation sanctioned under the statute as compared to the requirements of this Statement that would have been followed had no treatment been prescribed by the scheme.
- C. The financial effect, if any, arising due to such deviation.

Disclosure

- 24. For all amalgamations, the following disclosures are considered appropriate in the first financial statements following the amalgamation:
 - names and general nature of business of the amalgamating companies;
 - effective date of amalgamation for accounting purposes;
 - the method of accounting used to reflect the amalgamation; and
 - particulars of the scheme sanctioned under a statute.
- 25. For amalgamations accounted for under the pooling of interests method, the following additional disclosures are considered appropriate in the first financial statements following the amalgamation:
 - description and number of shares issued, together with the percentage of each company's equity shares exchanged to effect the amalgamation;
 - the amount of any difference between the consideration and the value of net identifiable assets acquired, and the treatment thereof.
- 26. For amalgamations accounted for under the purchase method, the following additional disclosures are considered appropriate in the first financial statements following the amalgamation:
 - A. consideration for the amalgamation and a description of the consideration paid or contingently payable; and
 - B. the amount of any difference between the consideration and the value of net identifiable assets acquired, and the treatment thereof including the period of amortisation of any goodwill arising on amalgamation.

Amalgamation after the Balance Sheet Date

- 27. When an amalgamation is effected after the balance sheet date but before the issuance of the financial statements of either party to the amalgamation, disclosure is made in accordance with AS 4, Contingencies and Events Occurring After the Balance Sheet Date, but the amalgamation is not incorporated in the financial statements. In certain circumstances, the amalgamation may also provide additional information affecting the financial statements themselves, for instance, by allowing the going concern assumption to be maintained.

Accounting Standard

- 28. ***An amalgamation may be either –***
 - A. ***an amalgamation in the nature of merger, or***
 - B. ***an amalgamation in the nature of purchase.***
- 29. ***An amalgamation should be considered to be an amalgamation in the nature of merger when all the following conditions are satisfied:***
 - A. ***All the assets and liabilities of the transferor company become, after amalgamation, the assets and liabilities of the transferee company.***
 - B. ***Shareholders holding not less than 90% of the face value of the equity shares of the transferor company (other than the equity shares already held therein, immediately before the amalgamation, by the transferee company or its subsidiaries or their nominees) become equity shareholders of the transferee company by virtue of the amalgamation.***

- C. The consideration for the amalgamation receivable by those equity shareholders of the transferor company who agree to become equity shareholders of the transferee company is discharged by the transferee company wholly by the issue of equity shares in the transferee company, except that cash may be paid in respect of any fractional shares.**
 - D. The business of the transferor company is intended to be carried on, after the amalgamation, by the transferee company.**
 - E. No adjustment is intended to be made to the book values of the assets and liabilities of the transferor company when they are incorporated in the financial statements of the transferee company except to ensure uniformity of accounting policies.**
- 30. An amalgamation should be considered to be an amalgamation in the nature of purchase, when any one or more of the conditions specified in paragraph 29 is not satisfied.**
- 31. When an amalgamation is considered to be an amalgamation in the nature of merger, it should be accounted for under the pooling of interests method described in paragraphs 33–35.**
- 32. When an amalgamation is considered to be an amalgamation in the nature of purchase, it should be accounted for under the purchase method described in paragraphs 36–39.**

The Pooling of Interests Method

- 33. In preparing the transferee company's financial statements, the assets, liabilities and reserves (whether capital or revenue or arising on revaluation) of the transferor company should be recorded at their existing carrying amounts and in the same form as at the date of the amalgamation. The balance of the Profit and Loss Account of the transferor company should be aggregated with the corresponding balance of the transferee company or transferred to the General Reserve, if any.**
- 34. If, at the time of the amalgamation, the transferor and the transferee companies have conflicting accounting policies, a uniform set of accounting policies should be adopted following the amalgamation. The effects on the financial statements of any changes in accounting policies should be reported in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 5 Prior Period and Extraordinary Items and Changes in Accounting Policies.**
- 35. The difference between the amount recorded as share capital issued (plus any additional consideration in the form of cash or other assets) and the amount of share capital of the transferor company should be adjusted in reserves.**

The Purchase Method

- 36. In preparing the transferee company's financial statements, the assets and liabilities of the transferor company should be incorporated at their existing carrying amounts or, alternatively, the consideration should be allocated to individual identifiable assets and liabilities on the basis of their fair values at the date of amalgamation. The reserves (whether capital or revenue or arising on revaluation) of the transferor company, other than the statutory reserves, should not be included in the financial statements of the transferee company except as stated in paragraph 39.**
- 37. Any excess of the amount of the consideration over the value of the net assets of the transferor company acquired by the transferee company should be recognised in the transferee company's financial statements**

as goodwill arising on amalgamation. If the amount of the consideration is lower than the value of the net assets acquired, the difference should be treated as Capital Reserve.

- 38. The goodwill arising on amalgamation should be amortised to income on a systematic basis over its useful life. The amortization period should not exceed five years unless a somewhat longer period can be justified.**
- 39. Where the requirements of the relevant statute for recording the statutory reserves in the books of the transferee company are complied with, statutory reserves of the transferor company should be recorded in the financial statements of the transferee company. The corresponding debit should be given to a suitable account head (e.g., 'Amalgamation Adjustment Account') which should be disclosed as a part of 'miscellaneous expenditure' or other similar category in the balance sheet. When the identity of the statutory reserves is no longer required to be maintained, both the reserves and the aforesaid account should be reversed.**

Common Procedures

- 40. The consideration for the amalgamation should include any non cash element at fair value. In case of issue of securities, the value fixed by the statutory authorities may be taken to be the fair value. In case of other assets, the fair value may be determined by reference to the market value of the assets given up. Where the market value of the assets given up cannot be reliably assessed, such assets may be valued at their respective net book values.**
- 41. Where the scheme of amalgamation provides for an adjustment to the consideration contingent on one or more future events, the amount of the additional payment should be included in the consideration if payment is probable and a reasonable estimate of the amount can be made. In all other cases, the adjustment should be recognised as soon as the amount is determinable [see Accounting Standard (AS) 4, Contingencies and Events Occurring After the Balance Sheet Date].**

Treatment of Reserves Specified in A Scheme of Amalgamation

- 42. Where the scheme of amalgamation sanctioned under a statute prescribes the treatment to be given to the reserves of the transferor company after amalgamation, the same should be followed. Where the scheme of amalgamation sanctioned under a statute prescribes a different treatment to be given to the reserves of the transferor company after amalgamation as compared to the requirements of this Statement that would have been followed had no treatment been prescribed by the scheme, the following disclosures should be made in the first financial statements following the amalgamation:**
 - A. A description of the accounting treatment given to the reserves and the reasons for following the treatment different from that prescribed in this Statement.**
 - B. Deviations in the accounting treatment given to the reserves as prescribed by the scheme of amalgamation sanctioned under the statute as compared to the requirements of this Statement that would have been followed had no treatment been prescribed by the scheme.**
 - C. The financial effect, if any, arising due to such deviation.**

Disclosure

- 43. For all amalgamations, the following disclosures should be made in the first financial statements following the amalgamation:**
- A. names and general nature of business of the amalgamating companies;**
 - B. effective date of amalgamation for accounting purposes;**
 - C. the method of accounting used to reflect the amalgamation; and**
 - D. particulars of the scheme sanctioned under a statute.**
- 44. For amalgamations accounted for under the pooling of interests method, the following additional disclosures should be made in the first financial statements following the amalgamation:**
- A. description and number of shares issued, together with the percentage of each company's equity shares exchanged to effect the amalgamation;**
 - B. the amount of any difference between the consideration and the value of net identifiable assets acquired, and the treatment thereof.**
- 45. For amalgamations accounted for under the purchase method, the following additional disclosures should be made in the first financial statements following the amalgamation:**
- A. consideration for the amalgamation and a description of the consideration paid or contingently payable; and**
 - B. the amount of any difference between the consideration and the value of net identifiable assets acquired, and the treatment thereof including the period of amortisation of any goodwill arising on amalgamation.**

Amalgamation after the Balance Sheet Date

- 46. When an amalgamation is effected after the balance sheet date but before the issuance of the financial statements of either party to the amalgamation, disclosure should be made in accordance with AS 4, Contingencies and Events Occurring After the Balance Sheet Date, but the amalgamation should not be incorporated in the financial statements. In certain circumstances, the amalgamation may also provide additional information affecting the financial statements themselves, for instance, by allowing the going concern assumption to be maintained.**

Accounting Standard – 15, Accounting for Retirement Benefits in the Financial Statements of Employers (issued in 1995)

*(This Accounting Standard includes **paragraphs 27-31** set in **bold italic** type and **paragraphs 1-26** set in plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)*

The following is the text of Accounting Standard (AS) 15, 'Accounting for Retirement Benefits in the Financial Statements of Employers', issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India.

The Standard will come into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1.4.1995 and will be mandatory in nature. The Statement on the Treatment of Retirement Gratuity in Accounts issued by the Institute will stand withdrawn from the aforesaid date.

Introduction

1. This Statement deals with accounting for retirement benefits in the financial statements of employers.
2. Retirement benefits usually consist of:
 - A. Provident fund
 - B. Superannuation/pension
 - C. Gratuity
 - D. Leave encashment benefit on retirement
 - E. Post-retirement health and welfare schemes
 - F. Other retirement benefits.

This Statement applies to retirement benefits in the form of provident fund, superannuation/pension and gratuity provided by an employer to employees, whether in pursuance of requirements of any law or otherwise. It also applies to retirement benefits in the form of leave encashment benefit, health and welfare schemes and other retirement benefits, if the predominant characteristics of these benefits are the same as those of provident fund, superannuation/pension or gratuity benefit, i.e. if such a retirement benefit is in the nature of either a defined contribution scheme or a defined benefit scheme as described in this Statement. This Statement does not apply to those retirement benefits for which the employer's obligation cannot be reasonably estimated, e.g., ad hoc ex-gratia payments made to employees on retirement.

Definitions

3. ***The following terms are used in this Statement with the meanings specified:***

Retirement benefit schemes are arrangements to provide provident fund, superannuation or pension, gratuity, or other benefits to employees on leaving service or retiring or, after an employee's death, to his or her dependants.

Contribution schemes are retirement benefit schemes under which amounts to be paid as retirement benefits are determined by contributions to a fund together with earnings thereon.

Benefit schemes are retirement benefit schemes under which amounts to be paid as retirement benefits are determinable usually by reference to employee's earnings and/or years of service.

Actuary means an actuary within the meaning of sub-section (1) of section (2) of the Insurance Act, 1938.

Actuarial valuation is the process used by an actuary to estimate the present value of benefits to be paid under a retirement benefit scheme and the present values of the scheme assets and, sometimes, of future contributions.

Pay-as-you-go is a method of recognising the cost of retirement benefits only at the time payments are made to employees on, or after, their retirement.

Explanation

4. Retirement benefit schemes are normally significant elements of an employer's remuneration package for employees. It is, therefore, important that retirement benefits are properly accounted for and that appropriate disclosures in respect thereof are made in the financial statements of an employer.
5. Provident fund benefit normally involves either creation of a separate trust to which contributions of both employees and employer are made periodically or remittance of such contributions to the employees' provident fund, administered by the Central Government.
6. Superannuation/pension benefit (hereinafter referred to as superannuation benefit) is basically of two types.
 - A. The first type of benefit is known as defined contribution scheme. Under this type of benefit, the employer makes a contribution once a year (or more frequently in some cases) towards a separately created trust fund or to a scheme administered by an insurer. These contributions earn interest and the accumulated balance of contributions and interest is used to pay the retirement benefit to the employee. Superannuation available under defined contribution scheme has relevance to only total of accumulated contributions and interest and bears no relationship, whatsoever, with the final salary or number of years of service put in by an employee. The defined contribution scheme for superannuation/pension is, in most respects, similar to the provident fund, so far as the accounting treatment is concerned. It also presupposes payment of contributions every year, either once in a year or more frequently.
 - B. The second type of superannuation scheme is the defined benefit scheme. Under this scheme, the benefit payable to the employee is determined with reference to factors such as a percentage of final salary (e.g. the average of one, three or five years' salary), number of years of service and the grade of the employee. The contribution required to finance such a scheme is actuarially determined and is generally expressed as a percentage of salary for the entire group of employees covered by the scheme. For defined benefit superannuation/pension schemes, a trust fund can be created or an arrangement can be negotiated with an insurer so that the annual contributions, calculated actuarially, can be made each

year. In such a case, benefits to employees on entitlement would be paid by the trust fund or by the insurer. Alternatively, the superannuation benefit can be paid by the employer as and when an employee leaves.

7. Gratuity benefit is in the nature of a defined benefit. Gratuity can be paid by the employer as and when an employee leaves. Alternatively, a trust fund can be created, or an arrangement can be negotiated with an insurer so that the annual contributions, calculated actuarially, can be made each year. Benefits to employees on entitlement would in such a case be paid by the trust fund or by the insurer.
8. In certain cases, a retirement benefit scheme may stipulate the basis of contributions on which the benefits are determined and, because of this, may appear to be a defined contribution scheme. However, the provisions of the scheme may also result in the employer being responsible for specified benefits or a specified level of benefits. In this case, the scheme is, in substance, a defined benefit scheme and should be accounted for accordingly.
9. While provident fund schemes are generally contributory schemes from the point of view of employees, gratuity schemes are non-contributory. The superannuation schemes, on the other hand, can be contributory or noncontributory.
10. Defined benefit schemes, especially those that promise benefits related to remuneration at or near retirement, present significant difficulties in the determination of periodic charge to the statement of profit and loss. The extent of an employer's obligation under such schemes is usually uncertain and requires estimation. In estimating the obligation, assumptions may need to be made regarding future conditions and events which are largely outside the employer's control.
11. As a result of various factors that frequently enter into the computation of retirement benefits under defined benefit schemes and the length of the period over which the benefits are earned, allocation problems arise in determining how the costs of the retirement benefits should be recognised in the financial statements of the employer. Furthermore, long-term uncertainties may give rise to adjustments of estimates of earlier years that can be very significant in relation to current service cost.
12. The cost of retirement benefits to an employer results from receiving services from the employees who are entitled to receive such benefits. Consequently, the cost of retirement benefits is accounted for in the period during which these services are rendered. Accounting for retirement benefit cost only when employees retire or receive benefit payments (i.e., as per pay-as-you-go method) does not achieve the objective of allocation of those costs to the periods in which the services were rendered.

Funding

13. When there is a separate retirement benefit fund, it is sometimes assumed that the amount paid by an employer to the fund during an accounting period provides an appropriate charge to the statement of profit and loss. While, in many cases, the amount funded may provide a reasonable approximation of the amount to be charged to the statement of profit and loss, there is a vital distinction between the periodic funding of retirement benefits and the allocation of the cost of providing these benefits.
14. The objective of funding is to make available amounts to meet future obligations for the payment of retirement benefits. Funding is a financing procedure and in determining the periodical amounts to be funded, the employer may be influenced by such factors as the availability of money and tax considerations.

15. On the other hand, the objective of accounting for the cost of a retirement benefit scheme is to ensure that the cost of benefits is allocated to accounting periods on a systematic basis related to the receipt of the employees' services.

Accounting

16. In respect of retirement benefits in the form of provident fund and other defined contribution schemes, the contribution payable by the employer for a year is charged to the statement of profit and loss for the year. Thus, besides the amount of contribution paid, a shortfall of the amount of contribution paid compared to the amount payable for the year is also charged to the statement of profit and loss for the year. On the other hand, if contribution paid is in excess of the amount payable for the year, the excess is treated as a pre-payment.
17. In respect of gratuity benefit and other defined benefit schemes, the accounting treatment depends on the type of arrangement which the employer has chosen to make.
- A. If the employer has chosen to make payment for retirement benefits out of his own funds, an appropriate charge to the statement of profit and loss for the year is made through a provision for the accruing liability. The accruing liability is calculated according to actuarial valuation. However, many enterprises which employ only a few persons do not calculate the accrued liability by using actuarial methods. They calculate the accrued liability by reference to some other rational method e.g. a method based on the assumption that such benefits are payable to all employees at the end of the accounting year.
- B. In case the liability for retirement benefits is funded through creation of a trust, the cost incurred for the year is determined actuarially. Many employers undertake such valuations every year while others undertake them less frequently, usually once in every three years. If actuarial valuations are conducted every year, the annual accrual of retirement benefit cost can be easily determined. If, however, the actuarial valuations are not conducted annually, the actuary's report specifies the contributions to be made by the employer on annual basis during the inter-valuation period. This annual contribution (which is in addition to the contribution that may be required to finance unfunded past service cost) reflects proper accrual of retirement benefit cost for each of the years during the inter-valuation period and is charged to the statement of profit and loss for each such year. Where the contribution paid during a year is lower than the amount required to be contributed during the year to meet the accrued liability as certified by the actuary, the shortfall is charged to the statement of profit and loss for the year. Where the contribution paid during a year is in excess of the amount required to be contributed during the year to meet the accrued liability as certified by the actuary, the excess is treated as a prepayment.
- C. In case the liability for retirement benefits is funded through a scheme administered by an insurer, it is usually considered necessary to obtain an actuarial certificate or a confirmation from the insurer that the contribution payable to the insurer is the appropriate accrual of the liability for the year. Where the contribution paid during a year is lower than the amount required to be contributed during the year to meet the accrued liability as certified by the actuary or confirmed by the insurer, as the case may be, the shortfall is charged to the statement of profit and loss for the year. Where the contribution paid during a year is in excess of the amount required to be contributed during the year to meet the accrued liability as certified by the actuary or confirmed by the insurer, as the case may be, the excess is treated as a pre-payment.

Actuarial Principles

18. A number of actuarial valuation methods have been developed by the actuarial profession to estimate employer's obligations under defined benefit schemes. While these methods are primarily designed to calculate funding requirements, they are also frequently used to determine retirement benefit costs for accounting purposes.
19. The actuarial method selected for determining accrual of liability and the assumptions made can have a significant effect on the expense to be recorded in each accounting period. Therefore, in carrying out a periodical valuation, an actuary chooses a suitable valuation method and, in consultation with the employer, makes appropriate assumptions about the variable elements affecting the computations.
20. The assumptions relate to the expected inflow from future contributions and from investments as well as to the expected outgo for benefits. The uncertainty inherent in projecting future trends in rates of inflation, salary levels and earnings on investments are taken into consideration by the actuary in the actuarial valuations by using a set of compatible assumptions. Usually, these projections are extended until the expected date of death of the last pensioner in case of a superannuation scheme, expected date of death etc. of the beneficiary in case of family pension, and expected service in case of gratuity and are, accordingly, long-term.

Past Service Cost and Review of Actuarial Assumptions

21. An actuarially determined past service cost arises on the introduction of a retirement benefit scheme for existing employees or on the making of improvements to an existing scheme, etc. This cost gives employees credit for benefits for services rendered before the occurrence of one or more of these events.
22. Views differ as to how to account for this cost. One view is that this cost should be recognised as soon as it has been determined. Others believe that the entitlement giving rise to past service cost is in return for services to be rendered by employees in future and therefore this cost ought to be allocated over the periods during which the services are to be rendered.
23. In making an actuarial valuation, the actuary may sometimes effect a change in the actuarial method used or in the assumptions adopted for determining the retirement benefit costs. Any alterations in the retirement benefit costs so arising are charged or credited to the statement of profit and loss for the year or, alternatively, spread over a period not more than the expected remaining working lives of the participating employees. A change in the actuarial method used for determining the retirement benefit costs constitutes a change in an accounting policy and is disclosed accordingly.

Retired Employees

24. When a retirement benefit scheme for retired employees is amended, due to inflation or for other reasons, to provide additional benefits to retired employees, any additional costs are charged to the statement of profit and loss of the year.

Disclosures

25. In view of the diversity of practices used for accounting of retirement benefits costs, adequate disclosure of method followed in accounting for them is essential for an understanding of the significance of such costs to an employer.
26. Retirement benefit costs are sometimes disclosed separately for statutory compliance. In other cases, they are considered to be an element of employee remuneration and their separate disclosure is not usually made.

Accounting Standard

- 27. In respect of retirement benefits in the form of provident fund and other defined contribution schemes, the contribution payable by the employer for a year should be charged to the statement of profit and loss for the year. Thus, besides the amount of contribution paid, a shortfall of the amount of contribution paid compared to the amount payable for the year should also be charged to the statement of profit and loss for the year. On the other hand, if contribution paid is in excess of the amount payable for the year, the excess should be treated as a pre-payment.**
- 28. In respect of gratuity benefit and other defined benefit schemes, the accounting treatment will depend on the type of arrangement which the employer has chosen to make.**
- A. If the employer has chosen to make payment for retirement benefits out of his own funds, an appropriate charge to the statement of profit and loss for the year should be made through a provision for the accruing liability. The accruing liability should be calculated according to actuarial valuation. However, those enterprises which employ only a few persons may calculate the accrued liability by reference to any other rational method e.g. a method based on the assumption that such benefits are payable to all employees at the end of the accounting year.**
- B. In case the liability for retirement benefits is funded through creation of a trust, the cost incurred for the year should be determined actuarially. Such actuarial valuation should normally be conducted at least once in every three years. However, where the actuarial valuations are not conducted annually, the actuary's report should specify the contributions to be made by the employer on annual basis during the inter-valuation period. This annual contribution (which is in addition to the contribution that may be required to finance unfunded past service cost) reflects proper accrual of retirement benefit cost for each of the years during the inter-valuation period and should be charged to the statement of profit and loss for each such year. Where the contribution paid during a year is lower than the amount required to be contributed during the year to meet the accrued liability as certified by the actuary, the shortfall should be charged to the statement of profit and loss for the year. Where the contribution paid during a year is in excess of the amount required to be contributed during the year to meet the accrued liability as certified by the actuary, the excess should be treated as a pre-payment.**
- C. In case the liability for retirement benefits is funded through a scheme administered by an insurer, an actuarial certificate or a confirmation from the insurer should be obtained that the contribution payable to the insurer is the appropriate accrual of the liability for the year. Where the contribution paid during a year is lower than amount required to be contributed during the year to meet the accrued liability as certified by the actuary or confirmed by the insurer, as the case may be, the shortfall should be charged to the statement of profit and loss for the year. Where the contribution paid during a year is in excess of the amount required to be contributed during the year to meet the accrued liability as certified by the actuary or confirmed by the insurer, as the case may be, the excess should be treated as a pre-payment.**
- 29. Any alterations in the retirement benefit costs arising from:**

- A. introduction of a retirement benefit scheme for existing employees or making of improvements to an existing scheme, or**
 - B. changes in the actuarial method used or assumptions adopted, should be charged or credited to the statement of profit and loss as they arise in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 5, Prior Period and Extraordinary Items and Changes in Accounting Policies'. Additionally, a change in the actuarial method used should be treated as a change in an accounting policy and disclosed in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 5, Prior Period and Extraordinary Items and Changes in Accounting Policies'.**
- 30. When a retirement benefit scheme is amended with the result that additional benefits are provided to retired employees, the cost of the additional benefits should be accounted for in accordance with paragraph 29.**

Disclosures

- 31. The financial statements should disclose the method by which retirement benefit costs for the period have been determined. In case the costs related to gratuity and other defined benefit schemes are based on an actuarial valuation, the financial statements should also disclose whether the actuarial valuation was made at the end of the period or at an earlier date. In the latter case, the date of the actuarial valuation should be specified and the method by which the accrual for the period has been determined should also be briefly described, if the same is not based on the report of the actuary.**

Accounting Standard – 15(revised),

Employee Benefits

(revised in 2005)

*(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in **bold italic** type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)*

Accounting Standard (AS) 15, Employee Benefits (revised 2005), issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, comes into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after April 1, 2006 and is mandatory in nature from that date:

- A. in its entirety, for the enterprises which fall in any one or more of the following categories, at any time during the accounting period:
- a. Enterprises whose equity or debt securities are listed whether in India or outside India.
 - b. Enterprises which are in the process of listing their equity or debt securities as evidenced by the board of directors' resolution in this regard.
 - c. Banks including co-operative banks.
 - d. Financial institutions.
 - e. Enterprises carrying on insurance business.
 - f. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises, whose turnover for the immediately preceding accounting period on the basis of audited financial statements exceeds Rs. 50 crore. Turnover does not include other income.
 - g. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises having borrowings, including public deposits, in excess of Rs. 10 crore at any time during the accounting period.
 - h. Holding and subsidiary enterprises of any one of the above at any time during the accounting period.
- B. in its entirety, except the following, for enterprises which do not fall in any of the categories in A. above and whose average number of persons employed during the year is 50 or more.
- a. paragraphs 11 to 16 of the standard to the extent they deal with recognition and measurement of short-term accumulating compensated absences which are non-vesting (i.e., short-term accumulating compensated absences in respect of which employees are not entitled to cash payment for unused entitlement on leaving);
 - b. paragraphs 46 and 138 of the Standard which deal with discounting of amounts that fall due more than 12 months after the balance sheet date; and
 - c. recognition and measurement principles laid down in paragraphs 50 to 115 and presentation and disclosure requirements laid down in paragraphs 116 to 122 of the Standard in respect of accounting for defined benefit plans. However, such enterprises should actuarially determine and provide for the accrued liability in respect of defined benefit plans as follows:
 - ✍ The method used for actuarial valuation should be the Projected Unit Credit Method.

-  The discount rate used should be determined by reference to market yields at the balance sheet date on government bonds as per paragraph 77 of the Standard.
 -  Such enterprises should disclose actuarial assumptions as per paragraph 119 I. of the Standard.
 - d. recognition and measurement principles laid down in paragraphs 128 to 130 of the Standard in respect of accounting for other long-term employee benefits. However, such enterprises should actuarially determine and provide for the accrued liability in respect of other long-term employee benefits as follows:
The method used for actuarial valuation should be the Projected Unit Credit Method.
The discount rate used should be determined by reference to market yields at the balance sheet date on government bonds as per paragraph 77 of the Standard.
- C. in its entirety, except the following, for enterprises which do not fall in any of the categories in A. above and whose average number of persons employed during the year is less than 50.
- a. paragraphs 11 to 16 of the standard to the extent they deal with recognition and measurement of short-term accumulating compensated absences which are non-vesting (i.e., short-term accumulating compensated absences in respect of which employees are not entitled to cash payment for unused entitlement on leaving);
 - b. paragraphs 46 and 138 of the Standard which deal with discounting of amounts that fall due more than 12 months after the balance sheet date;
 - c. recognition and measurement principles laid down in paragraphs 50 to 116 and presentation and disclosure requirements laid down in paragraphs 116 to 122 of the Standard in respect of accounting for defined benefit plans. Such enterprises may calculate and account for the accrued liability under the defined benefit plans by reference to some other rational method, e.g., a method based on the assumption that such benefits are payable to all employees at the end of the accounting year; and
 - d. recognition and measurement principles laid down in paragraphs 128 to 130 of the Standard in respect of accounting for other long-term employee benefits. Such enterprises may calculate and account for the accrued liability under the other long-term employee benefits by reference to some other rational method, e.g., a method based on the assumption that such benefits are payable to all employees at the end of the accounting year.

Where an enterprise has been covered in any one or more of the categories in A. above and subsequently, ceases to be so covered, the enterprise will not qualify for exemptions specified in B. above, until the enterprise ceases to be covered in any of the categories in A. above for two consecutive years.

Where an enterprise did not qualify for the exemptions specified in C. above and subsequently, qualifies, the enterprise will not qualify for exemptions as per C. above, until it continues to be so qualified for two consecutive years.

Where an enterprise has previously qualified for exemptions in B. or C. above, as the case may be, but no longer qualifies for exemptions in B. or C. above, as the cases may be, in the current accounting period, this standard becomes applicable, in its entirety or, in its entirety except exemptions in B. above, as the case may be, from the current period. However, the

corresponding previous period figures in respect of the relevant disclosures need not be provided.

An enterprise, which, pursuant to the above provisions, avails exemptions specified in B. or C. above, as the cases may be, should disclose the fact. An enterprise which avails exemptions specified in C. above should also disclose the method used to calculate and provide for the accrued liability.

The following is the text of the revised Accounting Standard.

Objective

The objective of this Statement is to prescribe the accounting and disclosure for employee benefits. The Statement requires an enterprise to recognise:

- A. a liability when an employee has provided service in exchange for employee benefits to be paid in the future; and
- B. an expense when the enterprise consumes the economic benefit arising from service provided by an employee in exchange for employee benefits.

Scope

1. This Statement should be applied by an employer in accounting for all employee benefits, except employee share-based payments.
2. This Statement does not deal with accounting and reporting by employee benefit plans.
3. The employee benefits to which this Statement applies include those provided:
 - A. under formal plans or other formal agreements between an enterprise and individual employees, groups of employees or their representatives;
 - B. under legislative requirements, or through industry arrangements, whereby enterprises are required to contribute to state, industry or other multi-employer plans; or
 - C. by those informal practices that give rise to an obligation. Informal practices give rise to an obligation where the enterprise has no realistic alternative but to pay employee benefits. An example of such an obligation is where a change in the enterprise's informal practices would cause unacceptable damage to its relationship with employees.
4. Employee benefits include:
 - A. short-term employee benefits, such as wages, salaries and social security contributions (e.g., contribution to an insurance company by an employer to pay for medical care of its employees), paid annual leave, profit-sharing and bonuses (if payable within twelve months of the end of the period) and non-monetary benefits (such as medical care, housing, cars and free or subsidised goods or services) for current employees;
 - B. post-employment benefits such as gratuity, pension, other retirement benefits, post-employment life insurance and post-employment medical care;
 - C. other long-term employee benefits, including long-service leave or sabbatical leave, jubilee or other long-service benefits, long-term disability benefits and, if they are not payable wholly within twelve months after the end of the period, profit-sharing, bonuses and deferred compensation; and
 - D. termination benefits.

Because each category identified in A. to D. above has different characteristics, this Statement establishes separate requirements for each category.

5. Employee benefits include benefits provided to either employees or their spouses, children or other dependants and may be settled by payments (or the provision of goods or services) made either:
 - A. directly to the employees, to their spouses, children or other dependants, or to their legal heirs or nominees; or
 - B. to others, such as trusts, insurance companies.
6. An employee may provide services to an enterprise on a full-time, part-time, permanent, casual or temporary basis. For the purpose of this Statement, employees include whole-time directors and other management personnel.

Definitions

7. ***The following terms are used in this Statement with the meanings specified:***

Employee benefits are all forms of consideration given by an enterprise in exchange for service rendered by employees.

Short-term employee benefits are employee benefits (other than termination benefits) which fall due wholly within twelve months after the end of the period in which the employees render the related service.

Post-employment benefits are employee benefits (other than termination benefits) which are payable after the completion of employment.

Post-employment benefit plans are formal or informal arrangements under which an enterprise provides post-employment benefits for one or more employees.

Defined contribution plans are post-employment benefit plans under which an enterprise pays fixed contributions into a separate entity (a fund) and will have no obligation to pay further contributions if the fund does not hold sufficient assets to pay all employee benefits relating to employee service in the current and prior periods.

Defined benefit plans are post-employment benefit plans other than defined contribution plans.

Multi-employer plans are defined contribution plans (other than state plans) or defined benefit plans (other than state plans) that:

- A. ***pool the assets contributed by various enterprises that are not under common control; and***
- B. ***use those assets to provide benefits to employees of more than one enterprise, on the basis that contribution and benefit levels are determined without regard to the identity of the enterprise that employs the employees concerned.***

Other long-term employee benefits are employee benefits (other than post-employment benefits and termination benefits) which do not fall due wholly within twelve months after the end of the period in which the employees render the related service.

Termination benefits are employee benefits payable as a result of either:

- A. ***an enterprise's decision to terminate an employee's employment before the normal retirement date; or***

- B. an employee's decision to accept voluntary redundancy in exchange for those benefits (voluntary retirement).**

Vested employee benefits are employee benefits that are not conditional on future employment.

The present value of a defined benefit obligation is the present value, without deducting any plan assets, of expected future payments required to settle the obligation resulting from employee service in the current and prior periods.

Current service cost is the increase in the present value of the defined benefit obligation resulting from employee service in the current period.

Interest cost is the increase during a period in the present value of a defined benefit obligation which arises because the benefits are one period closer to settlement.

Plan assets comprise:

- A. assets held by a long-term employee benefit fund; and**
- B. qualifying insurance policies.**

Assets held by a long-term employee benefit fund are assets (other than non-transferable financial instruments issued by the reporting enterprise) that:

- A. are held by an entity (a fund) that is legally separate from the reporting enterprise and exists solely to pay or fund employee benefits; and**
- B. are available to be used only to pay or fund employee benefits, are not available to the reporting enterprise's own creditors (even in bankruptcy), and cannot be returned to the reporting enterprise, unless either:**
 - a. the remaining assets of the fund are sufficient to meet all the related employee benefit obligations of the plan or the reporting enterprise; or**
 - b. the assets are returned to the reporting enterprise to reimburse it for employee benefits already paid.**

A qualifying insurance policy is an insurance policy issued by an insurer that is not a related party (as defined in AS 18 Related Party Disclosures) of the reporting enterprise, if the proceeds of the policy:

- A. can be used only to pay or fund employee benefits under a defined benefit plan; and**
- B. are not available to the reporting enterprise's own creditors (even in bankruptcy) and cannot be paid to the reporting enterprise, unless either:**
 - a. the proceeds represent surplus assets that are not needed for the policy to meet all the related employee benefit obligations; or**
 - b. the proceeds are returned to the reporting enterprise to reimburse it for employee benefits already paid.**

Fair value is the amount for which an asset could be exchanged or a liability settled between knowledgeable, willing parties in an arm's length transaction.

The return on plan assets is interest, dividends and other revenue derived from the plan assets, together with realised and unrealised gains or losses on the plan assets, less any costs of administering the plan and less any tax payable by the plan itself.

Actuarial gains and losses comprise:

- A. experience adjustments (the effects of differences between the previous actuarial assumptions and what has actually occurred); and***
- B. the effects of changes in actuarial assumptions.***

Past service cost is the change in the present value of the defined benefit obligation for employee service in prior periods, resulting in the current period from the introduction of, or changes to, post-employment benefits or other long-term employee benefits. Past service cost may be either positive (where benefits are introduced or improved) or negative (where existing benefits are reduced).

Short-term Employee Benefits

- 8. Short-term employee benefits include items such as:
 - A. wages, salaries and social security contributions;
 - B. short-term compensated absences (such as paid annual leave) where the absences are expected to occur within twelve months after the end of the period in which the employees render the related employee service;
 - C. profit-sharing and bonuses payable within twelve months after the end of the period in which the employees render the related service; and
 - D. non-monetary benefits (such as medical care, housing, cars and free or subsidised goods or services) for current employees.
- 9. Accounting for short-term employee benefits is generally straightforward because no actuarial assumptions are required to measure the obligation or the cost and there is no possibility of any actuarial gain or loss. Moreover, short-term employee benefit obligations are measured on an undiscounted basis.

Recognition and Measurement

All Short-term Employee Benefits

- 10. ***When an employee has rendered service to an enterprise during an accounting period, the enterprise should recognise the undiscounted amount of short-term employee benefits expected to be paid in exchange for that service:***
 - A. as a liability (accrued expense), after deducting any amount already paid. If the amount already paid exceeds the undiscounted amount of the benefits, an enterprise should recognise that excess as an asset (prepaid expense) to the extent that the prepayment will lead to, for example, a reduction in future payments or a cash refund; and***
 - B. as an expense, unless another Accounting Standard requires or permits the inclusion of the benefits in the cost of an asset (see, for example, AS 10 Accounting for Fixed Assets).***

Paragraphs 11, 14 and 17 explain how an enterprise should apply this requirement to short-term employee benefits in the form of compensated absences and profit-sharing and bonus plans.

Short-term Compensated Absences

- 11. An enterprise should recognise the expected cost of short-term employee benefits in the form of compensated absences under paragraph 10 as follows:**
- A. in the case of accumulating compensated absences, when the employees render service that increases their entitlement to future compensated absences; and**
 - B. in the case of non-accumulating compensated absences, when the absences occur.**
12. An enterprise may compensate employees for absence for various reasons including vacation, sickness and short-term disability, and maternity or paternity. Entitlement to compensated absences falls into two categories:
- A. accumulating; and
 - B. non-accumulating.
13. Accumulating compensated absences are those that are carried forward and can be used in future periods if the current period's entitlement is not used in full. Accumulating compensated absences may be either vesting (in other words, employees are entitled to a cash payment for unused entitlement on leaving the enterprise) or non-vesting (when employees are not entitled to a cash payment for unused entitlement on leaving). An obligation arises as employees render service that increases their entitlement to future compensated absences. The obligation exists, and is recognised, even if the compensated absences are non-vesting, although the possibility that employees may leave before they use an accumulated non-vesting entitlement affects the measurement of that obligation.
- 14. An enterprise should measure the expected cost of accumulating compensated absences as the additional amount that the enterprise expects to pay as a result of the unused entitlement that has accumulated at the balance sheet date.**
15. The method specified in the previous paragraph measures the obligation at the amount of the additional payments that are expected to arise solely from the fact that the benefit accumulates. In many cases, an enterprise may not need to make detailed computations to estimate that there is no material obligation for unused compensated absences. For example, a leave obligation is likely to be material only if there is a formal or informal understanding that unused leave may be taken as paid vacation.
16. Non-accumulating compensated absences do not carry forward: they lapse if the current period's entitlement is not used in full and do not entitle employees to a cash payment for unused entitlement on leaving the enterprise. This is commonly the case for maternity or paternity leave. An enterprise recognises no liability or expense until the time of the absence, because employee service does not increase the amount of the benefit.

Profit-sharing and Bonus Plans

- 17. An enterprise should recognise the expected cost of profit-sharing and bonus payments under paragraph 10 when, and only when:**
- A. the enterprise has a present obligation to make such payments as a result of past events; and**
 - B. a reliable estimate of the obligation can be made.**
- A present obligation exists when, and only when, the enterprise has no realistic alternative but to make the payments.**
18. Under some profit-sharing plans, employees receive a share of the profit only if they remain with the enterprise for a specified period. Such plans create an obligation as employees render service that increases the amount to be paid if they remain in service until the end of the specified period. The measurement of

such obligations reflects the possibility that some employees may leave without receiving profit sharing payments.

19. An enterprise may have no legal obligation to pay a bonus. Nevertheless, in some cases, an enterprise has a practice of paying bonuses. In such cases also, the enterprise has an obligation because the enterprise has no realistic alternative but to pay the bonus. The measurement of the obligation reflects the possibility that some employees may leave without receiving a bonus.
20. An enterprise can make a reliable estimate of its obligation under a profit-sharing or bonus plan when, and only when:
 - A. the formal terms of the plan contain a formula for determining the amount of the benefit; or
 - B. the enterprise determines the amounts to be paid before the financial statements are approved; or
 - C. past practice gives clear evidence of the amount of the enterprise's obligation.
21. An obligation under profit-sharing and bonus plans results from employee service and not from a transaction with the enterprise's owners. Therefore, an enterprise recognises the cost of profit-sharing and bonus plans not as a distribution of net profit but as an expense.
22. If profit-sharing and bonus payments are not due wholly within twelve months after the end of the period in which the employees render the related service, those payments are other long-term employee benefits (see paragraphs 126-131).

Disclosure

23. Although this Statement does not require specific disclosures about short-term employee benefits, other Accounting Standards may require disclosures. For example, where required by AS 18 Related Party Disclosures an enterprise discloses information about employee benefits for key management personnel.

Post-employment Benefits: Defined Contribution Plans and Defined Benefit Plans

24. Post-employment benefits include:
 - A. retirement benefits, e.g., gratuity and pension; and
 - B. other benefits, e.g., post-employment life insurance and post-employment medical care.

Arrangements whereby an enterprise provides post-employment benefits are post-employment benefit plans. An enterprise applies this Statement to all such arrangements whether or not they involve the establishment of a separate entity to receive contributions and to pay benefits.
25. Post-employment benefit plans are classified as either defined contribution plans or defined benefit plans, depending on the economic substance of the plan as derived from its principal terms and conditions. Under defined contribution plans:
 - A. the enterprise's obligation is limited to the amount that it agrees to contribute to the fund. Thus, the amount of the post-employment benefits received by the employee is determined by the amount of contributions paid by an enterprise (and also by the employee) to a post-employment benefit plan or to an insurance company, together with investment returns arising from the contributions; and
 - B. in consequence, actuarial risk (that benefits will be less than expected) and investment risk (that assets invested will be insufficient to meet expected benefits) fall on the employee.

26. Examples of cases where an enterprise's obligation is not limited to the amount that it agrees to contribute to the fund are when the enterprise has an obligation through:
 - A. a plan benefit formula that is not linked solely to the amount of contributions; or
 - B. a guarantee, either indirectly through a plan or directly, of a specified return on contributions; or
 - C. informal practices that give rise to an obligation, for example, an obligation may arise where an enterprise has a history of increasing benefits for former employees to keep pace with inflation even where there is no legal obligation to do so.
27. Under defined benefit plans:
 - A. the enterprise's obligation is to provide the agreed benefits to current and former employees; and
 - B. actuarial risk (that benefits will cost more than expected) and investment risk fall, in substance, on the enterprise. If actuarial or investment experience are worse than expected, the enterprise's obligation may be increased.
28. Paragraphs 29 to 43 below deal with defined contribution plans and defined benefit plans in the context of multi-employer plans, state plans and insured benefits.

Multi-employer Plans

29. ***An enterprise should classify a multi-employer plan as a defined contribution plan or a defined benefit plan under the terms of the plan (including any obligation that goes beyond the formal terms). where a multi-employer plan is a defined benefit plan, an enterprise should:***
 - A. ***account for its proportionate share of the defined benefit obligation, plan assets and cost associated with the plan in the same way as for any other defined benefit plan; and***
 - B. ***disclose the information required by paragraph 119.***
30. ***When sufficient information is not available to use defined benefit accounting for a multi-employer plan that is a defined benefit plan, an enterprise should:***
 - A. ***account for the plan under paragraphs 45-47 as if it were a defined contribution plan;***
 - B. ***disclose:***
 - a. ***the fact that the plan is a defined benefit plan; and***
 - b. ***the reason why sufficient information is not available to enable the enterprise to account for the plan as a defined benefit plan; and***
 - C. ***to the extent that a surplus or deficit in the plan may affect the amount of future contributions, disclose in addition:***
 - a. ***any available information about that surplus or deficit;***
 - b. ***the basis used to determine that surplus or deficit; and***
 - c. ***the implications, if any, for the enterprise.***
31. One example of a defined benefit multi-employer plan is one where:
 - A. the plan is financed in a manner such that contributions are set at a level that is expected to be sufficient to pay the benefits falling due in the same period; and future benefits earned during the current period will be paid out of future contributions; and
 - B. employees' benefits are determined by the length of their service and the participating enterprises have no realistic means of withdrawing from the plan without paying a contribution for the benefits earned by employees up to the date of withdrawal. Such a plan creates actuarial risk for the

enterprise; if the ultimate cost of benefits already earned at the balance sheet date is more than expected, the enterprise will have to either increase its contributions or persuade employees to accept a reduction in benefits. Therefore, such a plan is a defined benefit plan.

32. Where sufficient information is available about a multi-employer plan which is a defined benefit plan, an enterprise accounts for its proportionate share of the defined benefit obligation, plan assets and post-employment benefit cost associated with the plan in the same way as for any other defined benefit plan. However, in some cases, an enterprise may not be able to identify its share of the underlying financial position and performance of the plan with sufficient reliability for accounting purposes. This may occur if:
- A. the enterprise does not have access to information about the plan that satisfies the requirements of this Statement; or
 - B. the plan exposes the participating enterprises to actuarial risks associated with the current and former employees of other enterprises, with the result that there is no consistent and reliable basis for allocating the obligation, plan assets and cost to individual enterprises participating in the plan.

In those cases, an enterprise accounts for the plan as if it were a defined contribution plan and discloses the additional information required by paragraph 30.

33. Multi-employer plans are distinct from group administration plans. A group administration plan is merely an aggregation of single employer plans combined to allow participating employers to pool their assets for investment purposes and reduce investment management and administration costs, but the claims of different employers are segregated for the sole benefit of their own employees. Group administration plans pose no particular accounting problems because information is readily available to treat them in the same way as any other single employer plan and because such plans do not expose the participating enterprises to actuarial risks associated with the current and former employees of other enterprises. The definitions in this Statement require an enterprise to classify a group administration plan as a defined contribution plan or a defined benefit plan in accordance with the terms of the plan (including any obligation that goes beyond the formal terms).
34. Defined benefit plans that share risks between various enterprises under common control, for example, a parent and its subsidiaries, are not multi-employer plans.
35. In respect of such a plan, if there is a contractual agreement or stated policy for charging the net defined benefit cost for the plan as a whole to individual group enterprises, the enterprise recognises, in its separate financial statements, the net defined benefit cost so charged. If there is no such agreement or policy, the net defined benefit cost is recognised in the separate financial statements of the group enterprise that is legally the sponsoring employer for the plan. The other group enterprises recognise, in their separate financial statements, a cost equal to their contribution payable for the period.
36. AS 29 Provisions, Contingent Liabilities and Contingent Assets requires an enterprise to recognise, or disclose information about, certain contingent liabilities. In the context of a multi-employer plan, a contingent liability may arise from, for example:
- A. actuarial losses relating to other participating enterprises because each enterprise that participates in a multi-employer plan shares in the actuarial risks of every other participating enterprise; or
 - B. any responsibility under the terms of a plan to finance any shortfall in the plan if other enterprises cease to participate.

State Plans

- 37. *An enterprise should account for a state plan in the same way as for a multi-employer plan (see paragraphs 29 and 30).***
38. State plans are established by legislation to cover all enterprises (or all enterprises in a particular category, for example, a specific industry) and are operated by national or local government or by another body (for example, an autonomous agency created specifically for this purpose) which is not subject to control or influence by the reporting enterprise. Some plans established by an enterprise provide both compulsory benefits which substitute for benefits that would otherwise be covered under a state plan and additional voluntary benefits. Such plans are not state plans.
39. State plans are characterised as defined benefit or defined contribution in nature based on the enterprise's obligation under the plan. Many state plans are funded in a manner such that contributions are set at a level that is expected to be sufficient to pay the required benefits falling due in the same period; future benefits earned during the current period will be paid out of future contributions. Nevertheless, in most state plans, the enterprise has no obligation to pay those future benefits: its only obligation is to pay the contributions as they fall due and if the enterprise ceases to employ members of the state plan, it will have no obligation to pay the benefits earned by such employees in previous years. For this reason, state plans are normally defined contribution plans. However, in the rare cases when a state plan is a defined benefit plan, an enterprise applies the treatment prescribed in paragraphs 29 and 30.

Insured Benefits

- 40. *An enterprise may pay insurance premiums to fund a post-employment benefit plan. The enterprise should treat such a plan as a defined contribution plan unless the enterprise will have (either directly, or indirectly through the plan) an obligation to either:***
- A. *pay the employee benefits directly when they fall due; or***
 - B. *pay further amounts if the insurer does not pay all future employee benefits relating to employee service in the current and prior periods.***
- If the enterprise retains such an obligation, the enterprise should treat the plan as a defined benefit plan.***
41. The benefits insured by an insurance contract need not have a direct or automatic relationship with the enterprise's obligation for employee benefits. Post-employment benefit plans involving insurance contracts are subject to the same distinction between accounting and funding as other funded plans.
42. Where an enterprise funds a post-employment benefit obligation by contributing to an insurance policy under which the enterprise (either directly, indirectly through the plan, through the mechanism for setting future premiums or through a related party relationship with the insurer) retains an obligation, the payment of the premiums does not amount to a defined contribution arrangement. It follows that the enterprise:
- A. accounts for a qualifying insurance policy as a plan asset (see paragraph 7); and
 - B. recognises other insurance policies as reimbursement rights (if the policies satisfy the criteria in paragraph 102).
43. Where an insurance policy is in the name of a specified plan participant or a group of plan participants and the enterprise does not have any obligation to cover any loss on the policy, the enterprise has no obligation to pay benefits to the employees and the insurer has sole responsibility for paying the benefits. The payment of fixed premiums under such contracts is, in substance, the settlement of the employee benefit obligation, rather than an investment to

meet the obligation. Consequently, the enterprise no longer has an asset or a liability. Therefore, an enterprise treats such payments as contributions to a defined contribution plan.

Post-employment Benefits: Defined Contribution Plans

44. Accounting for defined contribution plans is straightforward because the reporting enterprise's obligation for each period is determined by the amounts to be contributed for that period. Consequently, no actuarial assumptions are required to measure the obligation or the expense and there is no possibility of any actuarial gain or loss. Moreover, the obligations are measured on an undiscounted basis, except where they do not fall due wholly within twelve months after the end of the period in which the employees render the related service.

Recognition and Measurement

45. *When an employee has rendered service to an enterprise during a period, the enterprise should recognise the contribution payable to a defined contribution plan in exchange for that service:*
- A. *as a liability (accrued expense), after deducting any contribution already paid. If the contribution already paid exceeds the contribution due for service before the balance sheet date, an enterprise should recognise that excess as an asset (prepaid expense) to the extent that the prepayment will lead to, for example, a reduction in future payments or a cash refund; and*
 - B. *as an expense, unless another Accounting Standard requires or permits the inclusion of the contribution in the cost of an asset (see, for example, AS 10, Accounting for Fixed Assets).*
46. *Where contributions to a defined contribution plan do not fall due wholly within twelve months after the end of the period in which the employees render the related service, they should be discounted using the discount rate specified in paragraph 77.*

Disclosure

47. *An enterprise should disclose the amount recognised as an expense for defined contribution plans.*
48. Where required by AS 18 Related Party Disclosures an enterprise discloses information about contributions to defined contribution plans for key management personnel.

Post-employment Benefits: Defined Benefit Plans

49. Accounting for defined benefit plans is complex because actuarial assumptions are required to measure the obligation and the expense and there is a possibility of actuarial gains and losses. Moreover, the obligations are measured on a discounted basis because they may be settled many years after the employees render the related service. While the Statement requires that it is the responsibility of the reporting enterprise to measure the obligations under the defined benefit plans, it is recognised that for doing so the enterprise would normally use the services of a qualified actuary.

Recognition and Measurement

50. Defined benefit plans may be unfunded, or they may be wholly or partly funded by contributions by an enterprise, and sometimes its employees, into an entity, or fund, that is legally separate from the reporting enterprise and from which the

employee benefits are paid. The payment of funded benefits when they fall due depends not only on the financial position and the investment performance of the fund but also on an enterprise's ability to make good any shortfall in the fund's assets. Therefore, the enterprise is, in substance, underwriting the actuarial and investment risks associated with the plan. Consequently, the expense recognised for a defined benefit plan is not necessarily the amount of the contribution due for the period.

51. Accounting by an enterprise for defined benefit plans involves the following steps:
- A. using actuarial techniques to make a reliable estimate of the amount of benefit that employees have earned in return for their service in the current and prior periods. This requires an enterprise to determine how much benefit is attributable to the current and prior periods (see paragraphs 67-71) and to make estimates (actuarial assumptions) about demographic variables (such as employee turnover and mortality) and financial variables (such as future increases in salaries and medical costs) that will influence the cost of the benefit (see paragraphs 72-90);
 - B. discounting that benefit using the Projected Unit Credit Method in order to determine the present value of the defined benefit obligation and the current service cost (see paragraphs 64-66);
 - C. determining the fair value of any plan assets (see paragraphs 99-101);
 - D. determining the total amount of actuarial gains and losses (see paragraphs 91-92);
 - E. where a plan has been introduced or changed, determining the resulting past service cost (see paragraphs 93-98); and
 - F. where a plan has been curtailed or settled, determining the resulting gain or loss (see paragraphs 109-115).

Where an enterprise has more than one defined benefit plan, the enterprise applies these procedures for each material plan separately.

52. For measuring the amounts under paragraph 51, in some cases, estimates, averages and simplified computations may provide a reliable approximation of the detailed computations.

Accounting for the Obligation under a Defined Benefit Plan

53. ***An enterprise should account not only for its legal obligation under the formal terms of a defined benefit plan, but also for any other obligation that arises from the enterprise's informal practices. Informal practices give rise to an obligation where the enterprise has no realistic alternative but to pay employee benefits. An example of such an obligation is where a change in the enterprise's informal practices would cause unacceptable damage to its relationship with employees.***
54. The formal terms of a defined benefit plan may permit an enterprise to terminate its obligation under the plan. Nevertheless, it is usually difficult for an enterprise to cancel a plan if employees are to be retained. Therefore, in the absence of evidence to the contrary, accounting for post-employment benefits assumes that an enterprise which is currently promising such benefits will continue to do so over the remaining working lives of employees.

Balance Sheet

55. ***The amount recognised as a defined benefit liability should be the net total of the following amounts:***
- A. ***the present value of the defined benefit obligation at the balance sheet date (see paragraph 64);***
 - B. ***minus any past service cost not yet recognised (see paragraph 93);***

- C. minus the fair value at the balance sheet date of plan assets (if any) out of which the obligations are to be settled directly (see paragraphs 99-101).**
56. The present value of the defined benefit obligation is the gross obligation, before deducting the fair value of any plan assets.
- 57. An enterprise should determine the present value of defined benefit obligations and the fair value of any plan assets with sufficient regularity that the amounts recognised in the financial statements do not differ materially from the amounts that would be determined at the balance sheet date.**
58. The detailed actuarial valuation of the present value of defined benefit obligations may be made at intervals not exceeding three years. However, with a view that the amounts recognised in the financial statements do not differ materially from the amounts that would be determined at the balance sheet date, the most recent valuation is reviewed at the balance sheet date and updated to reflect any material transactions and other material changes in circumstances (including changes in interest rates) between the date of valuation and the balance sheet date. The fair value of any plan assets is determined at each balance sheet date.
- 59. The amount determined under paragraph 55 may be negative (an asset). An enterprise should measure the resulting asset at the lower of:**
- A. the amount determined under paragraph 55; and**
 - B. the present value of any economic benefits available in the form of refunds from the plan or reductions in future contributions to the plan. The present value of these economic benefits should be determined using the discount rate specified in paragraph 77.**
60. An asset may arise where a defined benefit plan has been over-funded or in certain cases where actuarial gains are recognised. An enterprise recognises an asset in such cases because:
- A. the enterprise controls a resource, which is the ability to use the surplus to generate future benefits;
 - B. that control is a result of past events (contributions paid by the enterprise and service rendered by the employee); and
 - C. future economic benefits are available to the enterprise in the form of a reduction in future contributions or a cash refund, either directly to the enterprise or indirectly to another plan in deficit.

Statement of Profit and Loss

- 61. An enterprise should recognise the net total of the following amounts in the statement of profit and loss, except to the extent that another Accounting Standard requires or permits their inclusion in the cost of an asset:**
- A. current service cost (see paragraphs 63-90);**
 - B. interest cost (see paragraph 81);**
 - C. the expected return on any plan assets (see paragraphs 106-108) and on any reimbursement rights (see paragraph 102);**
 - D. actuarial gains and losses (see paragraphs 91-92);**
 - E. past service cost to the extent that paragraph 93 requires an enterprise to recognise it;**
 - F. the effect of any curtailments or settlements (see paragraphs 109 and 110); and**
 - G. the effect of the limit in paragraph 59 B., i.e., the extent to which the amount determined under paragraph 55 (if negative) exceeds the amount determined under paragraph 59 B.**

62. Other Accounting Standards require the inclusion of certain employee benefit costs within the cost of assets such as tangible fixed assets (see AS 10 Accounting for Fixed Assets). Any post-employment benefit costs included in the cost of such assets include the appropriate proportion of the components listed in paragraph 61.

Recognition and Measurement: Present Value of Defined Benefit Obligations and Current Service Cost

63. The ultimate cost of a defined benefit plan may be influenced by many variables, such as final salaries, employee turnover and mortality, medical cost trends and, for a funded plan, the investment earnings on the plan assets. The ultimate cost of the plan is uncertain and this uncertainty is likely to persist over a long period of time. In order to measure the present value of the post-employment benefit obligations and the related current service cost, it is necessary to:
- A. apply an actuarial valuation method (see paragraphs 64-66);
 - B. attribute benefit to periods of service (see paragraphs 67-71); and
 - C. make actuarial assumptions (see paragraphs 72-90).

Actuarial Valuation Method

64. ***An enterprise should use the Projected Unit Credit Method to determine the present value of its defined benefit obligations and the related current service cost and, where applicable, past service cost.***
65. The Projected Unit Credit Method (sometimes known as the accrued benefit method pro-rated on service or as the benefit/years of service method) considers each period of service as giving rise to an additional unit of benefit entitlement (see paragraphs 67-71) and measures each unit separately to build up the final obligation (see paragraphs 72-90).
66. An enterprise discounts the whole of a post-employment benefit obligation, even if part of the obligation falls due within twelve months of the balance sheet date.

Attributing Benefit to Periods of Service

67. ***In determining the present value of its defined benefit obligations and the related current service cost and, where applicable, past service cost, an enterprise should attribute benefit to periods of service under the plan's benefit formula. However, if an employee's service in later years will lead to a materially higher level of benefit than in earlier years, an enterprise should attribute benefit on a straight-line basis from:***
- A. ***the date when service by the employee first leads to benefits under the plan (whether or not the benefits are conditional on further service); until***
 - B. ***the date when further service by the employee will lead to no material amount of further benefits under the plan, other than from further salary increases.***
68. The Projected Unit Credit Method requires an enterprise to attribute benefit to the current period (in order to determine current service cost) and the current and prior periods (in order to determine the present value of defined benefit obligations). An enterprise attributes benefit to periods in which the obligation to provide post-employment benefits arises. That obligation arises as employees render services in return for post-employment benefits which an enterprise expects to pay in future reporting periods. Actuarial techniques allow an enterprise to measure that obligation with sufficient reliability to justify recognition of a liability.
69. Employee service gives rise to an obligation under a defined benefit plan even if the benefits are conditional on future employment (in other words they are not vested). Employee service before the vesting date gives rise to an obligation

because, at each successive balance sheet date, the amount of future service that an employee will have to render before becoming entitled to the benefit is reduced. In measuring its defined benefit obligation, an enterprise considers the probability that some employees may not satisfy any vesting requirements. Similarly, although certain post-employment benefits, for example, post-employment medical benefits, become payable only if a specified event occurs when an employee is no longer employed, an obligation is created when the employee renders service that will provide entitlement to the benefit if the specified event occurs. The probability that the specified event will occur affects the measurement of the obligation, but does not determine whether the obligation exists.

70. The obligation increases until the date when further service by the employee will lead to no material amount of further benefits. Therefore, all benefit is attributed to periods ending on or before that date. Benefit is attributed to individual accounting periods under the plan's benefit formula. However, if an employee's service in later years will lead to a materially higher level of benefit than in earlier years, an enterprise attributes benefit on a straight-line basis until the date when further service by the employee will lead to no material amount of further benefits. That is because the employee's service throughout the entire period will ultimately lead to benefit at that higher level.
71. Where the amount of a benefit is a constant proportion of final salary for each year of service, future salary increases will affect the amount required to settle the obligation that exists for service before the balance sheet date, but do not create an additional obligation. Therefore:
 - A. for the purpose of paragraph 67 B., salary increases do not lead to further benefits, even though the amount of the benefits is dependent on final salary; and
 - B. the amount of benefit attributed to each period is a constant proportion of the salary to which the benefit is linked.

Actuarial Assumptions

72. ***Actuarial assumptions comprising demographic assumptions and financial assumptions should be unbiased and mutually compatible. Financial assumptions should be based on market expectations, at the balance sheet date, for the period over which the obligations are to be settled.***
73. Actuarial assumptions are an enterprise's best estimates of the variables that will determine the ultimate cost of providing post-employment benefits. Actuarial assumptions comprise:
 - A. demographic assumptions about the future characteristics of current and former employees (and their dependants) who are eligible for benefits. Demographic assumptions deal with matters such as:
 - a. mortality, both during and after employment;
 - b. rates of employee turnover, disability and early retirement;
 - c. the proportion of plan members with dependants who will be eligible for benefits; and
 - d. claim rates under medical plans; and
 - B. financial assumptions, dealing with items such as:
 - a. the discount rate (see paragraphs 77-81);
 - b. future salary and benefit levels (see paragraphs 82-86);
 - c. in the case of medical benefits, future medical costs, including, where material, the cost of administering claims and benefit payments (see paragraphs 87-90); and
 - d. the expected rate of return on plan assets (see paragraphs 106-108).

74. Actuarial assumptions are unbiased if they are neither imprudent nor excessively conservative.
75. Actuarial assumptions are mutually compatible if they reflect the economic relationships between factors such as inflation, rates of salary increase, the return on plan assets and discount rates. For example, all assumptions which depend on a particular inflation level (such as assumptions about interest rates and salary and benefit increases) in any given future period assume the same inflation level in that period.
76. An enterprise determines the discount rate and other financial assumptions in nominal (stated) terms, unless estimates in real (inflation adjusted) terms are more reliable, for example, where the benefit is index linked and there is a deep market in index-linked bonds of the same currency and term.

Actuarial Assumptions: Discount Rate

77. ***The rate used to discount post-employment benefit obligations (both funded and unfunded) should be determined by reference to market yields at the balance sheet date on government bonds. The currency and term of the government bonds should be consistent with the currency and estimated term of the post-employment benefit obligations.***
78. One actuarial assumption which has a material effect is the discount rate. The discount rate reflects the time value of money but not the actuarial or investment risk. Furthermore, the discount rate does not reflect the enterprise-specific credit risk borne by the enterprise's creditors, nor does it reflect the risk that future experience may differ from actuarial assumptions.
79. The discount rate reflects the estimated timing of benefit payments. In practice, an enterprise often achieves this by applying a single weighted average discount rate that reflects the estimated timing and amount of benefit payments and the currency in which the benefits are to be paid.
80. In some cases, there may be no government bonds with a sufficiently long maturity to match the estimated maturity of all the benefit payments. In such cases, an enterprise uses current market rates of the appropriate term to discount shorter term payments, and estimates the discount rate for longer maturities by extrapolating current market rates along the yield curve. The total present value of a defined benefit obligation is unlikely to be particularly sensitive to the discount rate applied to the portion of benefits that is payable beyond the final maturity of the available government bonds.
81. Interest cost is computed by multiplying the discount rate as determined at the start of the period by the present value of the defined benefit obligation throughout that period, taking account of any material changes in the obligation. The present value of the obligation will differ from the liability recognised in the balance sheet because the liability is recognised after deducting the fair value of any plan assets and because some past service cost are not recognised immediately.

Actuarial Assumptions: Salaries, Benefits and Medical Costs

82. ***Post-employment benefit obligations should be measured on a basis that reflects:***
 - A. ***estimated future salary increases;***
 - B. ***the benefits set out in the terms of the plan (or resulting from any obligation that goes beyond those terms) at the balance sheet date; and***
 - C. ***estimated future changes in the level of any state benefits that affect the benefits payable under a defined benefit plan, if, and only if, either:***

- a. ***those changes were enacted before the balance sheet date; or***
 - b. ***past history, or other reliable evidence, indicates that those state benefits will change in some predictable manner, for example, in line with future changes in general price levels or general salary levels.***
- 83. Estimates of future salary increases take account of inflation, seniority, promotion and other relevant factors, such as supply and demand in the employment market.
- 84. If the formal terms of a plan (or an obligation that goes beyond those terms) require an enterprise to change benefits in future periods, the measurement of the obligation reflects those changes. This is the case when, for example:
 - A. the enterprise has a past history of increasing benefits, for example, to mitigate the effects of inflation, and there is no indication that this practice will change in the future; or
 - B. actuarial gains have already been recognised in the financial statements and the enterprise is obliged, by either the formal terms of a plan (or an obligation that goes beyond those terms) or legislation, to use any surplus in the plan for the benefit of plan participants (see paragraph 95C.).
- 85. Actuarial assumptions do not reflect future benefit changes that are not set out in the formal terms of the plan (or an obligation that goes beyond those terms) at the balance sheet date. Such changes will result in:
 - A. past service cost, to the extent that they change benefits for service before the change; and
 - B. current service cost for periods after the change, to the extent that they change benefits for service after the change.
- 86. Some post-employment benefits are linked to variables such as the level of state retirement benefits or state medical care. The measurement of such benefits reflects expected changes in such variables, based on past history and other reliable evidence.
- 87. ***Assumptions about medical costs should take account of estimated future changes in the cost of medical services, resulting from both inflation and specific changes in medical costs.***
- 88. Measurement of post-employment medical benefits requires assumptions about the level and frequency of future claims and the cost of meeting those claims. An enterprise estimates future medical costs on the basis of historical data about the enterprise's own experience, supplemented where necessary by historical data from other enterprises, insurance companies, medical providers or other sources. Estimates of future medical costs consider the effect of technological advances, changes in health care utilisation or delivery patterns and changes in the health status of plan participants.
- 89. The level and frequency of claims is particularly sensitive to the age, health status and sex of employees (and their dependants) and may be sensitive to other factors such as geographical location. Therefore, historical data is adjusted to the extent that the demographic mix of the population differs from that of the population used as a basis for the historical data. It is also adjusted where there is reliable evidence that historical trends will not continue.
- 90. Some post-employment health care plans require employees to contribute to the medical costs covered by the plan. Estimates of future medical costs take account of any such contributions, based on the terms of the plan at the balance sheet date (or based on any obligation that goes beyond those terms). Changes in those employee contributions result in past service cost or, where applicable, curtailments. The cost of meeting claims may be reduced by benefits from state or other medical providers (see paragraphs 82 C. and 86).

Actuarial Gains and Losses

- 91. Actuarial gains and losses should be recognised immediately in the statement of profit and loss as income or expense (see paragraph 61).**
92. Actuarial gains and losses may result from increases or decreases in either the present value of a defined benefit obligation or the fair value of any related plan assets. Causes of actuarial gains and losses include, for example:
- A. unexpectedly high or low rates of employee turnover, early retirement or mortality or of increases in salaries, benefits (if the terms of a plan provide for inflationary benefit increases) or medical costs;
 - B. the effect of changes in estimates of future employee turnover, early retirement or mortality or of increases in salaries, benefits (if the terms of a plan provide for inflationary benefit increases) or medical costs;
 - C. the effect of changes in the discount rate; and
 - D. differences between the actual return on plan assets and the expected return on plan assets (see paragraphs 106-108).

Past Service Cost

- 93. In measuring its defined benefit liability under paragraph 55, an enterprise should recognise past service cost as an expense on a straight line basis over the average period until the benefits become vested. To the extent that the benefits are already vested immediately following the introduction of, or changes to, a defined benefit plan, an enterprise should recognise past service cost immediately.**
94. Past service cost arises when an enterprise introduces a defined benefit plan or changes the benefits payable under an existing defined benefit plan. Such changes are in return for employee service over the period until the benefits concerned are vested. Therefore, past service cost is recognised over that period, regardless of the fact that the cost refers to employee service in previous periods. Past service cost is measured as the change in the liability resulting from the amendment (see paragraph 64).
95. Past service cost excludes:
- A. the effect of differences between actual and previously assumed salary increases on the obligation to pay benefits for service in prior years (there is no past service cost because actuarial assumptions allow for projected salaries);
 - B. under and over estimates of discretionary pension increases where an enterprise has an obligation to grant such increases (there is no past service cost because actuarial assumptions allow for such increases);
 - C. estimates of benefit improvements that result from actuarial gains that have already been recognised in the financial statements if the enterprise is obliged, by either the formal terms of a plan (or an obligation that goes beyond those terms) or legislation, to use any surplus in the plan for the benefit of plan participants, even if the benefit increase has not yet been formally awarded (the resulting increase in the obligation is an actuarial loss and not past service cost, see paragraph 84 B.);
 - D. the increase in vested benefits (not on account of new or improved benefits) when employees complete vesting requirements (there is no past service cost because the estimated cost of benefits was recognised as current service cost as the service was rendered); and
 - E. the effect of plan amendments that reduce benefits for future service (a curtailment).
96. An enterprise establishes the amortisation schedule for past service cost when the benefits are introduced or changed. It would be impracticable to maintain the detailed records needed to identify and implement subsequent changes in that amortisation schedule. Moreover, the effect is likely to be material only

where there is a curtailment or settlement. Therefore, an enterprise amends the amortisation schedule for past service cost only if there is a curtailment or settlement.

97. Where an enterprise reduces benefits payable under an existing defined benefit plan, the resulting reduction in the defined benefit liability is recognised as (negative) past service cost over the average period until the reduced portion of the benefits becomes vested.
98. Where an enterprise reduces certain benefits payable under an existing defined benefit plan and, at the same time, increases other benefits payable under the plan for the same employees, the enterprise treats the change as a single net change.

Recognition and Measurement: Plan Assets

Fair Value of Plan Assets

99. The fair value of any plan assets is deducted in determining the amount recognised in the balance sheet under paragraph 55. When no market price is available, the fair value of plan assets is estimated; for example, by discounting expected future cash flows using a discount rate that reflects both the risk associated with the plan assets and the maturity or expected disposal date of those assets (or, if they have no maturity, the expected period until the settlement of the related obligation).
100. Plan assets exclude unpaid contributions due from the reporting enterprise to the fund, as well as any non-transferable financial instruments issued by the enterprise and held by the fund. Plan assets are reduced by any liabilities of the fund that do not relate to employee benefits, for example, trade and other payables and liabilities resulting from derivative financial instruments.
101. Where plan assets include qualifying insurance policies that exactly match the amount and timing of some or all of the benefits payable under the plan, the fair value of those insurance policies is deemed to be the present value of the related obligations, as described in paragraph 55 (subject to any reduction required if the amounts receivable under the insurance policies are not recoverable in full).

Reimbursements

102. ***When, and only when, it is virtually certain that another party will reimburse some or all of the expenditure required to settle a defined benefit obligation, an enterprise should recognise its right to reimbursement as a separate asset. The enterprise should measure the asset at fair value. In all other respects, an enterprise should treat that asset in the same way as plan assets. In the statement of profit and loss, the expense relating to a defined benefit plan may be presented net of the amount recognised for a reimbursement.***
103. Sometimes, an enterprise is able to look to another party, such as an insurer, to pay part or all of the expenditure required to settle a defined benefit obligation. Qualifying insurance policies, as defined in paragraph 7, are plan assets. An enterprise accounts for qualifying insurance policies in the same way as for all other plan assets and paragraph 102 does not apply (see paragraphs 40-43 and 101).
104. When an insurance policy is not a qualifying insurance policy, that insurance policy is not a plan asset. Paragraph 102 deals with such cases: the enterprise recognises its right to reimbursement under the insurance policy as a separate asset, rather than as a deduction in determining the defined benefit liability recognised under paragraph 55; in all other respects, including for determination of the fair value, the enterprise treats that asset in the same way as plan assets.

Paragraph 119. F. c. requires the enterprise to disclose a brief description of the link between the reimbursement right and the related obligation.

105. If the right to reimbursement arises under an insurance policy that exactly matches the amount and timing of some or all of the benefits payable under a defined benefit plan, the fair value of the reimbursement right is deemed to be the present value of the related obligation, as described in paragraph 55 (subject to any reduction required if the reimbursement is not recoverable in full).

Return on Plan Assets

106. The expected return on plan assets is a component of the expense recognised in the statement of profit and loss. The difference between the expected return on plan assets and the actual return on plan assets is an actuarial gain or loss.

107. The expected return on plan assets is based on market expectations, at the beginning of the period, for returns over the entire life of the related obligation. The expected return on plan assets reflects changes in the fair value of plan assets held during the period as a result of actual contributions paid into the fund and actual benefits paid out of the fund.
108. In determining the expected and actual return on plan assets, an enterprise deducts expected administration costs, other than those included in the actuarial assumptions used to measure the obligation.

Curtailments and Settlements

109. An enterprise should recognise gains or losses on the curtailment or settlement of a defined benefit plan when the curtailment or settlement occurs. The gain or loss on a curtailment or settlement should comprise:

- A. any resulting change in the present value of the defined benefit obligation;**
- B. any resulting change in the fair value of the plan assets;**
- C. any related past service cost that, under paragraph 94, had not previously been recognised.**

110. Before determining the effect of a curtailment or settlement, an enterprise should remeasure the obligation (and the related plan assets, if any) using current actuarial assumptions (including current market interest rates and other current market prices).

111. A curtailment occurs when an enterprise either:

- A. has a present obligation, arising from the requirement of a statute/regulator or otherwise, to make a material reduction in the number of employees covered by a plan; or
- B. amends the terms of a defined benefit plan such that a material element of future service by current employees will no longer qualify for benefits, or will qualify only for reduced benefits.

A curtailment may arise from an isolated event, such as the closing of a plant, discontinuance of an operation or termination or suspension of a plan. An event is material enough to qualify as a curtailment if the recognition of a curtailment gain or loss would have a material effect on the financial statements. Curtailments are often linked with a restructuring. Therefore, an enterprise accounts for a curtailment at the same time as for a related restructuring.

112. A settlement occurs when an enterprise enters into a transaction that eliminates all further obligations for part or all of the benefits provided under a defined benefit plan, for example, when a lump-sum cash payment is made to, or on behalf of, plan participants in exchange for their rights to receive specified post-employment benefits.

113. In some cases, an enterprise acquires an insurance policy to fund some or all of the employee benefits relating to employee service in the current and prior periods. The acquisition of such a policy is not a settlement if the enterprise retains an obligation (see paragraph 40) to pay further amounts if the insurer does not pay the employee benefits specified in the insurance policy. Paragraphs 102-104 deal with the recognition and measurement of reimbursement rights under insurance policies that are not plan assets.
114. A settlement occurs together with a curtailment if a plan is terminated such that the obligation is settled and the plan ceases to exist. However, the termination of a plan is not a curtailment or settlement if the plan is replaced by a new plan that offers benefits that are, in substance, identical.
115. Where a curtailment relates to only some of the employees covered by a plan, or where only part of an obligation is settled, the gain or loss includes a proportionate share of the previously unrecognized past service cost. The proportionate share is determined on the basis of the present value of the obligations before and after the curtailment or settlement, unless another basis is more rational in the circumstances.

Presentation

Offset

- 116. An enterprise should offset an asset relating to one plan against a liability relating to another plan when, and only when, the enterprise:**
- A. has a legally enforceable right to use a surplus in one plan to settle obligations under the other plan; and**
 - B. intends either to settle the obligations on a net basis, or to realize the surplus in one plan and settle its obligation under the other plan simultaneously.**

Financial Components of Post-employment Benefit Costs

117. This Statement does not specify whether an enterprise should present current service cost, interest cost and the expected return on plan assets as components of a single item of income or expense on the face of the statement of profit and loss.

Disclosure

- 118. An enterprise should disclose information that enables users of financial statements to evaluate the nature of its defined benefit plans and the financial effects of changes in those plans during the period.**
- 119. An enterprise should disclose the following information about defined benefit plans:**
- A. the enterprise's accounting policy for recognising actuarial gains and losses.**
 - B. a general description of the type of plan.**
 - C. a reconciliation of opening and closing balances of the present value of the defined benefit obligation showing separately, if applicable, the effects during the period attributable to each of the following:**
 - a. current service cost,**
 - b. interest cost,**
 - c. contributions by plan participants,**
 - d. actuarial gains and losses,**
 - e. foreign currency exchange rate changes on plans measured in a currency different from the enterprise's reporting currency,**

- f. **benefits paid,**
 - g. **past service cost,**
 - h. **amalgamations,**
 - i. **curtailments, and**
 - j. **settlements.**
- D. **an analysis of the defined benefit obligation into amounts arising from plans that are wholly unfunded and amounts arising from plans that are wholly or partly funded.**
- E. **a reconciliation of the opening and closing balances of the fair value of plan assets and of the opening and closing balances of any reimbursement right recognised as an asset in accordance with paragraph 102 showing separately, if applicable, the effects during the period attributable to each of the following:**
 - a. **expected return on plan assets,**
 - b. **actuarial gains and losses,**
 - c. **foreign currency exchange rate changes on plans measured in a currency different from the enterprise's reporting currency,**
 - d. **contributions by the employer,**
 - e. **contributions by plan participants,**
 - f. **benefits paid,**
 - g. **amalgamations, and**
 - h. **settlements.**
- F. **a reconciliation of the present value of the defined benefit obligation in C. and the fair value of the plan assets in E. to the assets and liabilities recognised in the balance sheet, showing at least:**
 - a. **the past service cost not yet recognised in the balance sheet (see paragraph 93);**
 - b. **any amount not recognised as an asset, because of the limit in paragraph 59 B.;**
 - c. **the fair value at the balance sheet date of any reimbursement right recognised as an asset in accordance with paragraph 102 (with a brief description of the link between the reimbursement right and the related obligation); and**
 - d. **the other amounts recognised in the balance sheet.**
- G. **the total expense recognised in the statement of profit and loss for each of the following, and the line item(s) of the statement of profit and loss in which they are included:**
 - a. **current service cost;**
 - b. **interest cost;**
 - c. **expected return on plan assets;**
 - d. **expected return on any reimbursement right recognised as an asset in accordance with paragraph 102;**
 - e. **actuarial gains and losses;**
 - f. **past service cost;**
 - g. **the effect of any curtailment or settlement; and**
 - h. **the effect of the limit in paragraph 59 B., i.e., the extent to which the amount determined in accordance with paragraph 55 (if negative) exceeds the amount determined in accordance with paragraph 59 B.**
- H. **for each major category of plan assets, which should include, but is not limited to, equity instruments, debt instruments, property,**

and all other assets, the percentage or amount that each major category constitutes of the fair value of the total plan assets.

- I. the amounts included in the fair value of plan assets for:**
 - a. each category of the enterprise's own financial instruments; and**
 - b. any property occupied by, or other assets used by, the enterprise.**
- J. a narrative description of the basis used to determine the overall expected rate of return on assets, including the effect of the major categories of plan assets.**
- K. the actual return on plan assets, as well as the actual return on any reimbursement right recognised as an asset in accordance with paragraph 102.**
- L. the principal actuarial assumptions used as at the balance sheet date, including, where applicable:**
 - a. the discount rates;**
 - b. the expected rates of return on any plan assets for the periods presented in the financial statements;**
 - c. the expected rates of return for the periods presented in the financial statements on any reimbursement right recognized as an asset in accordance with paragraph 102;**
 - d. medical cost trend rates; and**
 - e. any other material actuarial assumptions used.**

An enterprise should disclose each actuarial assumption in absolute terms (for example, as an absolute percentage) and not just as a margin between different percentages or other variables.

Apart from the above actuarial assumptions, an enterprise should include an assertion under the actuarial assumptions to the effect that estimates of future salary increases, considered in actuarial valuation, take account of inflation, seniority, promotion and other relevant factors, such as supply and demand in the employment market.

- M. the effect of an increase of one percentage point and the effect of a decrease of one percentage point in the assumed medical cost trend rates on:**
 - a. the aggregate of the current service cost and interest cost components of net periodic post-employment medical costs; and**
 - b. the accumulated post-employment benefit obligation for medical costs.**

For the purposes of this disclosure, all other assumptions should be held constant. For plans operating in a high inflation environment, the disclosure should be the effect of a percentage increase or decrease in the assumed medical cost trend rate of a significance similar to one percentage point in a low inflation environment.

- N. the amounts for the current annual period and previous four annual periods of:**
 - a. the present value of the defined benefit obligation, the fair value of the plan assets and the surplus or deficit in the plan; and**
 - b. the experience adjustments arising on:**

- ~~✍~~ **the plan liabilities expressed either as (1) an amount or (2) a percentage of the plan liabilities at the balance sheet date, and**
- ~~✍~~ **the plan assets expressed either as (1) an amount or (2) a percentage of the plan assets at the balance sheet date.**

O. the employer's best estimate, as soon as it can reasonably be determined, of contributions expected to be paid to the plan during the annual period beginning after the balance sheet date.

120. Paragraph 119 B. requires a general description of the type of plan. Such a description distinguishes, for example, flat salary pension plans from final salary pension plans and from post-employment medical plans. The description of the plan should include informal practices that give rise to other obligations included in the measurement of the defined benefit obligation in accordance with paragraph 53. Further detail is not required.
121. When an enterprise has more than one defined benefit plan, disclosures may be made in total, separately for each plan, or in such groupings as are considered to be the most useful. It may be useful to distinguish groupings by criteria such as the following:
- A. the geographical location of the plans, for example, by distinguishing domestic plans from foreign plans; or
 - B. whether plans are subject to materially different risks, for example, by distinguishing flat salary pension plans from final salary pension plans and from post-employment medical plans. When an enterprise provides disclosures in total for a grouping of plans, such disclosures are provided in the form of weighted averages or of relatively narrow ranges.
122. Paragraph 30 requires additional disclosures about multi-employer defined benefit plans that are treated as if they were defined contribution plans.
123. Where required by AS 18 Related Party Disclosures an enterprise discloses information about:
- A. related party transactions with post-employment benefit plans; and
 - B. post-employment benefits for key management personnel.
124. Where required by AS 29 Provisions, Contingent Liabilities and Contingent Assets an enterprise discloses information about contingent liabilities arising from post-employment benefit obligations.

Other Long-term Employee Benefits

125. Other long-term employee benefits include, for example:
- A. long-term compensated absences such as long-service or sabbatical leave;
 - B. jubilee or other long-service benefits;
 - C. long-term disability benefits;
 - D. profit-sharing and bonuses payable twelve months or more after the end of the period in which the employees render the related service; and
 - E. deferred compensation paid twelve months or more after the end of the period in which it is earned.
126. In case of other long-term employee benefits, the introduction of, or changes to, other long-term employee benefits rarely causes a material amount of past service cost. For this reason, this Statement requires a simplified method of accounting for other long-term employee benefits. This method differs from the accounting required for post-employment benefits insofar as that all past service cost is recognised immediately.

Recognition and Measurement

127. The amount recognised as a liability for other long-term employee benefits should be the net total of the following amounts:

- A. the present value of the defined benefit obligation at the balance sheet date (see paragraph 64);**
- B. minus the fair value at the balance sheet date of plan assets (if any) out of which the obligations are to be settled directly (see paragraphs 99-101).**

In measuring the liability, an enterprise should apply paragraphs 49-91, excluding paragraphs 55 and 61. An enterprise should apply paragraph 102 in recognising and measuring any reimbursement right.

128. For other long-term employee benefits, an enterprise should recognise the net total of the following amounts as expense or (subject to paragraph 59) income, except to the extent that another Accounting Standard requires or permits their inclusion in the cost of an asset:

- A. current service cost (see paragraphs 63-90);**
- B. interest cost (see paragraph 81);**
- C. the expected return on any plan assets (see paragraphs 106-108) and on any reimbursement right recognised as an asset (see paragraph 102);**
- D. actuarial gains and losses, which should all be recognized immediately;**
- E. past service cost, which should all be recognised immediately; and**
- F. the effect of any curtailments or settlements (see paragraphs 109 and 110).**

129. One form of other long-term employee benefit is long-term disability benefit. If the level of benefit depends on the length of service, an obligation arises when the service is rendered. Measurement of that obligation reflects the probability that payment will be required and the length of time for which payment is expected to be made. If the level of benefit is the same for any disabled employee regardless of years of service, the expected cost of those benefits is recognised when an event occurs that causes a long-term disability.

Disclosure

130. Although this Statement does not require specific disclosures about other long-term employee benefits, other Accounting Standards may require disclosures, for example, where the expense resulting from such benefits is of such size, nature or incidence that its disclosure is relevant to explain the performance of the enterprise for the period (see AS 5 Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period Items and Changes in Accounting Policies). Where required by AS 18 Related Party Disclosures an enterprise discloses information about other long-term employee benefits for key management personnel.

Termination Benefits

131. This Statement deals with termination benefits separately from other employee benefits because the event which gives rise to an obligation is the termination rather than employee service.

Recognition

132. An enterprise should recognise termination benefits as a liability and an expense when, and only when:

- A. the enterprise has a present obligation as a result of a past event;**
- B. it is probable that an outflow of resources embodying economic benefits will be required to settle the obligation; and**

C. a reliable estimate can be made of the amount of the obligation.

133. An enterprise may be committed, by legislation, by contractual or other agreements with employees or their representatives or by an obligation based on business practice, custom or a desire to act equitably, to make payments (or provide other benefits) to employees when it terminates their employment. Such payments are termination benefits. Termination benefits are typically lump-sum payments, but sometimes also include:
- A. enhancement of retirement benefits or of other post-employment benefits, either indirectly through an employee benefit plan or directly; and
 - B. salary until the end of a specified notice period if the employee renders no further service that provides economic benefits to the enterprise.
134. Some employee benefits are payable regardless of the reason for the employee's departure. The payment of such benefits is certain (subject to any vesting or minimum service requirements) but the timing of their payment is uncertain. Although such benefits may be described as termination indemnities, or termination gratuities, they are post-employment benefits, rather than termination benefits and an enterprise accounts for them as post-employment benefits. Some enterprises provide a lower level of benefit for voluntary termination at the request of the employee (in substance, a post-employment benefit) than for involuntary termination at the request of the enterprise. The additional benefit payable on involuntary termination is a termination benefit.
135. Termination benefits are recognised as an expense immediately.
136. Where an enterprise recognises termination benefits, the enterprise may also have to account for a curtailment of retirement benefits or other employee benefits (see paragraph 109).

Measurement

- 137. Where termination benefits fall due more than 12 months after the balance sheet date, they should be discounted using the discount rate specified in paragraph 77.**

Disclosure

138. Where there is uncertainty about the number of employees who will accept an offer of termination benefits, a contingent liability exists. As required by AS 29, Provisions, Contingent Liabilities and Contingent Assets an enterprise discloses information about the contingent liability unless the possibility of an outflow in settlement is remote.
139. As required by AS 5, Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period Items and Changes in Accounting Policies an enterprise discloses the nature and amount of an expense if it is of such size, nature or incidence that its disclosure is relevant to explain the performance of the enterprise for the period. Termination benefits may result in an expense needing disclosure in order to comply with this requirement.
140. Where required by AS 18, Related Party Disclosures an enterprise discloses information about termination benefits for key management personnel.

Transitional Provisions

Employee Benefits other than Defined Benefit Plans and Termination Benefits

- 141. Where an enterprise first adopts this Statement for employee benefits, the difference (as adjusted by any related tax expense) between the liability in respect of employee benefits other than defined benefit plans and termination benefits, as per this Statement, existing on the date of adopting this Statement and the liability that would have been**

recognised at the same date, as per the pre-revised AS 15, should be adjusted against opening balance of revenue reserves and surplus.

Defined Benefit Plans

142. On first adopting this Statement, an enterprise should determine its transitional liability for defined benefit plans at that date as:

- A. the present value of the obligation (see paragraph 64) at the date of adoption;**
- B. minus the fair value, at the date of adoption, of plan assets (if any) out of which the obligations are to be settled directly (see paragraphs 99-101);**
- C. minus any past service cost that, under paragraph 94, should be recognised in later periods.**

143. The difference (as adjusted by any related tax expense) between the transitional liability and the liability that would have been recognized at the same date, as per the pre-revised AS 15, should be adjusted immediately, against opening balance of revenue reserves and surplus.

Termination Benefits

144. This Statement requires immediate expensing of expenditure on termination benefits (including expenditure incurred on voluntary retirement scheme (VRS)). However, where an enterprise incurs expenditure on termination benefits on or before 31st March, 2009, the enterprise may choose to follow the accounting policy of deferring such expenditure over its pay-back period. However, the expenditure so deferred cannot be carried forward to accounting periods commencing on or after 1st April, 2010.

Accounting Standard – 16,

Borrowing Costs

(issued in 2000)

*(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in **bold italic** type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)*

The following is the text of Accounting Standard (AS) 16, 'Borrowing Costs', issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India. This Standard comes into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2000 and is mandatory in nature. Paragraph 9.2 and paragraph 20 (except the first sentence) of Accounting Standard (AS) 10, 'Accounting for Fixed Assets', stand withdrawn from this date.

Objective

The objective of this Statement is to prescribe the accounting treatment for borrowing costs.

Scope

1. ***This Statement should be applied in accounting for borrowing costs.***
2. This Statement does not deal with the actual or imputed cost of owners' equity, including preference share capital not classified as a liability.

Definitions

3. ***The following terms are used in this Statement with the meanings specified:***

Borrowing costs are interest and other costs incurred by an enterprise in connection with the borrowing of funds.

A qualifying asset is an asset that necessarily takes a substantial period of time to get ready for its intended use or sale.

4. Borrowing costs may include:
 - A. interest and commitment charges on bank borrowings and other short-term and long-term borrowings;
 - B. amortisation of discounts or premiums relating to borrowings;
 - C. amortisation of ancillary costs incurred in connection with the arrangement of borrowings;
 - D. finance charges in respect of assets acquired under finance leases or under other similar arrangements; and
 - E. exchange differences arising from foreign currency borrowings to the extent that they are regarded as an adjustment to interest costs.
5. Examples of qualifying assets are manufacturing plants, power generation facilities, inventories that require a substantial period of time to bring them to a saleable condition, and investment properties. Other investments, and those inventories that are routinely manufactured or otherwise produced in large quantities on a repetitive basis over a short period of time, are not qualifying assets. Assets that are ready for their intended use or sale when acquired also are not qualifying assets.

Recognition

6. ***Borrowing costs that are directly attributable to the acquisition, construction or production of a qualifying asset should be capitalized as part of the cost of that asset. The amount of borrowing costs eligible for capitalisation should be determined in accordance with this Statement. Other borrowing costs should be recognised as an expense in the period in which they are incurred.***
7. Borrowing costs are capitalised as part of the cost of a qualifying asset when it is probable that they will result in future economic benefits to the enterprise and the costs can be measured reliably. Other borrowing costs are recognised as an expense in the period in which they are incurred.

Borrowing Costs Eligible for Capitalisation

8. The borrowing costs that are directly attributable to the acquisition, construction or production of a qualifying asset are those borrowing costs that would have been avoided if the expenditure on the qualifying asset had not been made. When an enterprise borrows funds specifically for the purpose of obtaining a particular qualifying asset, the borrowing costs that directly relate to that qualifying asset can be readily identified.
9. It may be difficult to identify a direct relationship between particular borrowings and a qualifying asset and to determine the borrowings that could otherwise have been avoided. Such a difficulty occurs, for example, when the financing activity of an enterprise is co-ordinated centrally or when a range of debt instruments are used to borrow funds at varying rates of interest and such borrowings are not readily identifiable with a specific qualifying asset. As a result, the determination of the amount of borrowing costs that are directly attributable to the acquisition, construction or production of a qualifying asset is often difficult and the exercise of judgement is required.
10. ***To the extent that funds are borrowed specifically for the purpose of obtaining a qualifying asset, the amount of borrowing costs eligible for capitalisation on that asset should be determined as the actual borrowing costs incurred on that borrowing during the period less any income on the temporary investment of those borrowings.***
11. The financing arrangements for a qualifying asset may result in an enterprise obtaining borrowed funds and incurring associated borrowing costs before some or all of the funds are used for expenditure on the qualifying asset. In such circumstances, the funds are often temporarily invested pending their expenditure on the qualifying asset. In determining the amount of borrowing costs eligible for capitalisation during a period, any income earned on the temporary investment of those borrowings is deducted from the borrowing costs incurred.
12. ***To the extent that funds are borrowed generally and used for the purpose of obtaining a qualifying asset, the amount of borrowing costs eligible for capitalisation should be determined by applying a capitalisation rate to the expenditure on that asset. The capitalization rate should be the weighted average of the borrowing costs applicable to the borrowings of the enterprise that are outstanding during the period, other than borrowings made specifically for the purpose of obtaining a qualifying asset. The amount of borrowing costs capitalised during a period should not exceed the amount of borrowing costs incurred during that period.***

Excess of the Carrying Amount of the Qualifying Asset over Recoverable Amount

13. When the carrying amount or the expected ultimate cost of the qualifying asset exceeds its recoverable amount or net realisable value, the carrying amount is written down or written off in accordance with the requirements of other Accounting Standards. In certain circumstances, the amount of the write-down or write-off is written back in accordance with those other Accounting Standards.

Commencement of Capitalisation

14. ***The capitalisation of borrowing costs as part of the cost of a qualifying asset should commence when all the following conditions are satisfied:***

- A. expenditure for the acquisition, construction or production of a qualifying asset is being incurred;***
- B. borrowing costs are being incurred; and***
- C. activities that are necessary to prepare the asset for its intended use or sale are in progress.***

15. Expenditure on a qualifying asset includes only such expenditure that has resulted in payments of cash, transfers of other assets or the assumption of interest-bearing liabilities. Expenditure is reduced by any progress payments received and grants received in connection with the asset (see Accounting Standard 12, Accounting for Government Grants). The average carrying amount of the asset during a period, including borrowing costs previously capitalised, is normally a reasonable approximation of the expenditure to which the capitalisation rate is applied in that period.
16. The activities necessary to prepare the asset for its intended use or sale encompass more than the physical construction of the asset. They include technical and administrative work prior to the commencement of physical construction, such as the activities associated with obtaining permits prior to the commencement of the physical construction. However, such activities exclude the holding of an asset when no production or development that changes the asset's condition is taking place. For example, borrowing costs incurred while land is under development are capitalised during the period in which activities related to the development are being undertaken. However, borrowing costs incurred while land acquired for building purposes is held without any associated development activity do not qualify for capitalisation.

Suspension of Capitalisation

17. ***Capitalisation of borrowing costs should be suspended during extended periods in which active development is interrupted.***

18. Borrowing costs may be incurred during an extended period in which the activities necessary to prepare an asset for its intended use or sale are interrupted. Such costs are costs of holding partially completed assets and do not qualify for capitalisation. However, capitalisation of borrowing costs is not normally suspended during a period when substantial technical and administrative work is being carried out. Capitalisation of borrowing costs is also not suspended when a temporary delay is a necessary part of the process of getting an asset ready for its intended use or sale. For example, capitalisation continues during the extended period needed for inventories to mature or the extended period during which high water levels delay construction of a bridge, if such high water levels are common during the construction period in the geographic region involved.

Cessation of Capitalisation

- 19. Capitalisation of borrowing costs should cease when substantially all the activities necessary to prepare the qualifying asset for its intended use or sale are complete.**
20. An asset is normally ready for its intended use or sale when its physical construction or production is complete even though routine administrative work might still continue. If minor modifications, such as the decoration of a property to the user's specification, are all that are outstanding, this indicates that substantially all the activities are complete.
- 21. When the construction of a qualifying asset is completed in parts and a completed part is capable of being used while construction continues for the other parts, capitalisation of borrowing costs in relation to a part should cease when substantially all the activities necessary to prepare that part for its intended use or sale are complete.**
22. A business park comprising several buildings, each of which can be used individually, is an example of a qualifying asset for which each part is capable of being used while construction continues for the other parts. An example of a qualifying asset that needs to be complete before any part can be used is an industrial plant involving several processes which are carried out in sequence at different parts of the plant within the same site, such as a steel-mill.

Disclosure

- 23. The financial statements should disclose:**
 - A. the accounting policy adopted for borrowing costs; and**
 - B. the amount of borrowing costs capitalised during the period.**

Accounting Standard – 17,

Segment Reporting

(issued in 2000)

*(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in **bold italic** type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)*

Accounting Standard (AS) 17, 'Segment Reporting', issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, comes into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1.4.2001.

This Standard is mandatory in nature in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2004 for the enterprises which fall in any one or more of the following categories, at any time during the accounting period:

- A. Enterprises whose equity or debt securities are listed whether in India or outside India.
- B. Enterprises which are in the process of listing their equity or debt securities as evidenced by the board of directors' resolution in this regard.
- C. Banks including co-operative banks.
- D. Financial institutions.
- E. Enterprises carrying on insurance business.
- F. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises, whose turnover for the immediately preceding accounting period on the basis of audited financial statements exceeds Rs. 50 crore. Turnover does not include other income.
- G. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises having borrowings, including public deposits, in excess of Rs. 10 crore at any time during the accounting period.
- H. Holding and subsidiary enterprises of any one of the above at any time during the accounting period.

The enterprises which do not fall in any of the above categories are not required to apply this Standard.

Where an enterprise has been covered in any one or more of the above categories and subsequently, ceases to be so covered, the enterprise will not qualify for exemption from application of this Standard, until the enterprise ceases to be covered in any of the above categories for two consecutive years.

Where an enterprise has previously qualified for exemption from application of this Standard (being not covered by any of the above categories) but no longer qualifies for exemption in the current accounting period, this Standard becomes applicable from the current period. However, the corresponding previous period figures need not be disclosed.

An enterprise, which, pursuant to the above provisions, does not disclose segment information, should disclose the fact.

The following is the text of the Accounting Standard.

Objective

The objective of this Statement is to establish principles for reporting financial information, about the different types of products and services an enterprise produces and the different geographical areas in which it operates. Such information helps users of financial statements:

- A. better understand the performance of the enterprise;

- B. better assess the risks and returns of the enterprise; and
- C. make more informed judgements about the enterprise as a whole.

Many enterprises provide groups of products and services or operate in geographical areas that are subject to differing rates of profitability, opportunities for growth, future prospects, and risks. Information about different types of products and services of an enterprise and its operations in different geographical areas - often called segment information - is relevant to assessing the risks and returns of a diversified or multi-locational enterprise but may not be determinable from the aggregated data. Therefore, reporting of segment information is widely regarded as necessary for meeting the needs of users of financial statements.

Scope

1. ***This Statement should be applied in presenting general purpose financial statements.***
2. The requirements of this Statement are also applicable in case of consolidated financial statements.
3. ***An enterprise should comply with the requirements of this Statement fully and not selectively.***
4. ***If a single financial report contains both consolidated financial statements and the separate financial statements of the parent, segment information need be presented only on the basis of the consolidated financial statements. In the context of reporting of segment information in consolidated financial statements, the references in this Statement to any financial statement items should construed to be the relevant item as appearing in the consolidated financial statements.***

Definitions

5. ***The following terms are used in this Statement with the meanings specified:***

A business segment is a distinguishable component of an enterprise that is engaged in providing an individual product or service or a group of related products or services and that is subject to risks and returns that are different from those of other business segments. Factors that should be considered in determining whether products or services are related include:

- A. ***the nature of the products or services;***
- B. ***the nature of the production processes;***
- C. ***the type or class of customers for the products or services;***
- D. ***the methods used to distribute the products or provide the services; and***
- E. ***if applicable, the nature of the regulatory environment, for example, banking, insurance, or public utilities.***

A geographical segment is a distinguishable component of an enterprise that is engaged in providing products or services within a particular economic environment and that is subject to risks and returns that are different from those of components operating in other economic environments. Factors that should be considered in identifying geographical segments include:

- A. ***similarity of economic and political conditions;***
- B. ***relationships between operations in different geographical areas;***
- C. ***proximity of operations;***
- D. ***special risks associated with operations in a particular area;***
- E. ***exchange control regulations; and***

F. the underlying currency risks.

A reportable segment is a business segment or a geographical segment identified on the basis of foregoing definitions for which segment information is required to be disclosed by this Statement.

Enterprise revenue is revenue from sales to external customers as reported in the statement of profit and loss.

Segment revenue is the aggregate of

- A. the portion of enterprise revenue that is directly attributable to a segment,**
- B. the relevant portion of enterprise revenue that can be allocated on a reasonable basis to a segment, and**
- C. revenue from transactions with other segments of the enterprise.**

Segment revenue does not include:

- A. extraordinary items as defined in AS 5, Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period Items and Changes in Accounting Policies;**
- B. interest or dividend income, including interest earned on advances or loans to other segments unless the operations of the segment are primarily of a financial nature; and**
- C. gains on sales of investments or on extinguishment of debt unless the operations of the segment are primarily of a financial nature.**

Segment expense is the aggregate of

- A. the expense resulting from the operating activities of a segment that is directly attributable to the segment, and**
- B. the relevant portion of enterprise expense that can be allocated on a reasonable basis to the segment, including expense relating to transactions with other segments of the enterprise.**

Segment expense does not include:

- A. extraordinary items as defined in AS 5, Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period Items and Changes in Accounting Policies;**
- B. interest expense, including interest incurred on advances or loans from other segments, unless the operations of the segment are primarily of a financial nature;**
- C. losses on sales of investments or losses on extinguishment of debt unless the operations of the segment are primarily of a financial nature;**
- D. income tax expense; and**
- E. general administrative expenses, head-office expenses, and other expenses that arise at the enterprise level and relate to the enterprise as a whole. However, costs are sometimes incurred at the enterprise level on behalf of a segment. Such costs are part of segment expense if they relate to the operating activities of the segment and if they can be directly attributed or allocated to the segment on a reasonable basis.**

Segment result is segment revenue less segment expense.

Segment assets are those operating assets that are employed by a segment in its operating activities and that either are directly attributable to the segment or can be allocated to the segment on a reasonable basis.

If the segment result of a segment includes interest or dividend income, its segment assets include the related receivables, loans, investments, or other interest or dividend generating assets.

Segment assets do not include income tax assets.

Segment assets are determined after deducting related allowances/provisions that are reported as direct offsets in the balance sheet of the enterprise.

Segment liabilities are those operating liabilities that result from the operating activities of a segment and that either are directly attributable to the segment or can be allocated to the segment on a reasonable basis.

If the segment result of a segment includes interest expense, its segment liabilities include the related interest-bearing liabilities.

Segment liabilities do not include income tax liabilities.

Segment accounting policies are the accounting policies adopted for preparing and presenting the financial statements of the enterprise as well as those accounting policies that relate specifically to segment reporting.

6. The factors in paragraph 5 for identifying business segments and geographical segments are not listed in any particular order.
7. A single business segment does not include products and services with significantly differing risks and returns. While there may be dissimilarities with respect to one or several of the factors listed in the definition of business segment, the products and services included in a single business segment are expected to be similar with respect to a majority of the factors.
8. Similarly, a single geographical segment does not include operations in economic environments with significantly differing risks and returns. A geographical segment may be a single country, a group of two or more countries, or a region within a country.
9. The risks and returns of an enterprise are influenced both by the geographical location of its operations (where its products are produced or where its service rendering activities are based) and also by the location of its customers (where its products are sold or services are rendered). The definition allows geographical segments to be based on either:
 - A. the location of production or service facilities and other assets of an enterprise; or
 - B. the location of its customers.
10. The organisational and internal reporting structure of an enterprise will normally provide evidence of whether its dominant source of geographical risks results from the location of its assets (the origin of its sales) or the location of its customers (the destination of its sales). Accordingly, an enterprise looks to this structure to determine whether its geographical segments should be based on the location of its assets or on the location of its customers.
11. Determining the composition of a business or geographical segment involves a certain amount of judgement. In making that judgement, enterprise management takes into account the objective of reporting financial information by segment as set forth in this Statement and the qualitative characteristics of financial statements as identified in the Framework for the Preparation and Presentation of Financial Statements issued by the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India. The qualitative characteristics include the relevance, reliability, and comparability over time of financial information that is reported about the different groups of products and services of an enterprise and about its operations in particular geographical areas, and the usefulness of that information for assessing the risks and returns of the enterprise as a whole.
12. The predominant sources of risks affect how most enterprises are organised and managed. Therefore, the organisational structure of an enterprise and its

internal financial reporting system are normally the basis for identifying its segments.

13. The definitions of segment revenue, segment expense, segment assets and segment liabilities include amounts of such items that are directly attributable to a segment and amounts of such items that can be allocated to a segment on a reasonable basis. An enterprise looks to its internal financial reporting system as the starting point for identifying those items that can be directly attributed, or reasonably allocated, to segments. There is thus a presumption that amounts that have been identified with segments for internal financial reporting purposes are directly attributable or reasonably allocable to segments for the purpose of measuring the segment revenue, segment expense, segment assets, and segment liabilities of reportable segments.
14. In some cases, however, a revenue, expense, asset or liability may have been allocated to segments for internal financial reporting purposes on a basis that is understood by enterprise management but that could be deemed arbitrary in the perception of external users of financial statements. Such an allocation would not constitute a reasonable basis under the definitions of segment revenue, segment expense, segment assets, and segment liabilities in this Statement. Conversely, an enterprise may choose not to allocate some item of revenue, expense, asset or liability for internal financial reporting purposes, even though a reasonable basis for doing so exists. Such an item is allocated pursuant to the definitions of segment revenue, segment expense, segment assets, and segment liabilities in this Statement.
15. Examples of segment assets include current assets that are used in the operating activities of the segment and tangible and intangible fixed assets. If a particular item of depreciation or amortisation is included in segment expense, the related asset is also included in segment assets. Segment assets do not include assets used for general enterprise or head-office purposes. Segment assets include operating assets shared by two or more segments if a reasonable basis for allocation exists. Segment assets include goodwill that is directly attributable to a segment or that can be allocated to a segment on a reasonable basis, and segment expense includes related amortisation of goodwill. If segment assets have been revalued subsequent to acquisition, then the measurement of segment assets reflects those revaluations.
16. Examples of segment liabilities include trade and other payables, accrued liabilities, customer advances, product warranty provisions, and other claims relating to the provision of goods and services. Segment liabilities do not include borrowings and other liabilities that are incurred for financing rather than operating purposes. The liabilities of segments whose operations are not primarily of a financial nature do not include borrowings and similar liabilities because segment result represents an operating, rather than a net of- financing, profit or loss. Further, because debt is often issued at the head office level on an enterprise-wide basis, it is often not possible to directly attribute, or reasonably allocate, the interest-bearing liabilities to segments.
17. Segment revenue, segment expense, segment assets and segment liabilities are determined before intra-enterprise balances and intra-enterprise transactions are eliminated as part of the process of preparation of enterprise financial statements, except to the extent that such intra-enterprise balances and transactions are within a single segment.
18. While the accounting policies used in preparing and presenting the financial statements of the enterprise as a whole are also the fundamental segment accounting policies, segment accounting policies include, in addition, policies that relate specifically to segment reporting, such as identification of segments, method of pricing inter-segment transfers, and basis for allocating revenues and expenses to segments.

Identifying Reportable Segments

Primary and Secondary Segment Reporting Formats

19. *The dominant source and nature of risks and returns of an enterprise should govern whether its primary segment reporting format will be business segments or geographical segments. If the risks and returns of an enterprise are affected predominantly by differences in the products and services it produces, its primary format for reporting segment information should be business segments, with secondary information reported geographically. Similarly, if the risks and returns of the enterprise are affected predominantly by the fact that it operates in different countries or other geographical areas, its primary format for reporting segment information should be geographical segments, with secondary information reported for groups of related products and services.*
20. *Internal organisation and management structure of an enterprise and its system of internal financial reporting to the board of directors and the chief executive officer should normally be the basis for identifying the predominant source and nature of risks and differing rates of return facing the enterprise and, therefore, for determining which reporting format is primary and which is secondary, except as provided in subparagraphs A. and B. below:*
 - A. *if risks and returns of an enterprise are strongly affected both by differences in the products and services it produces and by differences in the geographical areas in which it operates, as evidenced by a 'matrix approach' to managing the company and to reporting internally to the board of directors and the chief executive officer, then the enterprise should use business segments as its primary segment reporting format and geographical segments as its secondary reporting format; and*
 - B. *if internal organisational and management structure of an enterprise and its system of internal financial reporting to the board of directors and the chief executive officer are based neither on individual products or services or groups of related products/services nor on geographical areas, the directors and management of the enterprise should determine whether the risks and returns of the enterprise are related more to the products and services it produces or to the geographical areas in which it operates and should, accordingly, choose business segments or geographical segments as the primary segment reporting format of the enterprise, with the other as its secondary reporting format.*
21. For most enterprises, the predominant source of risks and returns determines how the enterprise is organised and managed. Organisational and management structure of an enterprise and its internal financial reporting system normally provide the best evidence of the predominant source of risks and returns of the enterprise for the purpose of its segment reporting. Therefore, except in rare circumstances, an enterprise will report segment information in its financial statements on the same basis as it reports internally to top management. Its predominant source of risks and returns becomes its primary segment reporting format. Its secondary source of risks and returns becomes its secondary segment reporting format.
22. A 'matrix presentation'— both business segments and geographical segments as primary segment reporting formats with full segment disclosures on each basis -
- will often provide useful information if risks and returns of an enterprise are strongly affected both by differences in the products and services it produces

and by differences in the geographical areas in which it operates. This Statement does not require, but does not prohibit, a matrix presentation.

23. In some cases, organisation and internal reporting of an enterprise may have developed along lines unrelated to both the types of products and services it produces, and the geographical areas in which it operates. In such cases, the internally reported segment data will not meet the objective of this Statement. Accordingly, paragraph 20 B. requires the directors and management of the enterprise to determine whether the risks and returns of the enterprise are more product/service driven or geographically driven and to accordingly choose business segments or geographical segments as the primary basis of segment reporting. The objective is to achieve a reasonable degree of comparability with other enterprises, enhance understandability of the resulting information, and meet the needs of investors, creditors, and others for information about product/service-related and geographically related risks and returns.

Business and Geographical Segments

24. ***Business and geographical segments of an enterprise for external reporting purposes should be those organisational units for which information is reported to the board of directors and to the chief executive officer for the purpose of evaluating the unit's performance and for making decisions about future allocations of resources, except as provided in paragraph 25.***
25. ***If internal organisational and management structure of an enterprise and its system of internal financial reporting to the board of directors and the chief executive officer are based neither on individual products or services or groups of related products/services nor on geographical areas, paragraph 20 B. requires that the directors and management of the enterprise should choose either business segments or geographical segments as the primary segment reporting format of the enterprise based on their assessment of which reflects the primary source of the risks and returns of the enterprise, with the other as its secondary reporting format. In that case, the directors and management of the enterprise should determine its business segments and geographical segments for external reporting purposes based on the factors in the definitions in paragraph 5. of this Statement, rather than on the basis of its system of internal financial reporting to the board of directors and chief executive officer, consistent with the following:***
- A. if one or more of the segments reported internally to the directors and management is a business segment or a geographical segment based on the factors in the definitions in paragraph 5. but others are not, sub-paragraph B. below should be applied only to those internal segments that do not meet the definitions in paragraph 5. (that is, an internally reported segment that meets the definition should not be further segmented);***
 - B. for those segments reported internally to the directors and management that do not satisfy the definitions in paragraph 5., management of the enterprise should look to the next lower level of internal segmentation that reports information along product and service lines or geographical lines, as appropriate under the definitions in paragraph 5.; and***
 - C. if such an internally reported lower-level segment meets the definition of business segment or geographical segment based on the factors in paragraph 5., the criteria in paragraph 27. for identifying reportable segments should be applied to that segment.***

26. Under this Statement, most enterprises will identify their business and geographical segments as the organisational units for which information is reported to the board of the directors (particularly the non-executive directors, if any) and to the chief executive officer (the senior operating decision-maker, which in some cases may be a group of several people) for the purpose of evaluating each unit's performance and for making decisions about future allocations of resources. Even if an enterprise must apply paragraph 25. because its internal segments are not along product/service or geographical lines, it will consider the next lower level of internal segmentation that reports information along product and service lines or geographical lines rather than construct segments solely for external reporting purposes. This approach of looking to organisational and management structure of an enterprise and its internal financial reporting system to identify the business and geographical segments of the enterprise for external reporting purposes is sometimes called the 'management approach', and the organisational components for which information is reported internally are sometimes called 'operating segments'.

Reportable Segments

27. ***A business segment or geographical segment should be identified as a reportable segment if:***
- A. its revenue from sales to external customers and from transactions with other segments is 10 per cent or more of the total revenue, external and internal, of all segments; or***
 - B. its segment result, whether profit or loss, is 10 per cent or more of -***
 - a. the combined result of all segments in profit, or***
 - b. the combined result of all segments in loss, whichever is greater in absolute amount; or***
 - C. its segment assets are 10 per cent or more of the total assets of all segments.***
28. ***A business segment or a geographical segment which is not a reportable segment as per paragraph 27., may be designated as a reportable segment despite its size at the discretion of the management of the enterprise. If that segment is not designated as a reportable segment, it should be included as an unallocated reconciling item.***
29. ***If total external revenue attributable to reportable segments constitutes less than 75 per cent of the total enterprise revenue, additional segments should be identified as reportable segments, even if they do not meet the 10 per cent thresholds in paragraph 27., until at least 75 per cent of total enterprise revenue is included in reportable segments.***
30. The 10 per cent thresholds in this Statement are not intended to be a guide for determining materiality for any aspect of financial reporting other than identifying reportable business and geographical segments.
31. ***A segment identified as a reportable segment in the immediately preceding period because it satisfied the relevant 10 per cent thresholds should continue to be a reportable segment for the current period notwithstanding that its revenue, result, and assets all no longer meet the 10 per cent thresholds.***
32. ***If a segment is identified as a reportable segment in the current period because it satisfies the relevant 10 per cent thresholds, preceding period segment data that is presented for comparative purposes should, unless it is impracticable to do so, be restated to reflect the newly reportable segment as a separate segment, even if that segment did not satisfy the 10 per cent thresholds in the preceding period.***

Segment Accounting Policies

33. ***Segment information should be prepared in conformity with the accounting policies adopted for preparing and presenting the financial statements of the enterprise as a whole.***
34. There is a presumption that the accounting policies that the directors and management of an enterprise have chosen to use in preparing the financial statements of the enterprise as a whole are those that the directors and management believe are the most appropriate for external reporting purposes. Since the purpose of segment information is to help users of financial statements better understand and make more informed judgements about the enterprise as a whole, this Statement requires the use, in preparing segment information, of the accounting policies adopted for preparing and presenting the financial statements of the enterprise as a whole. That does not mean, however, that the enterprise accounting policies are to be applied to reportable segments as if the segments were separate stand-alone reporting entities. A detailed calculation done in applying a particular accounting policy at the enterprise-wide level may be allocated to segments if there is a reasonable basis for doing so. Pension calculations, for example, often are done for an enterprise as a whole, but the enterprise-wide figures may be allocated to segments based on salary and demographic data for the segments.
35. This Statement does not prohibit the disclosure of additional segment information that is prepared on a basis other than the accounting policies adopted for the enterprise financial statements provided that (a) the information is reported internally to the board of directors and the chief executive officer for purposes of making decisions about allocating resources to the segment and assessing its performance and (b) the basis of measurement for this additional information is clearly described.
36. ***Assets and liabilities that relate jointly to two or more segments should be allocated to segments if, and only if, their related revenues and expenses also are allocated to those segments.***
37. The way in which asset, liability, revenue, and expense items are allocated to segments depends on such factors as the nature of those items, the activities conducted by the segment, and the relative autonomy of that segment. It is not possible or appropriate to specify a single basis of allocation that should be adopted by all enterprises; nor is it appropriate to force allocation of enterprise asset, liability, revenue, and expense items that relate jointly to two or more segments, if the only basis for making those allocations is arbitrary. At the same time, the definitions of segment revenue, segment expense, segment assets, and segment liabilities are interrelated, and the resulting allocations should be consistent. Therefore, jointly used assets and liabilities are allocated to segments if, and only if, their related revenues and expenses also are allocated to those segments. For example, an asset is included in segment assets if, and only if, the related depreciation or amortization is included in segment expense.

Disclosure

38. Paragraphs 39-46 specify the disclosures required for reportable segments for primary segment reporting format of an enterprise. Paragraphs 47-51 identify the disclosures required for secondary reporting format of an enterprise. Enterprises are encouraged to make all of the primary-segment disclosures identified in paragraphs 39-46 for each reportable secondary segment although paragraphs 47-51 require considerably less disclosure on the secondary basis. Paragraphs 53-59 address several other segment disclosure matters.

Primary Reporting Format

- 39. The disclosure requirements in paragraphs 40-46 should be applied to each reportable segment based on primary reporting format of an enterprise.**
- 40. An enterprise should disclose the following for each reportable segment:**
- A. segment revenue, classified into segment revenue from sales to external customers and segment revenue from transactions with other segments;**
 - B. segment result;**
 - C. total carrying amount of segment assets;**
 - D. total amount of segment liabilities;**
 - E. total cost incurred during the period to acquire segment assets that are expected to be used during more than one period (tangible and intangible fixed assets);**
 - F. total amount of expense included in the segment result for depreciation and amortisation in respect of segment assets for the period; and**
 - G. total amount of significant non-cash expenses, other than depreciation and amortisation in respect of segment assets, that were included in segment expense and, therefore, deducted in measuring segment result.**
- 41.** Paragraph 40 B. requires an enterprise to report segment result. If an enterprise can compute segment net profit or loss or some other measure of segment profitability other than segment result, without arbitrary allocations, reporting of such amount(s) in addition to segment result is encouraged. If that measure is prepared on a basis other than the accounting policies adopted for the financial statements of the enterprise, the enterprise will include in its financial statements a clear description of the basis of measurement.
- 42.** An example of a measure of segment performance above segment result in the statement of profit and loss is gross margin on sales. Examples of measures of segment performance below segment result in the statement of profit and loss are profit or loss from ordinary activities (either before or after income taxes) and net profit or loss.
- 43.** Accounting Standard 5, 'Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period Items and Changes in Accounting Policies' requires that "when items of income and expense within profit or loss from ordinary activities are of such size, nature or incidence that their disclosure is relevant to explain the performance of the enterprise for the period, the nature and amount of such items should be disclosed separately". Examples of such items include write-downs of inventories, provisions for restructuring, disposals of fixed assets and long-term investments, legislative changes having retrospective application, litigation settlements, and reversal of provisions. An enterprise is encouraged, but not required, to disclose the nature and amount of any items of segment revenue and segment expense that are of such size, nature, or incidence that their disclosure is relevant to explain the performance of the segment for the period. Such disclosure is not intended to change the classification of any such items of revenue or expense from ordinary to extraordinary or to change the measurement of such items. The disclosure, however, does change the level at which the significance of such items is evaluated for disclosure purposes from the enterprise level to the segment level.
- 44. An enterprise that reports the amount of cash flows arising from operating, investing and financing activities of a segment need not disclose depreciation and amortisation expense and non-cash expenses of such segment pursuant to sub-paragraphs F. and G. of paragraph 40.**

45. AS 3, Cash Flow Statements, recommends that an enterprise present a cash flow statement that separately reports cash flows from operating, investing and financing activities. Disclosure of information regarding operating, investing and financing cash flows of each reportable segment is relevant to understanding the enterprise's overall financial position, liquidity, and cash flows. Disclosure of segment cash flow is, therefore, encouraged, though not required. An enterprise that provides segment cash flow disclosures need not disclose depreciation and amortisation expense and non-cash expenses pursuant to sub-paragraphs F. and G. of paragraph 40.
46. ***An enterprise should present a reconciliation between the information disclosed for reportable segments and the aggregated information in the enterprise financial statements. In presenting the reconciliation, segment revenue should be reconciled to enterprise revenue; segment result should be reconciled to enterprise net profit or loss; segment assets should be reconciled to enterprise assets; and segment liabilities should be reconciled to enterprise liabilities.***

Secondary Segment Information

47. Paragraphs 39-46 identify the disclosure requirements to be applied to each reportable segment based on primary reporting format of an enterprise. Paragraphs 48-51 identify the disclosure requirements to be applied to each reportable segment based on secondary reporting format of an enterprise, as follows:
- A. if primary format of an enterprise is business segments, the required secondary-format disclosures are identified in paragraph 48;
 - B. if primary format of an enterprise is geographical segments based on location of assets (where the products of the enterprise are produced or where its service rendering operations are based), the required secondary-format disclosures are identified in paragraphs 49 and 50;
 - C. if primary format of an enterprise is geographical segments based on the location of its customers (where its products are sold or services are rendered), the required secondary-format disclosures are identified in paragraphs 49 and 51.
48. ***If primary format of an enterprise for reporting segment information is business segments, it should also report the following information:***
- A. ***segment revenue from external customers by geographical area based on the geographical location of its customers, for each geographical segment whose revenue from sales to external customers is 10 per cent or more of enterprise revenue;***
 - B. ***the total carrying amount of segment assets by geographical location of assets, for each geographical segment whose segment assets are 10 per cent or more of the total assets of all geographical segments; and***
 - C. ***the total cost incurred during the period to acquire segment assets that are expected to be used during more than one period (tangible and intangible fixed assets) by geographical location of assets, for each geographical segment whose segment assets are 10 per cent or more of the total assets of all geographical segments.***
49. ***If primary format of an enterprise for reporting segment information is geographical segments (whether based on location of assets or location of customers), it should also report the following segment information for each business segment whose revenue from sales to external customers is 10 per cent or more of enterprise revenue or whose***

segment assets are 10 per cent or more of the total assets of all business segments:

- A. segment revenue from external customers;**
 - B. the total carrying amount of segment assets; and**
 - C. the total cost incurred during the period to acquire segment assets that are expected to be used during more than one period (tangible and intangible fixed assets).**
- 50. If primary format of an enterprise for reporting segment information is geographical segments that are based on location of assets, and if the location of its customers is different from the location of its assets, then the enterprise should also report revenue from sales to external customers for each customer-based geographical segment whose revenue from sales to external customers is 10 per cent or more of enterprise revenue.**
- 51. If primary format of an enterprise for reporting segment information is geographical segments that are based on location of customers, and if the assets of the enterprise are located in different geographical areas from its customers, then the enterprise should also report the following segment information for each asset-based geographical segment whose revenue from sales to external customers or segment assets are 10 per cent or more of total enterprise amounts:**
- A. the total carrying amount of segment assets by geographical location of the assets; and**
 - B. the total cost incurred during the period to acquire segment assets that are expected to be used during more than one period (tangible and intangible fixed assets) by location of the assets.**

Other Disclosures

- 52. In measuring and reporting segment revenue from transactions with other segments, inter-segment transfers should be measured on the basis that the enterprise actually used to price those transfers. The basis of pricing inter-segment transfers and any change therein should be disclosed in the financial statements.**
- 53. Changes in accounting policies adopted for segment reporting that have a material effect on segment information should be disclosed. Such disclosure should include a description of the nature of the change, and the financial effect of the change if it is reasonably determinable.**
- 54. AS 5 requires that changes in accounting policies adopted by the enterprise should be made only if required by statute, or for compliance with an accounting standard, or if it is considered that the change would result in a more appropriate presentation of events or transactions in the financial statements of the enterprise.**
- 55. Changes in accounting policies adopted at the enterprise level that affect segment information are dealt with in accordance with AS 5. AS 5 requires that any change in an accounting policy which has a material effect should be disclosed. The impact of, and the adjustments resulting from, such change, if material, should be shown in the financial statements of the period in which such change is made, to reflect the effect of such change. Where the effect of such change is not ascertainable, wholly or in part, the fact should be indicated. If a change is made in the accounting policies which has no material effect on the financial statements for the current period but which is reasonably expected to have a material effect in later periods, the fact of such change should be appropriately disclosed in the period in which the change is adopted.**
- 56. Some changes in accounting policies relate specifically to segment reporting. Examples include changes in identification of segments and changes in the basis**

for allocating revenues and expenses to segments. Such changes can have a significant impact on the segment information reported but will not change aggregate financial information reported for the enterprise. To enable users to understand the impact of such changes, this Statement requires the disclosure of the nature of the change and the financial effect of the change, if reasonably determinable.

57. An enterprise should indicate the types of products and services included in each reported business segment and indicate the composition of each reported geographical segment, both primary and secondary, if not otherwise disclosed in the financial statements.

58. To assess the impact of such matters as shifts in demand, changes in the prices of inputs or other factors of production, and the development of alternative products and processes on a business segment, it is necessary to know the activities encompassed by that segment. Similarly, to assess the impact of changes in the economic and political environment on the risks and returns of a geographical segment, it is important to know the composition of that geographical segment.

Ishan

Accounting Standard – 18, Related Party Disclosures (issued in 2000)

*(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in **bold italic** type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)*

Accounting Standard (AS) 18, 'Related Party Disclosures', issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, comes into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2001. This Standard is mandatory in nature in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2004³ for the enterprises which fall in any one or more of the following categories, at any time during the accounting period:

- A. Enterprises whose equity or debt securities are listed whether in India or outside India.
- B. Enterprises which are in the process of listing their equity or debt securities as evidenced by the board of directors' resolution in this regard.
- C. Banks including co-operative banks.
- D. Financial institutions.
- E. Enterprises carrying on insurance business.
- F. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises, whose turnover for the immediately preceding accounting period on the basis of audited financial statements exceeds Rs. 50 crore. Turnover does not include other income¹.
- G. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises having borrowings, including public deposits, in excess of Rs. 10 crore at any time during the accounting period.
- H. Holding and subsidiary enterprises of any one of the above at any time during the accounting period.

The enterprises which do not fall in any of the above categories are not required to apply this Standard.

Where an enterprise has been covered in any one or more of the above categories and subsequently, ceases to be so covered, the enterprise will not qualify for exemption from application of this Standard, until the enterprise ceases to be covered in any of the above categories for two consecutive years.

Where an enterprise has previously qualified for exemption from application of this Standard (being not covered by any of the above categories) but no longer qualifies for exemption in the current accounting period, this Standard becomes applicable from the current period. However, the corresponding previous period figures need not be disclosed.

An enterprise, which, pursuant to the above provisions, does not make related party disclosures, should disclose the fact.

The following is the text of the Accounting Standard.

Objective

The objective of this Statement is to establish requirements for disclosure of:

- A. related party relationships; and
- B. transactions between a reporting enterprise and its related parties.

Scope

1. ***This Statement should be applied in reporting related party relationships and transactions between a reporting enterprise and its related parties. The requirements of this Statement apply to the financial statements of each reporting enterprise as also to consolidated financial statements presented by a holding company.***
2. ***This Statement applies only to related party relationships described in paragraph 3.***
3. This Statement deals only with related party relationships described in A. to E. below:
 - A. enterprises that directly, or indirectly through one or more intermediaries, control, or are controlled by, or are under common control with, the reporting enterprise (this includes holding companies, subsidiaries and fellow subsidiaries);
 - B. associates and joint ventures of the reporting enterprise and the investing party or venturer in respect of which the reporting enterprise is an associate or a joint venture;
 - C. individuals owning, directly or indirectly, an interest in the voting power of the reporting enterprise that gives them control or significant influence over the enterprise, and relatives of any such individual;
 - D. key management personnel and relatives of such personnel; and
 - E. enterprises over which any person described in C. or D. is able to exercise significant influence. This includes enterprises owned by directors or major shareholders of the reporting enterprise and enterprises that have a member of key management in common with the reporting enterprise.
4. In the context of this Statement, the following are deemed not to be related parties:
 - A. two companies simply because they have a director in common, notwithstanding paragraph 3. D. or E. above (unless the director is able to affect the policies of both companies in their mutual dealings);
 - B. a single customer, supplier, franchiser, distributor, or general agent with whom an enterprise transacts a significant volume of business merely by virtue of the resulting economic dependence; and
 - C. the parties listed below, in the course of their normal dealings with an enterprise by virtue only of those dealings (although they may circumscribe the freedom of action of the enterprise or participate in its decision-making process):
 - a. providers of finance;
 - b. trade unions;
 - c. public utilities;
 - d. government departments and government agencies including government sponsored bodies.
5. ***Related party disclosure requirements as laid down in this Statement do not apply in circumstances where providing such disclosures would conflict with the reporting enterprise's duties of confidentiality as specifically required in terms of a statute or by any regulator or similar competent authority.***
6. In case a statute or a regulator or a similar competent authority governing an enterprise prohibit the enterprise to disclose certain information which is required to be disclosed as per this Statement, disclosure of such information is not warranted. For example, banks are obliged by law to maintain confidentiality in respect of their customers' transactions and this Statement would not override the obligation to preserve the confidentiality of customers' dealings.

7. **No disclosure is required in consolidated financial statements in respect of intra-group transactions.**
8. Disclosure of transactions between members of a group is unnecessary in consolidated financial statements because consolidated financial statements present information about the holding and its subsidiaries as a single reporting enterprise.
9. **No disclosure is required in the financial statements of state-controlled enterprises as regards related party relationships with other state-controlled enterprises and transactions with such enterprises.**

Definitions

10. **For the purpose of this Statement, the following terms are used with the meanings specified:**

Related party - parties are considered to be related if at any time during the reporting period one party has the ability to control the other party or exercise significant influence over the other party in making financial and/or operating decisions.

Related party transaction - a transfer of resources or obligations between related parties, regardless of whether or not a price is charged.

Control

- A. ownership, directly or indirectly, of more than one half of the voting power of an enterprise, or
- B. control of the composition of the board of directors in the case of a company or of the composition of the corresponding governing body in case of any other enterprise, or
- C. a substantial interest in voting power and the power to direct, by statute or agreement, the financial and/or operating policies of the enterprise.

Significant influence - participation in the financial and/or operating policy decisions of an enterprise, but not control of those policies.

An Associate - an enterprise in which an investing reporting party has significant influence and which is neither a subsidiary nor a joint venture of that party.

A Joint venture - a contractual arrangement whereby two or more parties undertake an economic activity which is subject to joint control.

Joint control - the contractually agreed sharing of power to govern the financial and operating policies of an economic activity so as to obtain benefits from it.

Key management personnel - those persons who have the authority and responsibility for planning, directing and controlling the activities of the reporting enterprise.

Relative - in relation to an individual, means the spouse, son, daughter, brother, sister, father and mother who may be expected to influence, or be influenced by, that individual in his/her dealings with the reporting enterprise.

Holding company - a company having one or more subsidiaries.

Subsidiary - a company:

- A. in which another company (the holding company) holds, either by itself and/or through one or more subsidiaries, more than one-half in nominal value of its equity share capital; or**
- B. of which another company (the holding company) controls, either by itself and/or through one or more subsidiaries, the composition of its board of directors.**

Fellow subsidiary - a company is considered to be a fellow subsidiary of another company if both are subsidiaries of the same holding company.

State-controlled enterprise - an enterprise which is under the control of the Central Government and/or any State Government(s).

11. For the purpose of this Statement, an enterprise is considered to control the composition of
 - A. the board of directors of a company, if it has the power, without the consent or concurrence of any other person, to appoint or remove all or a majority of directors of that company. An enterprise is deemed to have the power to appoint a director if any of the following conditions is satisfied:
 - a. a person cannot be appointed as director without the exercise in his favour by that enterprise of such a power as aforesaid; or
 - b. a person's appointment as director follows necessarily from his appointment to a position held by him in that enterprise; or
 - c. the director is nominated by that enterprise; in case that enterprise is a company, the director is nominated by that company/subsidiary thereof.
 - B. the governing body of an enterprise that is not a company, if it has the power, without the consent or the concurrence of any other person, to appoint or remove all or a majority of members of the governing body of that other enterprise. An enterprise is deemed to have the power to appoint a member if any of the following conditions is satisfied:
 - a. a person cannot be appointed as member of the governing body without the exercise in his favour by that other enterprise of such a power as aforesaid; or
 - b. a person's appointment as member of the governing body follows necessarily from his appointment to a position held by him in that other enterprise; or
 - c. the member of the governing body is nominated by that other enterprise.
12. An enterprise is considered to have a substantial interest in another enterprise if that enterprise owns, directly or indirectly, 20 per cent or more interest in the voting power of the other enterprise. Similarly, an individual is considered to have a substantial interest in an enterprise, if that individual owns, directly or indirectly, 20 per cent or more interest in the voting power of the enterprise.
13. Significant influence may be exercised in several ways, for example, by representation on the board of directors, participation in the policymaking process, material inter-company transactions, interchange of managerial personnel, or dependence on technical information. Significant influence may be gained by share ownership, statute or agreement. As regards share ownership, if an investing party holds, directly or indirectly through intermediaries, 20 per cent or more of the voting power of the enterprise, it is presumed that the investing party does have significant influence, unless it can be clearly demonstrated that this is not the case. Conversely, if the investing party holds,

directly or indirectly through intermediaries, less than 20 per cent of the voting power of the enterprise, it is presumed that the investing party does not have significant influence, unless such influence can be clearly demonstrated. A substantial or majority ownership by another investing party does not necessarily preclude an investing party from having significant influence.

14. Key management personnel are those persons who have the authority and responsibility for planning, directing and controlling the activities of the reporting enterprise. For example, in the case of a company, the managing director(s), whole time director(s), manager and any person in accordance with whose directions or instructions the board of directors of the company is accustomed to act, are usually considered key management personnel.

The Related Party Issue

15. Related party relationships are a normal feature of commerce and business. For example, enterprises frequently carry on separate parts of their activities through subsidiaries or associates and acquire interests in other enterprises - for investment purposes or for trading reasons - that are of sufficient proportions for the investing enterprise to be able to control or exercise significant influence on the financial and/or operating decisions of its investee.
16. Without related party disclosures, there is a general presumption that transactions reflected in financial statements are consummated on an arm's length basis between independent parties. However, that presumption may not be valid when related party relationships exist because related parties may enter into transactions which unrelated parties would not enter into. Also, transactions between related parties may not be effected at the same terms and conditions as between unrelated parties. Sometimes, no price is charged in related party transactions, for example, free provision of management services and the extension of free credit on a debt. In view of the aforesaid, the resulting accounting measures may not represent what they usually would be expected to represent. Thus, a related party relationship could have an effect on the financial position and operating results of the reporting enterprise.
17. The operating results and financial position of an enterprise may be affected by a related party relationship even if related party transactions do not occur. The mere existence of the relationship may be sufficient to affect the transactions of the reporting enterprise with other parties. For example, a subsidiary may terminate relations with a trading partner on acquisition by the holding company of a fellow subsidiary engaged in the same trade as the former partner. Alternatively, one party may refrain from acting because of the control or significant influence of another - for example, a subsidiary may be instructed by its holding company not to engage in research and development.
18. Because there is an inherent difficulty for management to determine the effect of influences which do not lead to transactions, disclosure of such effects is not required by this Statement.
19. Sometimes, transactions would not have taken place if the related party relationship had not existed. For example, a company that sold a large proportion of its production to its holding company at cost might not have found an alternative customer if the holding company had not purchased the goods.

Disclosure

20. The statutes governing an enterprise often require disclosure in financial statements of transactions with certain categories of related parties. In particular, attention is focussed on transactions with the directors or similar key management personnel of an enterprise, especially their remuneration and

borrowings, because of the fiduciary nature of their relationship with the enterprise.

21. Name of the related party and nature of the related party relationship where control exists should be disclosed irrespective of whether or not there have been transactions between the related parties.

22. Where the reporting enterprise controls, or is controlled by, another party, this information is relevant to the users of financial statements irrespective of whether or not transactions have taken place with that party. This is because the existence of control relationship may prevent the reporting enterprise from being independent in making its financial and/or operating decisions. The disclosure of the name of the related party and the nature of the related party relationship where control exists may sometimes be at least as relevant in appraising an enterprise's prospects as are the operating results and the financial position presented in its financial statements. Such a related party may establish the enterprise's credit standing, determine the source and price of its raw materials, and determine to whom and at what price the product is sold.

23. If there have been transactions between related parties, during the existence of a related party relationship, the reporting enterprise should disclose the following:

- A. the name of the transacting related party;**
- B. a description of the relationship between the parties;**
- C. a description of the nature of transactions;**
- D. volume of the transactions either as an amount or as an appropriate proportion;**
- E. any other elements of the related party transactions necessary for an understanding of the financial statements;**
- F. the amounts or appropriate proportions of outstanding items pertaining to related parties at the balance sheet date and provisions for doubtful debts due from such parties at that date; and**
- G. amounts written off or written back in the period in respect of debts due from or to related parties.**

24. The following are examples of the related party transactions in respect of which disclosures may be made by a reporting enterprise:

- ✍ purchases or sales of goods (finished or unfinished);
- ✍ purchases or sales of fixed assets;
- ✍ rendering or receiving of services;
- ✍ agency arrangements;
- ✍ leasing or hire purchase arrangements;
- ✍ transfer of research and development;
- ✍ licence agreements;
- ✍ finance (including loans and equity contributions in cash or in kind);
- ✍ guarantees and collaterals; and
- ✍ management contracts including for deputation of employees.

25. Paragraph 23 E. requires disclosure of 'any other elements of the related party transactions necessary for an understanding of the financial statements'. An example of such a disclosure would be an indication that the transfer of a major asset had taken place at an amount materially different from that obtainable on normal commercial terms.

26. Items of a similar nature may be disclosed in aggregate by type of related party except when separate disclosure is necessary for an understanding of the effects of related party transactions on the financial statements of the reporting enterprise.

27. Disclosure of details of particular transactions with individual related parties would frequently be too voluminous to be easily understood. Accordingly, items

of a similar nature may be disclosed in aggregate by type of related party. However, this is not done in such a way as to obscure the importance of significant transactions. Hence, purchases or sales of goods are not aggregated with purchases or sales of fixed assets. Nor a material related party transaction with an individual party is clubbed in an aggregated disclosure.

Ishan

Accounting Standard – 19,

Leases

(issued in 2001)

*(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in **bold italic** type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)*

Accounting Standard (AS) 19, 'Leases', issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, comes into effect in respect of all assets leased during accounting periods commencing on or after 1.4.2001 and is mandatory in nature from that date. Accordingly, the Guidance Note on Accounting for Leases issued by the Institute in 1995, is not applicable in respect of such assets. Earlier application of this Standard is, however, encouraged.

In respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2004, an enterprise which does not fall in any of the following categories need not disclose the information required by paragraphs 22. C., E. and F.; 25. A., B. and E.; 37. A., F. and G.; and 46. B., D. and E., of this Standard:

1. Enterprises whose equity or debt securities are listed whether in India or outside India.
2. Enterprises which are in the process of listing their equity or debt securities as evidenced by the board of directors' resolution in this regard.
3. Banks including co-operative banks.
4. Financial institutions.
5. Enterprises carrying on insurance business.
6. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises, whose turnover for the immediately preceding accounting period on the basis of audited financial statements exceeds Rs. 50 crore. Turnover does not include other income.
7. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises having borrowings, including public deposits, in excess of Rs. 10 crore at any time during the accounting period.
8. Holding and subsidiary enterprises of any one of the above at any time during the accounting period.

In respect of an enterprise which falls in any one or more of the above categories, at any time during the accounting period, the Standard is applicable in its entirety.

Where an enterprise has been covered in any one or more of the above categories and subsequently, ceases to be so covered, the enterprise will not qualify for exemption from paragraphs 22. C., E. and F.; 25. A., B. and E.; 37. A., F. and G.; and 46. B., D. and E., of this Standard, until the enterprise ceases to be covered in any of the above categories for two consecutive years.

Where an enterprise has previously qualified for exemption from paragraphs 22. C., E. and F.; 25. A., B. and E.; 37. A., F. and G.; and 46. B., D. and E., of this Standard (being not covered by any of the above categories) but no longer qualifies for exemption in the current accounting period, this Standard becomes applicable, in its entirety, from the current period. However, the corresponding previous period figures in respect of above paragraphs need not be disclosed.

An enterprise, which, pursuant to the above provisions, does not disclose the information required by paragraphs 22. C., E. and F.; 25. A., B. and E.; 37. A., F. and G.; and 46. B., D. and E. should disclose the fact.

The following is the text of the Accounting Standard.

Objective

The objective of this Statement is to prescribe, for lessees and lessors, the appropriate accounting policies and disclosures in relation to finance leases and operating leases.

Scope

1. ***This Statement should be applied in accounting for all leases other than:***
 - A. ***lease agreements to explore for or use natural resources, such as oil, gas, timber, metals and other mineral rights; and***
 - B. ***licensing agreements for items such as motion picture films, video recordings, plays, manuscripts, patents and copyrights; and***
 - C. ***lease agreements to use lands.***
2. This Statement applies to agreements that transfer the right to use assets even though substantial services by the lessor may be called for in connection with the operation or maintenance of such assets. On the other hand, this Statement does not apply to agreements that are contracts for services that do not transfer the right to use assets from one contracting party to the other.

Definitions

3. ***The following terms are used in this Statement with the meanings specified:***

A lease is an agreement whereby the lessor conveys to the lessee in return for a payment or series of payments the right to use an asset for an agreed period of time.

A finance lease is a lease that transfers substantially all the risks and rewards incident to ownership of an asset.

An operating lease is a lease other than a finance lease.

A non-cancellable lease is a lease that is cancellable only:

- A. ***upon the occurrence of some remote contingency; or***
- B. ***with the permission of the lessor; or***
- C. ***if the lessee enters into a new lease for the same or an equivalent asset with the same lessor; or***
- D. ***upon payment by the lessee of an additional amount such that, at inception, continuation of the lease is reasonably certain.***

The inception of the lease is the earlier of the date of the lease agreement and the date of a commitment by the parties to the principal provisions of the lease.

The lease term is the non-cancellable period for which the lessee has agreed to take on lease the asset together with any further periods for which the lessee has the option to continue the lease of the asset, with or without further payment, which option at the inception of the lease it is reasonably certain that the lessee will exercise.

Minimum lease payments are the payments over the lease term that the lessee is, or can be required, to make excluding contingent rent, costs for services and taxes to be paid by and reimbursed to the lessor, together with:

- A. in the case of the lessee, any residual value guaranteed by or on behalf of the lessee; or**
- B. in the case of the lessor, any residual value guaranteed to the lessor:**
 - a. by or on behalf of the lessee; or**
 - b. by an independent third party financially capable of meeting this guarantee.**

However, if the lessee has an option to purchase the asset at a price which is expected to be sufficiently lower than the fair value at the date the option becomes exercisable that, at the inception of the lease, is reasonably certain to be exercised, the minimum lease payments comprise minimum payments payable over the lease term and the payment required to exercise this purchase option.

Fair value is the amount for which an asset could be exchanged or a liability settled between knowledgeable, willing parties in an arm's length transaction.

Economic life is either:

- A. the period over which an asset is expected to be economically usable by one or more users; or**
- B. the number of production or similar units expected to be obtained from the asset by one or more users.**

Useful life of a leased asset is either:

- A. the period over which the leased asset is expected to be used by the lessee; or**
- B. the number of production or similar units expected to be obtained from the use of the asset by the lessee.**

Residual value of a leased asset is the estimated fair value of the asset at the end of the lease term.

Guaranteed residual value is:

- A. in the case of the lessee, that part of the residual value which is guaranteed by the lessee or by a party on behalf of the lessee (the amount of the guarantee being the maximum amount that could, in any event, become payable); and**
- B. in the case of the lessor, that part of the residual value which is guaranteed by or on behalf of the lessee, or by an independent third party who is financially capable of discharging the obligations under the guarantee.**

Unguaranteed residual value of a leased asset is the amount by which the residual value of the asset exceeds its guaranteed residual value.

Gross investment in the lease is the aggregate of the minimum lease payments under a finance lease from the standpoint of the lessor and any unguaranteed residual value accruing to the lessor.

Unearned finance income is the difference between:

- A. the gross investment in the lease; and**
- B. the present value of**
 - a. the minimum lease payments under a finance lease from the standpoint of the lessor; and**
 - b. any unguaranteed residual value accruing to the lessor, at the interest rate implicit in the lease.**

Net investment in the lease is the gross investment in the lease less unearned finance income.

The interest rate implicit in the lease is the discount rate that, at the inception of the lease, causes the aggregate present value of

- A. the minimum lease payments under a finance lease from the standpoint of the lessor; and**
- B. any unguaranteed residual value accruing to the lessor, to be equal to the fair value of the leased asset.**

The lessee's incremental borrowing rate of interest is the rate of interest the lessee would have to pay on a similar lease or, if that is not determinable, the rate that, at the inception of the lease, the lessee would incur to borrow over a similar term, and with a similar security, the funds necessary to purchase the asset.

Contingent rent is that portion of the lease payments that is not fixed in amount but is based on a factor other than just the passage of time (e.g., percentage of sales, amount of usage, price indices, market rates of interest).

- 4. The definition of a lease includes agreements for the hire of an asset which contain a provision giving the hirer an option to acquire title to the asset upon the fulfillment of agreed conditions. These agreements are commonly known as hire purchase agreements. Hire purchase agreements include agreements under which the property in the asset is to pass to the hirer on the payment of the last instalment and the hirer has a right to terminate the agreement at any time before the property so passes.

Classification of Leases

- 5. The classification of leases adopted in this Statement is based on the extent to which risks and rewards incident to ownership of a leased asset lie with the lessor or the lessee. Risks include the possibilities of losses from idle capacity or technological obsolescence and of variations in return due to changing economic conditions. Rewards may be represented by the expectation of profitable operation over the economic life of the asset and of gain from appreciation in value or realisation of residual value.
- 6. A lease is classified as a finance lease if it transfers substantially all the risks and rewards incident to ownership. Title may or may not eventually be transferred. A lease is classified as an operating lease if it does not transfer substantially all the risks and rewards incident to ownership.
- 7. Since the transaction between a lessor and a lessee is based on a lease agreement common to both parties, it is appropriate to use consistent definitions. The application of these definitions to the differing circumstances of the two parties may sometimes result in the same lease being classified differently by the lessor and the lessee.

8. Whether a lease is a finance lease or an operating lease depends on the substance of the transaction rather than its form. Examples of situations which would normally lead to a lease being classified as a finance lease are:
 - A. the lease transfers ownership of the asset to the lessee by the end of the lease term;
 - B. the lessee has the option to purchase the asset at a price which is expected to be sufficiently lower than the fair value at the date the option becomes exercisable such that, at the inception of the lease, it is reasonably certain that the option will be exercised;
 - C. the lease term is for the major part of the economic life of the asset even if title is not transferred;
 - D. at the inception of the lease the present value of the minimum lease payments amounts to at least substantially all of the fair value of the leased asset; and
 - E. the leased asset is of a specialised nature such that only the lessee can use it without major modifications being made.
9. Indicators of situations which individually or in combination could also lead to a lease being classified as a finance lease are:
 - A. if the lessee can cancel the lease, the lessor's losses associated with the cancellation are borne by the lessee;
 - B. gains or losses from the fluctuation in the fair value of the residual fall to the lessee (for example in the form of a rent rebate equalling most of the sales proceeds at the end of the lease); and
 - C. the lessee can continue the lease for a secondary period at a rent which is substantially lower than market rent.
10. Lease classification is made at the inception of the lease. If at any time the lessee and the lessor agree to change the provisions of the lease, other than by renewing the lease, in a manner that would have resulted in a different classification of the lease under the criteria in paragraphs 5 to 9 had the changed terms been in effect at the inception of the lease, the revised agreement is considered as a new agreement over its revised term. Changes in estimates (for example, changes in estimates of the economic life or of the residual value of the leased asset) or changes in circumstances (for example, default by the lessee), however, do not give rise to a new classification of a lease for accounting purposes.

Leases in the Financial Statements of Lessees

Finance Leases

11. ***At the inception of a finance lease, the lessee should recognise the lease as an asset and a liability. Such recognition should be at an amount equal to the fair value of the leased asset at the inception of the lease. However, if the fair value of the leased asset exceeds the present value of the minimum lease payments from the standpoint of the lessee, the amount recorded as an asset and a liability should be the present value of the minimum lease payments from the standpoint of the lessee. In calculating the present value of the minimum lease payments the discount rate is the interest rate implicit in the lease, if this is practicable to determine; if not, the lessee's incremental borrowing rate should be used.***
12. Transactions and other events are accounted for and presented in accordance with their substance and financial reality and not merely with their legal form. While the legal form of a lease agreement is that the lessee may acquire no legal title to the leased asset, in the case of finance leases the substance and financial reality are that the lessee acquires the economic benefits of the use of the

leased asset for the major part of its economic life in return for entering into an obligation to pay for that right an amount approximating to the fair value of the asset and the related finance charge.

13. If such lease transactions are not reflected in the lessee's balance sheet, the economic resources and the level of obligations of an enterprise are understated thereby distorting financial ratios. It is therefore appropriate that a finance lease be recognised in the lessee's balance sheet both as an asset and as an obligation to pay future lease payments. At the inception of the lease, the asset and the liability for the future lease payments are recognised in the balance sheet at the same amounts.
14. It is not appropriate to present the liability for a leased asset as a deduction from the leased asset in the financial statements. The liability for a leased asset should be presented separately in the balance sheet as a current liability or a long-term liability as the case may be.
15. Initial direct costs are often incurred in connection with specific leasing activities, as in negotiating and securing leasing arrangements. The costs identified as directly attributable to activities performed by the lessee for a finance lease are included as part of the amount recognised as an asset under the lease.
16. ***Lease payments should be apportioned between the finance charge and the reduction of the outstanding liability. The finance charge should be allocated to periods during the lease term so as to produce a constant periodic rate of interest on the remaining balance of the liability for each period.***
17. In practice, in allocating the finance charge to periods during the lease term, some form of approximation may be used to simplify the calculation.
18. ***A finance lease gives rise to a depreciation expense for the asset as well as a finance expense for each accounting period. The depreciation policy for a leased asset should be consistent with that for depreciable assets which are owned, and the depreciation recognized should be calculated on the basis set out in Accounting Standard (AS) 6, Depreciation Accounting. If there is no reasonable certainty that the lessee will obtain ownership by the end of the lease term, the asset should be fully depreciated over the lease term or its useful life, whichever is shorter.***
19. The depreciable amount of a leased asset is allocated to each accounting period during the period of expected use on a systematic basis consistent with the depreciation policy the lessee adopts for depreciable assets that are owned. If there is reasonable certainty that the lessee will obtain ownership by the end of the lease term, the period of expected use is the useful life of the asset; otherwise the asset is depreciated over the lease term or its useful life, whichever is shorter.
20. The sum of the depreciation expense for the asset and the finance expense for the period is rarely the same as the lease payments payable for the period, and it is, therefore, inappropriate simply to recognise the lease payments payable as an expense in the statement of profit and loss. Accordingly, the asset and the related liability are unlikely to be equal in amount after the inception of the lease.
21. To determine whether a leased asset has become impaired, an enterprise applies the Accounting Standard dealing with impairment of assets, that sets out the requirements as to how an enterprise should perform the review of the carrying amount of an asset, how it should determine the recoverable amount of an asset and when it should recognise, or reverse, an impairment loss.
22. ***The lessee should, in addition to the requirements of AS 10, Accounting for Fixed Assets, AS 6, Depreciation Accounting, and the governing statute, make the following disclosures for finance leases:***

- A. assets acquired under finance lease as segregated from the assets owned;**
- B. for each class of assets, the net carrying amount at the balance sheet date;**
- C. a reconciliation between the total of minimum lease payments at the balance sheet date and their present value. In addition, an enterprise should disclose the total of minimum lease payments at the balance sheet date, and their present value, for each of the following periods:**
 - a. not later than one year;**
 - b. later than one year and not later than five years;**
 - c. later than five years;**
- D. contingent rents recognised as expense in the statement of profit and loss for the period;**
- E. the total of future minimum sublease payments expected to be received under non-cancellable subleases at the balance sheet date; and**
- F. a general description of the lessee's significant leasing arrangements including, but not limited to, the following:**
 - a. the basis on which contingent rent payments are determined;**
 - b. the existence and terms of renewal or purchase options and escalation clauses; and**
 - c. restrictions imposed by lease arrangements, such as those concerning dividends, additional debt, and further leasing.**

Operating Leases

- 23. Lease payments under an operating lease should be recognized as an expense in the statement of profit and loss on a straight line basis over the lease term unless another systematic basis is more representative of the time pattern of the user's benefit.**
- 24. For operating leases, lease payments (excluding costs for services such as insurance and maintenance) are recognised as an expense in the statement of profit and loss on a straight line basis unless another systematic basis is more representative of the time pattern of the user's benefit, even if the payments are not on that basis.**
- 25. The lessee should make the following disclosures for operating leases:**
 - A. the total of future minimum lease payments under non cancellable operating leases for each of the following periods:**
 - a. not later than one year;**
 - b. later than one year and not later than five years;**
 - c. later than five years;**
 - B. the total of future minimum sublease payments expected to be received under non-cancellable subleases at the balance sheet date;**
 - C. lease payments recognised in the statement of profit and loss for the period, with separate amounts for minimum lease payments and contingent rents;**
 - D. sub-lease payments received (or receivable) recognised in the statement of profit and loss for the period;**
 - E. a general description of the lessee's significant leasing arrangements including, but not limited to, the following:**
 - a. the basis on which contingent rent payments are determined;**

- b. the existence and terms of renewal or purchase options and escalation clauses; and**
- c. restrictions imposed by lease arrangements, such as those concerning dividends, additional debt, and further leasing.**

Leases in the Financial Statements of Lessors

Finance Leases

- 26. The lessor should recognise assets given under a finance lease in its balance sheet as a receivable at an amount equal to the net investment in the lease.**
- 27. Under a finance lease substantially all the risks and rewards incident to legal ownership are transferred by the lessor, and thus the lease payment receivable is treated by the lessor as repayment of principal, i.e., net investment in the lease, and finance income to reimburse and reward the lessor for its investment and services.
- 28. The recognition of finance income should be based on a pattern reflecting a constant periodic rate of return on the net investment of the lessor outstanding in respect of the finance lease.**
- 29. A lessor aims to allocate finance income over the lease term on a systematic and rational basis. This income allocation is based on a pattern reflecting a constant periodic return on the net investment of the lessor outstanding in respect of the finance lease. Lease payments relating to the accounting period, excluding costs for services, are reduced from both the principal and the unearned finance income.
- 30. Estimated unguaranteed residual values used in computing the lessor's gross investment in a lease are reviewed regularly. If there has been a reduction in the estimated unguaranteed residual value, the income allocation over the remaining lease term is revised and any reduction in respect of amounts already accrued is recognised immediately. An upward adjustment of the estimated residual value is not made.
- 31. Initial direct costs, such as commissions and legal fees, are often incurred by lessors in negotiating and arranging a lease. For finance leases, these initial direct costs are incurred to produce finance income and are either recognised immediately in the statement of profit and loss or allocated against the finance income over the lease term.
- 32. The manufacturer or dealer lessor should recognise the transaction of sale in the statement of profit and loss for the period, in accordance with the policy followed by the enterprise for outright sales. If artificially low rates of interest are quoted, profit on sale should be restricted to that which would apply if a commercial rate of interest were charged. Initial direct costs should be recognised as an expense in the statement of profit and loss at the inception of the lease.**
- 33. Manufacturers or dealers may offer to customers the choice of either buying or leasing an asset. A finance lease of an asset by a manufacturer or dealer lessor gives rise to two types of income:
 - A. the profit or loss equivalent to the profit or loss resulting from an outright sale of the asset being leased, at normal selling prices, reflecting any applicable volume or trade discounts; and
 - B. the finance income over the lease term.
- 34. The sales revenue recorded at the commencement of a finance lease term by a manufacturer or dealer lessor is the fair value of the asset. However, if the present value of the minimum lease payments accruing to the lessor computed at a commercial rate of interest is lower than the fair value, the amount recorded as sales revenue is the present value so computed. The cost of sale

recognised at the commencement of the lease term is the cost, or carrying amount if different, of the leased asset less the present value of the unguaranteed residual value. The difference between the sales revenue and the cost of sale is the selling profit, which is recognised in accordance with the policy followed by the enterprise for sales.

35. Manufacturer or dealer lessors sometimes quote artificially low rates of interest in order to attract customers. The use of such a rate would result in an excessive portion of the total income from the transaction being recognised at the time of sale. If artificially low rates of interest are quoted, selling profit would be restricted to that which would apply if a commercial rate of interest were charged.
36. Initial direct costs are recognised as an expense at the commencement of the lease term because they are mainly related to earning the manufacturer's or dealer's selling profit.
37. ***The lessor should make the following disclosures for finance leases:***
 - A. ***a reconciliation between the total gross investment in the lease at the balance sheet date, and the present value of minimum lease payments receivable at the balance sheet date. In addition, an enterprise should disclose the total gross investment in the lease and the present value of minimum lease payments receivable at the balance sheet date, for each of the following periods:***
 - a. ***not later than one year;***
 - b. ***later than one year and not later than five years;***
 - c. ***later than five years;***
 - B. ***unearned finance income;***
 - C. ***the unguaranteed residual values accruing to the benefit of the lessor;***
 - D. ***the accumulated provision for uncollectible minimum lease payments receivable;***
 - E. ***contingent rents recognised in the statement of profit and loss for the period;***
 - F. ***a general description of the significant leasing arrangements of the lessor; and***
 - G. ***accounting policy adopted in respect of initial direct costs.***
38. As an indicator of growth it is often useful to also disclose the gross investment less unearned income in new business added during the accounting period, after deducting the relevant amounts for cancelled leases.

Operating Leases

39. ***The lessor should present an asset given under operating lease in its balance sheet under fixed assets.***
40. ***Lease income from operating leases should be recognised in the statement of profit and loss on a straight line basis over the lease term, unless another systematic basis is more representative of the time pattern in which benefit derived from the use of the leased asset is diminished.***
41. Costs, including depreciation, incurred in earning the lease income are recognised as an expense. Lease income (excluding receipts for services provided such as insurance and maintenance) is recognised in the statement of profit and loss on a straight line basis over the lease term even if the receipts are not on such a basis, unless another systematic basis is more representative of the time pattern in which benefit derived from the use of the leased asset is diminished.
42. Initial direct costs incurred specifically to earn revenues from an operating lease are either deferred and allocated to income over the lease term in proportion to

the recognition of rent income, or are recognised as an expense in the statement of profit and loss in the period in which they are incurred.

- 43. The depreciation of leased assets should be on a basis consistent with the normal depreciation policy of the lessor for similar assets, and the depreciation charge should be calculated on the basis set out in AS 6, Depreciation Accounting.**
44. To determine whether a leased asset has become impaired, an enterprise applies the Accounting Standard dealing with impairment of assets that sets out the requirements for how an enterprise should perform the review of the carrying amount of an asset, how it should determine the recoverable amount of an asset and when it should recognise, or reverse, an impairment loss.
45. A manufacturer or dealer lessor does not recognise any selling profit on entering into an operating lease because it is not the equivalent of a sale.
- 46. The lessor should, in addition to the requirements of AS 6, Depreciation Accounting and AS 10, Accounting for Fixed Assets, and the governing statute, make the following disclosures for operating leases:**
 - A. for each class of assets, the gross carrying amount, the accumulated depreciation and accumulated impairment losses at the balance sheet date; and**
 - a. the depreciation recognised in the statement of profit and loss for the period;**
 - b. impairment losses recognised in the statement of profit and loss for the period;**
 - c. impairment losses reversed in the statement of profit and loss for the period;**
 - B. the future minimum lease payments under non-cancellable operating leases in the aggregate and for each of the following periods:**
 - a. not later than one year;**
 - b. later than one year and not later than five years;**
 - c. later than five years;**
 - C. total contingent rents recognised as income in the statement of profit and loss for the period;**
 - D. a general description of the lessor's significant leasing arrangements; and**
 - E. accounting policy adopted in respect of initial direct costs.**

Sale and Leaseback Transactions

47. A sale and leaseback transaction involves the sale of an asset by the vendor and the leasing of the same asset back to the vendor. The lease payments and the sale price are usually interdependent as they are negotiated as a package. The accounting treatment of a sale and leaseback transaction depends upon the type of lease involved.
- 48. If a sale and leaseback transaction results in a finance lease, any excess or deficiency of sales proceeds over the carrying amount should not be immediately recognised as income or loss in the financial statements of a seller-lessee. Instead, it should be deferred and amortised over the lease term in proportion to the depreciation of the leased asset.**
49. If the leaseback is a finance lease, it is not appropriate to regard an excess of sales proceeds over the carrying amount as income. Such excess is deferred and amortised over the lease term in proportion to the depreciation of the leased asset. Similarly, it is not appropriate to regard a deficiency as loss. Such deficiency is deferred and amortised over the lease term.

50. ***If a sale and leaseback transaction results in an operating lease, and it is clear that the transaction is established at fair value, any profit or loss should be recognised immediately. If the sale price is below fair value, any profit or loss should be recognised immediately except that, if the loss is compensated by future lease payments at below market price, it should be deferred and amortised in proportion to the lease payments over the period for which the asset is expected to be used. If the sale price is above fair value, the excess over fair value should be deferred and amortised over the period for which the asset is expected to be used.***
51. If the leaseback is an operating lease, and the lease payments and the sale price are established at fair value, there has in effect been a normal sale transaction and any profit or loss is recognised immediately.
52. ***For operating leases, if the fair value at the time of a sale and leaseback transaction is less than the carrying amount of the asset, a loss equal to the amount of the difference between the carrying amount and fair value should be recognised immediately.***
53. For finance leases, no such adjustment is necessary unless there has been an impairment in value, in which case the carrying amount is reduced to recoverable amount in accordance with the Accounting Standard dealing with impairment of assets.
54. Disclosure requirements for lessees and lessors apply equally to sale and leaseback transactions. The required description of the significant leasing arrangements leads to disclosure of unique or unusual provisions of the agreement or terms of the sale and leaseback transactions.
55. Sale and leaseback transactions may meet the separate disclosure criteria set out in paragraph 12 of Accounting Standard (AS) 5, Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period Items and Changes in Accounting Policies.

Accounting Standard – 20, Earning Per Share (issued in 2001)

*(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in **bold italic** type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)*

Accounting Standard (AS) 20, 'Earnings Per Share', issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, comes into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2001 and is mandatory in nature from that date, in respect of enterprises whose equity shares or potential equity shares are listed on a recognised stock exchange in India.

An enterprise which has neither equity shares nor potential equity shares which are so listed but which discloses earnings per share, should calculate and disclose earnings per share in accordance with this Standard from the aforesaid date. However, in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2004, if any such enterprise does not fall in any of the following categories, it need not disclose diluted earnings per share (both including and excluding extraordinary items) and information required by paragraph 48 (ii) of this Standard:

- A. Enterprises whose equity securities or potential equity securities are listed outside India and enterprises whose debt securities (other than potential equity securities) are listed whether in India or outside India.
- B. Enterprises which are in the process of listing their equity or debt securities as evidenced by the board of directors' resolution in this regard.
- C. Banks including co-operative banks.
- D. Financial institutions.
- E. Enterprises carrying on insurance business.
- F. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises, whose turnover for the immediately preceding accounting period on the basis of audited financial statements exceeds Rs. 50 crore. Turnover does not include 'other income'.
- G. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises having borrowings, including public deposits, in excess of Rs. 10 crore at any time during the accounting period.
- H. Holding and subsidiary enterprises of any one of the above at any time during the accounting period.

Where an enterprise (which has neither equity shares nor potential equity shares which are listed on a recognised stock exchange in India but which discloses earnings per share) has been covered in any one or more of the above categories and subsequently, ceases to be so covered, the enterprise will not qualify for exemption from the disclosure of diluted earnings per share (both including and excluding extraordinary items) and paragraph 48 (ii) of this Standard, until the enterprise ceases to be covered in any of the above categories for two consecutive years.

Where an enterprise (which has neither equity shares nor potential equity shares which are listed on a recognised stock exchange in India but which discloses earnings per share) has previously qualified for exemption from the disclosure of diluted earnings per share (both including and excluding extraordinary items) and paragraph 48(ii) of this Standard (being not covered by any of the above categories) but no longer qualifies for exemption in the current accounting period, this Standard becomes applicable, in its entirety, from the current period. However, the relevant corresponding previous period figures need not be disclosed.

If an enterprise (which has neither equity shares nor potential equity shares which are listed on a recognised stock exchange in India but which discloses earnings per share), pursuant to the above provisions, does not disclose the diluted earnings per share (both including and excluding extraordinary items) and information required by paragraph 48 (ii), it should disclose the fact. The following is the text of the Accounting Standard.

Objective

The objective of this Statement is to prescribe principles for the determination and presentation of earnings per share which will improve comparison of performance among different enterprises for the same period and among different accounting periods for the same enterprise. The focus of this Statement is on the denominator of the earnings per share calculation. Even though earnings per share data has limitations because of different accounting policies used for determining earnings, a consistently determined denominator enhances the quality of financial reporting.

Scope

1. ***This Statement should be applied by enterprises whose equity shares or potential equity shares are listed on a recognised stock exchange in India. An enterprise which has neither equity shares nor potential equity shares which are so listed but which discloses earnings per share should calculate and disclose earnings per share in accordance with this Statement.***
2. ***In consolidated financial statements, the information required by this Statement should be presented on the basis of consolidated information.***
3. This Statement applies to enterprises whose equity or potential equity shares are listed on a recognised stock exchange in India. An enterprise which has neither equity shares nor potential equity shares which are so listed is not required to disclose earnings per share. However, comparability in financial reporting among enterprises is enhanced if such an enterprise that is required to disclose by any statute or chooses to disclose earnings per share calculates earnings per share in accordance with the principles laid down in this Statement. In the case of a parent (holding enterprise), users of financial statements are usually concerned with, and need to be informed about, the results of operations of both the enterprise itself as well as of the group as a whole. Accordingly, in the case of such enterprises, this Statement requires the presentation of earnings per share information on the basis of consolidated financial statements as well as individual financial statements of the parent. In consolidated financial statements, such information is presented on the basis of consolidated information.

Definitions

4. ***For the purpose of this Statement, the following terms are used with the meanings specified:***

An equity share is a share other than a preference share.

A preference share is a share carrying preferential rights to dividends and repayment of capital.

A financial instrument is any contract that gives rise to both a financial asset of one enterprise and a financial liability or equity shares of another enterprise.

A potential equity share is a financial instrument or other contract that entitles, or may entitle, its holder to equity shares.

Share warrants or options are financial instruments that give the holder the right to acquire equity shares.

Fair value is the amount for which an asset could be exchanged, or a liability settled, between knowledgeable, willing parties in an arm's length transaction.

5. Equity shares participate in the net profit for the period only after preference shares. An enterprise may have more than one class of equity shares. Equity shares of the same class have the same rights to receive dividends.
6. A financial instrument is any contract that gives rise to both a financial asset of one enterprise and a financial liability or equity shares of another enterprise. For this purpose, a financial asset is any asset that is
 - A. cash;
 - B. a contractual right to receive cash or another financial asset from another enterprise;
 - C. a contractual right to exchange financial instruments with another enterprise under conditions that are potentially favourable; or
 - D. an equity share of another enterprise.A financial liability is any liability that is a contractual obligation to deliver cash or another financial asset to another enterprise or to exchange financial instruments with another enterprise under conditions that are potentially unfavourable.
7. Examples of potential equity shares are:
 - A. debt instruments or preference shares, that are convertible into equity shares;
 - B. share warrants;
 - C. options including employee stock option plans under which employees of an enterprise are entitled to receive equity shares as part of their remuneration and other similar plans; and
 - D. shares which would be issued upon the satisfaction of certain conditions resulting from contractual arrangements (contingently issuable shares), such as the acquisition of a business or other assets, or shares issuable under a loan contract upon default of payment of principal or interest, if the contract so provides.

Presentation

8. ***An enterprise should present basic and diluted earnings per share on the face of the statement of profit and loss for each class of equity shares that has a different right to share in the net profit for the period. An enterprise should present basic and diluted earnings per share with equal prominence for all periods presented.***
9. ***This Statement requires an enterprise to present basic and diluted earnings per share, even if the amounts disclosed are negative (a loss per share).***

Measurement

Basic Earnings Per Share

10. ***Basic earnings per share should be calculated by dividing the net profit or loss for the period attributable to equity shareholders by the***

weighted average number of equity shares outstanding during the period.

Earnings - Basic

- 11. For the purpose of calculating basic earnings per share, the net profit or loss for the period attributable to equity shareholders should be the net profit or loss for the period after deducting preference dividends and any attributable tax thereto for the period.**
12. All items of income and expense which are recognised in a period, including tax expense and extraordinary items, are included in the determination of the net profit or loss for the period unless an Accounting Standard requires or permits otherwise (see Accounting Standard (AS) 5, Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period Items and Changes in Accounting Policies). The amount of preference dividends and any attributable tax thereto for the period is deducted from the net profit for the period (or added to the net loss for the period) in order to calculate the net profit or loss for the period attributable to equity shareholders.
13. The amount of preference dividends for the period that is deducted from the net profit for the period is:
 - A. the amount of any preference dividends on non-cumulative preference shares provided for in respect of the period; and
 - B. the full amount of the required preference dividends for cumulative preference shares for the period, whether or not the dividends have been provided for. The amount of preference dividends for the period does not include the amount of any preference dividends for cumulative preference shares paid or declared during the current period in respect of previous periods.
14. If an enterprise has more than one class of equity shares, net profit or loss for the period is apportioned over the different classes of shares in accordance with their dividend rights.

Per Share - Basic

- 15. For the purpose of calculating basic earnings per share, the number of equity shares should be the weighted average number of equity shares outstanding during the period.**
16. The weighted average number of equity shares outstanding during the period reflects the fact that the amount of shareholders' capital may have varied during the period as a result of a larger or lesser number of shares outstanding at any time. It is the number of equity shares outstanding at the beginning of the period, adjusted by the number of equity shares bought back or issued during the period multiplied by the time-weighting factor. The time-weighting factor is the number of days for which the specific shares are outstanding as a proportion of the total number of days in the period; a reasonable approximation of the weighted average is adequate in many circumstances.
17. In most cases, shares are included in the weighted average number of shares from the date the consideration is receivable, for example:
 - A. equity shares issued in exchange for cash are included when cash is receivable;
 - B. equity shares issued as a result of the conversion of a debt instrument to equity shares are included as of the date of conversion;
 - C. equity shares issued in lieu of interest or principal on other financial instruments are included as of the date interest ceases to accrue;
 - D. equity shares issued in exchange for the settlement of a liability of the enterprise are included as of the date the settlement becomes effective;

- E. equity shares issued as consideration for the acquisition of an asset other than cash are included as of the date on which the acquisition is recognised; and
- F. equity shares issued for the rendering of services to the enterprise are included as the services are rendered.

In these and other cases, the timing of the inclusion of equity shares is determined by the specific terms and conditions attaching to their issue. Due consideration should be given to the substance of any contract associated with the issue.

18. Equity shares issued as part of the consideration in an amalgamation in the nature of purchase are included in the weighted average number of shares as of the date of the acquisition because the transferee incorporates the results of the operations of the transferor into its statement of profit and loss as from the date of acquisition. Equity shares issued during the reporting period as part of the consideration in an amalgamation in the nature of merger are included in the calculation of the weighted average number of shares from the beginning of the reporting period because the financial statements of the combined enterprise for the reporting period are prepared as if the combined entity had existed from the beginning of the reporting period. Therefore, the number of equity shares used for the calculation of basic earnings per share in an amalgamation in the nature of merger is the aggregate of the weighted average number of shares of the combined enterprises, adjusted to equivalent shares of the enterprise whose shares are outstanding after the amalgamation.
19. Partly paid equity shares are treated as a fraction of an equity share to the extent that they are entitled to participate in dividends relative to a fully paid equity share during the reporting period.
20. Where an enterprise has equity shares of different nominal values but with the same dividend rights, the number of equity shares is calculated by converting all such equity shares into equivalent number of shares of the same nominal value.
21. Equity shares which are issuable upon the satisfaction of certain conditions resulting from contractual arrangements (contingently issuable shares) are considered outstanding, and included in the computation of basic earnings per share from the date when all necessary conditions under the contract have been satisfied.
22. ***The weighted average number of equity shares outstanding during the period and for all periods presented should be adjusted for events, other than the conversion of potential equity shares, that have changed the number of equity shares outstanding, without a corresponding change in resources.***
23. Equity shares may be issued, or the number of shares outstanding may be reduced, without a corresponding change in resources. Examples include:
 - A. a bonus issue;
 - B. a bonus element in any other issue, for example a bonus element in a rights issue to existing shareholders;
 - C. a share split; and
 - D. a reverse share split (consolidation of shares).
24. In case of a bonus issue or a share split, equity shares are issued to existing shareholders for no additional consideration. Therefore, the number of equity shares outstanding is increased without an increase in resources. The number of equity shares outstanding before the event is adjusted for the proportionate change in the number of equity shares outstanding as if the event had occurred at the beginning of the earliest period reported. For example, upon a two-for-one bonus issue, the number of shares outstanding prior to the issue is multiplied by a factor of three to obtain the new total number of shares, or by a factor of two to obtain the number of additional shares.

25. The issue of equity shares at the time of exercise or conversion of potential equity shares will not usually give rise to a bonus element, since the potential equity shares will usually have been issued for full value, resulting in a proportionate change in the resources available to the enterprise. In a rights issue, on the other hand, the exercise price is often less than the fair value of the shares. Therefore, a rights issue usually includes a bonus element. The number of equity shares to be used in calculating basic earnings per share for all periods prior to the rights issue is the number of equity shares outstanding prior to the issue, multiplied by the following factor:

$$\frac{\text{Fair value per share immediately prior to the exercise of rights}}{\text{Theoretical ex-rights fair value per share}}$$

The theoretical ex-rights fair value per share is calculated by adding the aggregate fair value of the shares immediately prior to the exercise of the rights to the proceeds from the exercise of the rights, and dividing by the number of shares outstanding after the exercise of the rights. Where the rights themselves are to be publicly traded separately from the shares prior to the exercise date, fair value for the purposes of this calculation is established at the close of the last day on which the shares are traded together with the rights.

Diluted Earnings Per Share

26. ***For the purpose of calculating diluted earnings per share, the net profit or loss for the period attributable to equity shareholders and the weighted average number of shares outstanding during the period should be adjusted for the effects of all dilutive potential equity shares.***
27. In calculating diluted earnings per share, effect is given to all dilutive potential equity shares that were outstanding during the period, that is:
- A. the net profit for the period attributable to equity shares is:
 - a. increased by the amount of dividends recognised in the period in respect of the dilutive potential equity shares as adjusted for any attributable change in tax expense for the period;
 - b. increased by the amount of interest recognised in the period in respect of the dilutive potential equity shares as adjusted for any attributable change in tax expense for the period; and
 - c. adjusted for the after-tax amount of any other changes in expenses or income that would result from the conversion of the dilutive potential equity shares.
 - B. the weighted average number of equity shares outstanding during the period is increased by the weighted average number of additional equity shares which would have been outstanding assuming the conversion of all dilutive potential equity shares.
28. For the purpose of this Statement, share application money pending allotment or any advance share application money as at the balance sheet date, which is not statutorily required to be kept separately and is being utilised in the business of the enterprise, is treated in the same manner as dilutive potential equity shares for the purpose of calculation of diluted earnings per share.

Earnings - Diluted

29. ***For the purpose of calculating diluted earnings per share, the amount of net profit or loss for the period attributable to equity shareholders, as calculated in accordance with paragraph 11, should be adjusted by the following, after taking into account any attributable change in tax expense for the period:***
- A. ***any dividends on dilutive potential equity shares which have been deducted in arriving at the net profit attributable to equity shareholders as calculated in accordance with paragraph 11;***

- B. interest recognised in the period for the dilutive potential equity shares; and**
- C. any other changes in expenses or income that would result from the conversion of the dilutive potential equity shares.**

30. After the potential equity shares are converted into equity shares, the dividends, interest and other expenses or income associated with those potential equity shares will no longer be incurred (or earned). Instead, the new equity shares will be entitled to participate in the net profit attributable to equity shareholders. Therefore, the net profit for the period attributable to equity shareholders calculated in accordance with paragraph 11 is increased by the amount of dividends, interest and other expenses that will be saved, and reduced by the amount of income that will cease to accrue, on the conversion of the dilutive potential equity shares into equity shares. The amounts of dividends, interest and other expenses or income are adjusted for any attributable taxes.
31. The conversion of some potential equity shares may lead to consequential changes in other items of income or expense. For example, the reduction of interest expense related to potential equity shares and the resulting increase in net profit for the period may lead to an increase in the expense relating to a non-discretionary employee profit sharing plan. For the purpose of calculating diluted earnings per share, the net profit or loss for the period is adjusted for any such consequential changes in income or expenses.

Per Share - Diluted

32. **For the purpose of calculating diluted earnings per share, the number of equity shares should be the aggregate of the weighted average number of equity shares calculated in accordance with paragraphs 15 and 22, and the weighted average number of equity shares which would be issued on the conversion of all the dilutive potential equity shares into equity shares. Dilutive potential equity shares should be deemed to have been converted into equity shares at the beginning of the period or, if issued later, the date of the issue of the potential equity shares.**
33. The number of equity shares which would be issued on the conversion of dilutive potential equity shares is determined from the terms of the potential equity shares. The computation assumes the most advantageous conversion rate or exercise price from the standpoint of the holder of the potential equity shares.
34. Equity shares which are issuable upon the satisfaction of certain conditions resulting from contractual arrangements (contingently issuable shares) are considered outstanding and included in the computation of both the basic earnings per share and diluted earnings per share from the date when the conditions under a contract are met. If the conditions have not been met, for computing the diluted earnings per share, contingently issuable shares are included as of the beginning of the period (or as of the date of the contingent share agreement, if later). The number of contingently issuable shares included in this case in computing the diluted earnings per share is based on the number of shares that would be issuable if the end of the reporting period was the end of the contingency period. Restatement is not permitted if the conditions are not met when the contingency period actually expires subsequent to the end of the reporting period. The provisions of this paragraph apply equally to potential equity shares that are issuable upon the satisfaction of certain conditions (contingently issuable potential equity shares).
35. **For the purpose of calculating diluted earnings per share, an enterprise should assume the exercise of dilutive options and other dilutive potential equity shares of the enterprise. The assumed proceeds from these issues should be considered to have been received from the issue of shares at fair value. The difference between the number of shares**

issuable and the number of shares that would have been issued at fair value should be treated as an issue of equity shares for no consideration.

36. Fair value for this purpose is the average price of the equity shares during the period. Theoretically, every market transaction for an enterprise's equity shares could be included in determining the average price. As a practical matter, however, a simple average of last six months weekly closing prices are usually adequate for use in computing the average price.
37. Options and other share purchase arrangements are dilutive when they would result in the issue of equity shares for less than fair value. The amount of the dilution is fair value less the issue price. Therefore, in order to calculate diluted earnings per share, each such arrangement is treated as consisting of:
 - A. a contract to issue a certain number of equity shares at their average fair value during the period. The shares to be so issued are fairly priced and are assumed to be neither dilutive nor anti-dilutive. They are ignored in the computation of diluted earnings per share; and
 - B. a contract to issue the remaining equity shares for no consideration. Such equity shares generate no proceeds and have no effect on the net profit attributable to equity shares outstanding. Therefore, such shares are dilutive and are added to the number of equity shares outstanding in the computation of diluted earnings per share.
38. To the extent that partly paid shares are not entitled to participate in dividends during the reporting period they are considered the equivalent of warrants or options.

Dilutive Potential Equity Shares

39. **Potential equity shares should be treated as dilutive when, and only when, their conversion to equity shares would decrease net profit per share from continuing ordinary operations.**
40. An enterprise uses net profit from continuing ordinary activities as "the control figure" that is used to establish whether potential equity shares are dilutive or anti-dilutive. The net profit from continuing ordinary activities is the net profit from ordinary activities (as defined in AS 5) after deducting preference dividends and any attributable tax thereto and after excluding items relating to discontinued operations.
41. Potential equity shares are anti-dilutive when their conversion to equity shares would increase earnings per share from continuing ordinary activities or decrease loss per share from continuing ordinary activities. The effects of anti-dilutive potential equity shares are ignored in calculating diluted earnings per share.
42. In considering whether potential equity shares are dilutive or anti-dilutive, each issue or series of potential equity shares is considered separately rather than in aggregate. The sequence in which potential equity shares are considered may affect whether or not they are dilutive. Therefore, in order to maximise the dilution of basic earnings per share, each issue or series of potential equity shares is considered in sequence from the most dilutive to the least dilutive. For the purpose of determining the sequence from most dilutive to least dilutive potential equity shares, the earnings per incremental potential equity share is calculated. Where the earnings per incremental share is the least, the potential equity share is considered most dilutive and vice-versa.
43. Potential equity shares are weighted for the period they were outstanding. Potential equity shares that were cancelled or allowed to lapse during the reporting period are included in the computation of diluted earnings per share only for the portion of the period during which they were outstanding. Potential equity shares that have been converted into equity shares during the reporting

period are included in the calculation of diluted earnings per share from the beginning of the period to the date of conversion; from the date of conversion, the resulting equity shares are included in computing both basic and diluted earnings per share.

Restatement

- 44. *If the number of equity or potential equity shares outstanding increases as a result of a bonus issue or share split or decreases as a result of a reverse share split (consolidation of shares), the calculation of basic and diluted earnings per share should be adjusted for all the periods presented. If these changes occur after the balance sheet date but before the date on which the financial statements are approved by the board of directors, the per share calculations for those financial statements and any prior period financial statements presented should be based on the new number of shares. When per share calculations reflect such changes in the number of shares, that fact should be disclosed.***
45. An enterprise does not restate diluted earnings per share of any prior period presented for changes in the assumptions used or for the conversion of potential equity shares into equity shares outstanding.
46. An enterprise is encouraged to provide a description of equity share transactions or potential equity share transactions, other than bonus issues, share splits and reverse share splits (consolidation of shares) which occur after the balance sheet date when they are of such importance that non-disclosure would affect the ability of the users of the financial statements to make proper evaluations and decisions. Examples of such transactions include:
 - A. the issue of shares for cash;
 - B. the issue of shares when the proceeds are used to repay debt or preference shares outstanding at the balance sheet date;
 - C. the cancellation of equity shares outstanding at the balance sheet date;
 - D. the conversion or exercise of potential equity shares, outstanding at the balance sheet date, into equity shares;
 - E. the issue of warrants, options or convertible securities; and
 - F. the satisfaction of conditions that would result in the issue of contingently issuable shares.
47. Earnings per share amounts are not adjusted for such transactions occurring after the balance sheet date because such transactions do not affect the amount of capital used to produce the net profit or loss for the period.

Disclosure

- 48. *In addition to disclosures as required by paragraphs 8, 9 and 44 of this Statement, an enterprise should disclose the following:***
 - A. *where the statement of profit and loss includes extraordinary items (within the meaning of AS 5, Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period Items and Changes in Accounting Policies), the enterprise should disclose basic and diluted earnings per share computed on the basis of earnings excluding extraordinary items (net of tax expense); and***
 - B. *a. the amounts used as the numerators in calculating basic and diluted earnings per share, and a reconciliation of those amounts to the net profit or loss for the period;***
 - b. *the weighted average number of equity shares used as the denominator in calculating basic and diluted earnings per***

share, and a reconciliation of these denominators to each other; and

c. the nominal value of shares along with the earnings per share figures.

49. Contracts generating potential equity shares may incorporate terms and conditions which affect the measurement of basic and diluted earnings per share. These terms and conditions may determine whether or not any potential equity shares are dilutive and, if so, the effect on the weighted average number of shares outstanding and any consequent adjustments to the net profit attributable to equity shareholders. Disclosure of the terms and conditions of such contracts is encouraged by this Statement.
50. ***If an enterprise discloses, in addition to basic and diluted earnings per share, per share amounts using a reported component of net profit other than net profit or loss for the period attributable to equity shareholders, such amounts should be calculated using the weighted average number of equity shares determined in accordance with this Statement. If a component of net profit is used which is not reported as a line item in the statement of profit and loss, a reconciliation should be provided between the component used and a line item which is reported in the statement of profit and loss. Basic and diluted per share amounts should be disclosed with equal prominence.***
51. An enterprise may wish to disclose more information than this Statement requires. Such information may help the users to evaluate the performance of the enterprise and may take the form of per share amounts for various components of net profit. Such disclosures are encouraged. However, when such amounts are disclosed, the denominators need to be calculated in accordance with this Statement in order to ensure the comparability of the per share amounts disclosed.

Accounting Standard – 21, Consolidated Financial Statements (issued in 2001)

*(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in **bold italic** type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)*

Accounting Standard (AS) 21, Consolidated Financial Statements', issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, comes into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2001. An enterprise that presents consolidated financial statements should prepare and present these statements in accordance with this Standard. The following is the text of the Accounting Standard.

Objective

The objective of this Statement is to lay down principles and procedures for preparation and presentation of consolidated financial statements. Consolidated financial statements are presented by a parent (also known as holding enterprise) to provide financial information about the economic activities of its group. These statements are intended to present financial information about a parent and its subsidiary(ies) as a single economic entity to show the economic resources controlled by the group, the obligations of the group and results the group achieves with its resources.

Scope

1. ***This Statement should be applied in the preparation and presentation of consolidated financial statements for a group of enterprises under the control of a parent.***
2. ***This Statement should also be applied in accounting for investments in subsidiaries in the separate financial statements of a parent.***
3. In the preparation of consolidated financial statements, other Accounting Standards also apply in the same manner as they apply to the separate financial statements.
4. This Statement does not deal with:
 - A. methods of accounting for amalgamations and their effects on consolidation, including goodwill arising on amalgamation (see AS 14, Accounting for Amalgamations);
 - B. accounting for investments in associates (at present governed by AS 13, Accounting for Investments); and
 - C. accounting for investments in joint ventures (at present governed by AS 13, Accounting for Investments).

Definitions

5. ***For the purpose of this Statement, the following terms are used with the meanings specified:***
Control:
 - A. ***the ownership, directly or indirectly through subsidiary(ies), of more than one-half of the voting power of an enterprise; or***
 - B. ***control of the composition of the board of directors in the case of a company or of the composition of the corresponding governing***

body in case of any other enterprise so as to obtain economic benefits from its activities.

A subsidiary is an enterprise that is controlled by another enterprise (known as the parent).

A parent is an enterprise that has one or more subsidiaries.

A group is a parent and all its subsidiaries.

Consolidated financial statements are the financial statements of a group presented as those of a single enterprise.

Equity is the residual interest in the assets of an enterprise after deducting all its liabilities.

Minority interest is that part of the net results of operations and of the net assets of a subsidiary attributable to interests which are not owned, directly or indirectly through subsidiary (ies), by the parent.

6. Consolidated financial statements normally include consolidated balance sheet, consolidated statement of profit and loss, and notes, other statements and explanatory material that form an integral part thereof. Consolidated cash flow statement is presented in case a parent presents its own cash flow statement. The consolidated financial statements are presented, to the extent possible, in the same format as that adopted by the parent for its separate financial statements.

Presentation of Consolidated Financial Statements

7. **A parent which presents consolidated financial statements should present these statements in addition to its separate financial statements.**
8. Users of the financial statements of a parent are usually concerned with, and need to be informed about, the financial position and results of operations of not only the enterprise itself but also of the group as a whole. This need is served by providing the users -
- A. separate financial statements of the parent; and
 - B. consolidated financial statements, which present financial information about the group as that of a single enterprise without regard to the legal boundaries of the separate legal entities.

Scope of Consolidated Financial Statements

9. **A parent which presents consolidated financial statements should consolidate all subsidiaries, domestic as well as foreign, other than those referred to in paragraph 11.**
10. The consolidated financial statements are prepared on the basis of financial statements of parent and all enterprises that are controlled by the parent, other than those subsidiaries excluded for the reasons set out in paragraph 11. Control exists when the parent owns, directly or indirectly through subsidiary(ies), more than one-half of the voting power of an enterprise. Control also exists when an enterprise controls the composition of the board of directors (in the case of a company) or of the corresponding governing body (in case of an enterprise not being a company) so as to obtain economic benefits from its activities. An enterprise may control the composition of the governing bodies of

entities such as gratuity trust, provident fund trust etc. Since the objective of control over such entities is not to obtain economic benefits from their activities, these are not considered for the purpose of preparation of consolidated financial statements. For the purpose of this Statement, an enterprise is considered to control the composition of:

- A. the board of directors of a company, if it has the power, without the consent or concurrence of any other person, to appoint or remove all or a majority of directors of that company. An enterprise is deemed to have the power to appoint a director, if any of the following conditions is satisfied:
 - a. a person cannot be appointed as director without the exercise in his favour by that enterprise of such a power as aforesaid; or
 - b. a person's appointment as director follows necessarily from his appointment to a position held by him in that enterprise; or
 - c. the director is nominated by that enterprise or a subsidiary thereof.
- B. the governing body of an enterprise that is not a company, if it has the power, without the consent or the concurrence of any other person, to appoint or remove all majority of members of the governing body of that other enterprise. An enterprise is deemed to have the power to appoint a member, if any of the following conditions is satisfied:
 - a. a person cannot be appointed as member of the governing body without the exercise in his favour by that other enterprise of such a power as aforesaid; or
 - b. a person's appointment as member of the governing body follows necessarily from his appointment to a position held by him in that other enterprise; or
 - c. the member of the governing body is nominated by that other enterprise.

11. A subsidiary should be excluded from consolidation when:

- A. ***control is intended to be temporary because the subsidiary is acquired and held exclusively with a view to its subsequent disposal in the near future; or***
- B. ***it operates under severe long-term restrictions which significantly impair its ability to transfer funds to the parent.***

In consolidated financial statements, investments in such subsidiaries should be accounted for in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 13, Accounting for Investments. The reasons for not consolidating a subsidiary should be disclosed in the consolidated financial statements.

- 12. Exclusion of a subsidiary from consolidation on the ground that its business activities are dissimilar from those of the other enterprises within the group is not justified because better information is provided by consolidating such subsidiaries and disclosing additional information in the consolidated financial statements about the different business activities of subsidiaries. For example, the disclosures required by Accounting Standard (AS) 17, Segment Reporting, help to explain the significance of different business activities within the group.

Consolidation Procedures

- 13. ***In preparing consolidated financial statements, the financial statements of the parent and its subsidiaries should be combined on a line by line basis by adding together like items of assets, liabilities, income and expenses. In order that the consolidated financial statements present financial information about the group as that of a single enterprise, the following steps should be taken:***

- A. the cost to the parent of its investment in each subsidiary and the parent's portion of equity of each subsidiary, at the date on which investment in each subsidiary is made, should be eliminated;**
- B. any excess of the cost to the parent of its investment in a subsidiary over the parent's portion of equity of the subsidiary, at the date on which investment in the subsidiary is made, should be described as goodwill to be recognised as an asset in the consolidated financial statements;**
- C. when the cost to the parent of its investment in a subsidiary is less than the parent's portion of equity of the subsidiary, at the date on which investment in the subsidiary is made, the difference should be treated as a capital reserve in the consolidated financial statements;**
- D. minority interests in the net income of consolidated subsidiaries for the reporting period should be identified and adjusted against the income of the group in order to arrive at the net income attributable to the owners of the parent; and**
- E. minority interests in the net assets of consolidated subsidiaries should be identified and presented in the consolidated balance sheet separately from liabilities and the equity of the parent's shareholders. Minority interests in the net assets consist of:**
 - a. the amount of equity attributable to minorities at the date on which investment in a subsidiary is made; and**
 - b. the minorities' share of movements in equity since the date the parent-subsidiary relationship came in existence.**

Where the carrying amount of the investment in the subsidiary is different from its cost, the carrying amount is considered for the purpose of above computations.

- 14. The parent's portion of equity in a subsidiary, at the date on which investment is made, is determined on the basis of information contained in the financial statements of the subsidiary as on the date of investment. However, if the financial statements of a subsidiary, as on the date of investment, are not available and if it is impracticable to draw the financial statements of the subsidiary as on that date, financial statements of the subsidiary for the immediately preceding period are used as a basis for consolidation. Adjustments are made to these financial statements for the effects of significant transactions or other events that occur between the date of such financial statements and the date of investment in the subsidiary.
- 15. If an enterprise makes two or more investments in another enterprise at different dates and eventually obtains control of the other enterprise, the consolidated financial statements are presented only from the date on which holding-subsidiary relationship comes in existence. If two or more investments are made over a period of time, the equity of the subsidiary at the date of investment, for the purposes of paragraph 13 above, is generally determined on a step-by-step basis; however, if small investments are made over a period of time and then an investment is made that results in control, the date of the latest investment, as a practicable measure, may be considered as the date of investment.
- 16. Intragroup balances and intragroup transactions and resulting unrealised profits should be eliminated in full. Unrealised losses resulting from intragroup transactions should also be eliminated unless cost cannot be recovered.**
- 17. Intragroup balances and intragroup transactions, including sales, expenses and dividends, are eliminated in full. Unrealised profits resulting from intragroup transactions that are included in the carrying amount of assets, such as

inventory and fixed assets, are eliminated in full. Unrealised losses resulting from intragroup transactions that are deducted in arriving at the carrying amount of assets are also eliminated unless cost cannot be recovered.

- 18. The financial statements used in the consolidation should be drawn up to the same reporting date. If it is not practicable to draw up the financial statements of one or more subsidiaries to such date and, accordingly, those financial statements are drawn up to different reporting dates, adjustments should be made for the effects of significant transactions or other events that occur between those dates and the date of the parent's financial statements. In any case, the difference between reporting dates should not be more than six months.**
19. The financial statements of the parent and its subsidiaries used in the preparation of the consolidated financial statements are usually drawn up to the same date. When the reporting dates are different, the subsidiary often prepares, for consolidation purposes, statements as at the same date as that of the parent. When it is impracticable to do this, financial statements drawn up to different reporting dates may be used provided the difference in reporting dates is not more than six months. The consistency principle requires that the length of the reporting periods and any difference in the reporting dates should be the same from period to period.
- 20. Consolidated financial statements should be prepared using uniform accounting policies for like transactions and other events in similar circumstances. If it is not practicable to use uniform accounting policies in preparing the consolidated financial statements, that fact should be disclosed together with the proportions of the items in the consolidated financial statements to which the different accounting policies have been applied.**
21. If a member of the group uses accounting policies other than those adopted in the consolidated financial statements for like transactions and events in similar circumstances, appropriate adjustments are made to its financial statements when they are used in preparing the consolidated financial statements.
22. The results of operations of a subsidiary are included in the consolidated financial statements as from the date on which parent-subsidiary relationship came in existence. The results of operations of a subsidiary with which parent-subsidiary relationship ceases to exist are included in the consolidated statement of profit and loss until the date of cessation of the relationship. The difference between the proceeds from the disposal of investment in a subsidiary and the carrying amount of its assets less liabilities as of the date of disposal is recognised in the consolidated statement of profit and loss as the profit or loss on the disposal of the investment in the subsidiary. In order to ensure the comparability of the financial statements from one accounting period to the next, supplementary information is often provided about the effect of the acquisition and disposal of subsidiaries on the financial position at the reporting date and the results for the reporting period and on the corresponding amounts for the preceding period.
- 23. An investment in an enterprise should be accounted for in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 13, Accounting for Investments, from the date that the enterprise ceases to be a subsidiary and does not become an associate.**
24. The carrying amount of the investment at the date that it ceases to be a subsidiary is regarded as cost thereafter.
- 25. Minority interests should be presented in the consolidated balance sheet separately from liabilities and the equity of the parent's shareholders. Minority interests in the income of the group should also be separately presented.**

26. The losses applicable to the minority in a consolidated subsidiary may exceed the minority interest in the equity of the subsidiary. The excess, and any further losses applicable to the minority, are adjusted against the majority interest except to the extent that the minority has a binding obligation to, and is able to, make good the losses. If the subsidiary subsequently reports profits, all such profits are allocated to the majority interest until the minority's share of losses previously absorbed by the majority has been recovered.
27. If a subsidiary has outstanding cumulative preference shares which are held outside the group, the parent computes its share of profits or losses after adjusting for the subsidiary's preference dividends, whether or not dividends have been declared.

Accounting for Investments in Subsidiaries in a Parent's Separate Financial Statements

28. ***In a parent's separate financial statements, investments in subsidiaries should be accounted for in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 13, Accounting for Investments.***

Disclosure

29. ***In addition to disclosures required by paragraph 11 and 20, following disclosures should be made:***
 - A. ***in consolidated financial statements a list of all subsidiaries including the name, country of incorporation or residence, proportion of ownership interest and, if different, proportion of voting power held;***
 - B. ***in consolidated financial statements, where applicable:***
 - a. ***the nature of the relationship between the parent and a subsidiary, if the parent does not own, directly or indirectly through subsidiaries, more than one-half of the voting power of the subsidiary;***
 - b. ***the effect of the acquisition and disposal of subsidiaries on the financial position at the reporting date, the results for the reporting period and on the corresponding amounts for the preceding period; and***
 - c. ***the names of the subsidiary(ies) of which reporting date(s) is/are different from that of the parent and the difference in reporting dates.***

Transitional Provisions

30. ***On the first occasion that consolidated financial statements are presented, comparative figures for the previous period need not be presented. In all subsequent years full comparative figures for the previous period should be presented in the consolidated financial statements.***

Accounting Standard – 22, Accounting for Taxes on Income (issued in 2001)

*(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in **bold italic** type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)*

Accounting Standard (AS) 22, 'Accounting for Taxes on Income', issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, comes into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2001. It is mandatory in nature for:

- A. All the accounting periods commencing on or after 01.04.2001, in respect of the following:
 - a. Enterprises whose equity or debt securities are listed on a recognised stock exchange in India and enterprises that are in the process of issuing equity or debt securities that will be listed on a recognised stock exchange in India as evidenced by the board of directors' resolution in this regard.
 - b. All the enterprises of a group, if the parent presents consolidated financial statements and the Accounting Standard is mandatory in nature in respect of any of the enterprises of that group in terms of a. above.
- B. All the accounting periods commencing on or after 01.04.2002, in respect of companies not covered by A. above.
- C. All the accounting periods commencing on or after 01.04.2006, in respect of all other enterprises.

The Guidance Note on Accounting for Taxes on Income, issued by the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India in 1991, stands withdrawn from 1.4.2001. The following is the text of the Accounting Standard.

Objective

The objective of this Statement is to prescribe accounting treatment for taxes on income. Taxes on income is one of the significant items in the statement of profit and loss of an enterprise. In accordance with the matching concept, taxes on income are accrued in the same period as the revenue and expenses to which they relate. Matching of such taxes against revenue for a period poses special problems arising from the fact that in a number of cases, taxable income may be significantly different from the accounting income. This divergence between taxable income and accounting income arises due to two main reasons. Firstly, there are differences between items of revenue and expenses as appearing in the statement of profit and loss and the items which are considered as revenue, expenses or deductions for tax purposes. Secondly, there are differences between the amount in respect of a particular item of revenue or expense as recognised in the statement of profit and loss and the corresponding amount which is recognised for the computation of taxable income.

Scope

1. ***This Statement should be applied in accounting for taxes on income. This includes the determination of the amount of the expense or saving related to taxes on income in respect of an accounting period and the disclosure of such an amount in the financial statements.***
2. For the purposes of this Statement, taxes on income include all domestic and foreign taxes which are based on taxable income.

3. This Statement does not specify when, or how, an enterprise should account for taxes that are payable on distribution of dividends and other distributions made by the enterprise.

Definitions

4. ***For the purpose of this Statement, the following terms are used with the meanings specified:***

Accounting income (loss) is the net profit or loss for a period, as reported in the statement of profit and loss, before deducting income tax expense or adding income tax saving.

Taxable income (tax loss) is the amount of the income (loss) for a period, determined in accordance with the tax laws, based upon which income tax payable (recoverable) is determined.

Tax expense (tax saving) is the aggregate of current tax and deferred tax charged or credited to the statement of profit and loss for the period.

Current tax is the amount of income tax determined to be payable (recoverable) in respect of the taxable income (tax loss) for a period.

Deferred tax is the tax effect of timing differences.

Timing differences are the differences between taxable income and accounting income for a period that originate in one period and are capable of reversal in one or more subsequent periods.

Permanent differences are the differences between taxable income and accounting income for a period that originate in one period and do not reverse subsequently.

5. Taxable income is calculated in accordance with tax laws. In some circumstances, the requirements of these laws to compute taxable income differ from the accounting policies applied to determine accounting income. The effect of this difference is that the taxable income and accounting income may not be the same.
6. The differences between taxable income and accounting income can be classified into permanent differences and timing differences. Permanent differences are those differences between taxable income and accounting income which originate in one period and do not reverse subsequently. For instance, if for the purpose of computing taxable income, the tax laws allow only a part of an item of expenditure, the disallowed amount would result in a permanent difference.
7. Timing differences are those differences between taxable income and accounting income for a period that originate in one period and are capable of reversal in one or more subsequent periods. Timing differences arise because the period in which some items of revenue and expenses are included in taxable income do not coincide with the period in which such items of revenue and expenses are included or considered in arriving at accounting income. For example, machinery purchased for scientific research related to business is fully allowed as deduction in the first year for tax purposes whereas the same would be charged to the statement of profit and loss as depreciation over its useful life. The total depreciation charged on the machinery for accounting purposes and the amount

allowed as deduction for tax purposes will ultimately be the same, but periods over which the depreciation is charged and the deduction is allowed will differ. Another example of timing difference is a situation where, for the purpose of computing taxable income, tax laws allow depreciation on the basis of the written down value method, whereas for accounting purposes, straight line method is used.

8. Unabsorbed depreciation and carry forward of losses which can be setoff against future taxable income are also considered as timing differences and result in deferred tax assets, subject to consideration of prudence (see paragraphs 15. - 18.).

Recognition

9. ***Tax expense for the period, comprising current tax and deferred tax, should be included in the determination of the net profit or loss for the period.***
10. Taxes on income are considered to be an expense incurred by the enterprise in earning income and are accrued in the same period as the revenue and expenses to which they relate. Such matching may result into timing differences. The tax effects of timing differences are included in the tax expense in the statement of profit and loss and as deferred tax assets (subject to the consideration of prudence as set out in paragraphs 15. - 18.) or as deferred tax liabilities, in the balance sheet.
11. An example of tax effect of a timing difference that results in a deferred tax asset is an expense provided in the statement of profit and loss but not allowed as a deduction under Section 43B of the Income-tax Act, 1961. This timing difference will reverse when the deduction of that expense is allowed under Section 43B in subsequent year(s). An example of tax effect of a timing difference resulting in a deferred tax liability is the higher charge of depreciation allowable under the Income-tax Act, 1961, compared to the depreciation provided in the statement of profit and loss. In subsequent years, the differential will reverse when comparatively lower depreciation will be allowed for tax purposes.
12. Permanent differences do not result in deferred tax assets or deferred tax liabilities.
13. ***Deferred tax should be recognised for all the timing differences, subject to the consideration of prudence in respect of deferred tax assets as set out in paragraphs 15. - 18.***
14. This Statement requires recognition of deferred tax for all the timing differences. This is based on the principle that the financial statements for a period should recognise the tax effect, whether current or deferred, of all the transactions occurring in that period.
15. ***Except in the situations stated in paragraph 17, deferred tax assets should be recognised and carried forward only to the extent that there is a reasonable certainty that sufficient future taxable income will be available against which such deferred tax assets can be realised.***
16. While recognising the tax effect of timing differences, consideration of prudence cannot be ignored. Therefore, deferred tax assets are recognised and carried forward only to the extent that there is a reasonable certainty of their realisation. This reasonable level of certainty would normally be achieved by examining the past record of the enterprise and by making realistic estimates of profits for the future.
17. ***Where an enterprise has unabsorbed depreciation or carry forward of losses under tax laws, deferred tax assets should be recognised only to the extent that there is virtual certainty supported by convincing***

evidence that sufficient future taxable income will be available against which such deferred tax assets can be realised.

18. The existence of unabsorbed depreciation or carry forward of losses under tax laws is strong evidence that future taxable income may not be available. Therefore, when an enterprise has a history of recent losses, the enterprise recognises deferred tax assets only to the extent that it has timing differences the reversal of which will result in sufficient income or there is other convincing evidence that sufficient taxable income will be available against which such deferred tax assets can be realised. In such circumstances, the nature of the evidence supporting its recognition is disclosed.

Re-assessment of Unrecognised Deferred Tax Assets

19. At each balance sheet date, an enterprise re-assesses unrecognised deferred tax assets. The enterprise recognises previously unrecognised deferred tax assets to the extent that it has become reasonably certain or virtually certain, as the case may be (see paragraphs 15. to 18.), that sufficient future taxable income will be available against which such deferred tax assets can be realised. For example, an improvement in trading conditions may make it reasonably certain that the enterprise will be able to generate sufficient taxable income in the future.

Measurement

20. ***Current tax should be measured at the amount expected to be paid to (recovered from) the taxation authorities, using the applicable tax rates and tax laws.***
21. ***Deferred tax assets and liabilities should be measured using the tax rates and tax laws that have been enacted or substantively enacted by the balance sheet date.***
22. Deferred tax assets and liabilities are usually measured using the tax rates and tax laws that have been enacted. However, certain announcements of tax rates and tax laws by the government may have the substantive effect of actual enactment. In these circumstances, deferred tax assets and liabilities are measured using such announced tax rate and tax laws.
23. When different tax rates apply to different levels of taxable income, deferred tax assets and liabilities are measured using average rates.
24. ***Deferred tax assets and liabilities should not be discounted to their present value.***
25. The reliable determination of deferred tax assets and liabilities on a discounted basis requires detailed scheduling of the timing of the reversal of each timing difference. In a number of cases such scheduling is impracticable or highly complex. Therefore, it is inappropriate to require discounting of deferred tax assets and liabilities. To permit, but not to require, discounting would result in deferred tax assets and liabilities which would not be comparable between enterprises. Therefore, this Statement does not require or permit the discounting of deferred tax assets and liabilities.

Review of Deferred Tax Assets

26. ***The carrying amount of deferred tax assets should be reviewed at each balance sheet date. An enterprise should write-down the carrying amount of a deferred tax asset to the extent that it is no longer reasonably certain or virtually certain, as the case may be (see paragraphs 15. to 18.), that sufficient future taxable income will be available against which deferred tax asset can be realised. Any such write-down may be reversed to the extent that it becomes reasonably***

certain or virtually certain, as the case may be (see paragraphs 15. to 18.), that sufficient future taxable income will be available.

Presentation and Disclosure

- 27. An enterprise should offset assets and liabilities representing current tax if the enterprise:**
- A. has a legally enforceable right to set off the recognised amounts; and**
 - B. intends to settle the asset and the liability on a net basis.**
- 28.** An enterprise will normally have a legally enforceable right to set off an asset and liability representing current tax when they relate to income taxes levied under the same governing taxation laws and the taxation laws permit the enterprise to make or receive a single net payment.
- 29. An enterprise should offset deferred tax assets and deferred tax liabilities if:**
- A. the enterprise has a legally enforceable right to set off assets against liabilities representing current tax; and**
 - B. the deferred tax assets and the deferred tax liabilities relate to taxes on income levied by the same governing taxation laws.**
- 30. Deferred tax assets and liabilities should be distinguished from assets and liabilities representing current tax for the period. Deferred tax assets and liabilities should be disclosed under a separate heading in the balance sheet of the enterprise, separately from current assets and current liabilities.**
- 31. The break-up of deferred tax assets and deferred tax liabilities into major components of the respective balances should be disclosed in the notes to accounts.**
- 32. The nature of the evidence supporting the recognition of deferred tax assets should be disclosed, if an enterprise has unabsorbed depreciation or carry forward of losses under tax laws.**

Transitional Provisions

- 33. On the first occasion that the taxes on income are accounted for in accordance with this Statement, the enterprise should recognise, in the financial statements, the deferred tax balance that has accumulated prior to the adoption of this Statement as deferred tax asset/liability with a corresponding credit/charge to the revenue reserves, subject to the consideration of prudence in case of deferred tax assets (see paragraphs 15. - 18.). The amount so credited/charged to the revenue reserves should be the same as that which would have resulted if this Statement had been in effect from the beginning.**
- 34.** For the purpose of determining accumulated deferred tax in the period in which this Statement is applied for the first time, the opening balances of assets and liabilities for accounting purposes and for tax purposes are compared and the differences, if any, are determined. The tax effects of these differences, if any, should be recognised as deferred tax assets or liabilities, if these differences are timing differences. For example, in the year in which an enterprise adopts this Statement, the opening balance of a fixed asset is Rs. 100 for accounting purposes and Rs. 60 for tax purposes. The difference is because the enterprise applies written down value method of depreciation for calculating taxable income whereas for accounting purposes straight line method is used. This difference will reverse in future when depreciation for tax purposes will be lower as compared to the depreciation for accounting purposes. In the above case, assuming that enacted tax rate for the year is 40% and that there are no other

timing differences, deferred tax liability of Rs. 16 $[(Rs. 100 - Rs. 60) \times 40\%]$ would be recognised. Another example is an expenditure that has already been written off for accounting purposes in the year of its incurrence but is allowable for tax purposes over a period of time. In this case, the asset representing that expenditure would have a balance only for tax purposes but not for accounting purposes. The difference between balance of the asset for tax purposes and the balance (which is nil) for accounting purposes would be a timing difference which will reverse in future when this expenditure would be allowed for tax purposes.

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Accounting Standard – 23, Accounting for Investments in Associates in Consolidated Financial Statements (issued in 2001)

(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in **bold italic** type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)

Accounting Standard (AS) 23, 'Accounting for Investments in Associates in Consolidated Financial Statements', issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, comes into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2002. An enterprise that presents consolidated financial statements should account for investments in associates in the consolidated financial statements in accordance with this Standard. The following is the text of the Accounting Standard.

Objective

The objective of this Statement is to set out principles and procedures for recognising, in the consolidated financial statements, the effects of the investments in associates on the financial position and operating results of a group.

Scope

1. ***This Statement should be applied in accounting for investments in associates in the preparation and presentation of consolidated financial statements by an investor.***
2. This Statement does not deal with accounting for investments in associates in the preparation and presentation of separate financial statements by an investor.

Definitions

3. ***For the purpose of this Statement, the following terms are used with the meanings specified:***

An associate is an enterprise in which the investor has significant influence and which is neither a subsidiary nor a joint venture of the investor.

Significant influence is the power to participate in the financial and/or operating policy decisions of the investee but not control over those policies.

Control:

- A. ***the ownership, directly or indirectly through subsidiary(ies), of more than one-half of the voting power of an enterprise;***
- B. ***control of the composition of the board of directors in the case of a company or of the composition of the corresponding governing body in case of any other enterprise so as to obtain economic benefits from its activities.***

A subsidiary is an enterprise that is controlled by another enterprise (known as the parent).

A parent is an enterprise that has one or more subsidiaries.

A group is a parent and all its subsidiaries.

Consolidated financial statements are the financial statements of a group presented as those of a single enterprise.

The equity method is a method of accounting whereby the investment is initially recorded at cost, identifying any goodwill/capital reserve arising at the time of acquisition. The carrying amount of the investment is adjusted thereafter for the post acquisition change in the investor's share of net assets of the investee. The consolidated statement of profit and loss reflects the investor's share of the results of operations of the investee.

Equity is the residual interest in the assets of an enterprise after deducting all its liabilities.

4. For the purpose of this Statement, significant influence does not extend to power to govern the financial and/or operating policies of an enterprise. Significant influence may be gained by share ownership, statute or agreement. As regards share ownership, if an investor holds, directly or indirectly through subsidiary(ies), 20% or more of the voting power of the investee, it is presumed that the investor has significant influence, unless it can be clearly demonstrated that this is not the case. Conversely, if the investor holds, directly or indirectly through subsidiary(ies), less than 20% of the voting power of the investee, it is presumed that the investor does not have significant influence, unless such influence can be clearly demonstrated. A substantial or majority ownership by another investor does not necessarily preclude an investor from having significant influence.
5. The existence of significant influence by an investor is usually evidenced in one or more of the following ways:
 - A. Representation on the board of directors or corresponding governing body of the investee;
 - B. participation in policy making processes;
 - C. material transactions between the investor and the investee;
 - D. interchange of managerial personnel; or
 - E. provision of essential technical information.
6. Under the equity method, the investment is initially recorded at cost, identifying any goodwill/capital reserve arising at the time of acquisition and the carrying amount is increased or decreased to recognise the investor's share of the profits or losses of the investee after the date of acquisition. Distributions received from an investee reduce the carrying amount of the investment. Adjustments to the carrying amount may also be necessary for alterations in the investor's proportionate interest in the investee arising from changes in the investee's equity that have not been included in the statement of profit and loss. Such changes include those arising from the revaluation of fixed assets and investments, from foreign exchange translation differences and from the adjustment of differences arising on amalgamations.

Accounting for Investments – Equity Method

7. ***An investment in an associate should be accounted for in consolidated financial statements under the equity method except when:***
 - A. ***the investment is acquired and held exclusively with a view to its subsequent disposal in the near future; or***
 - B. ***the associate operates under severe long-term restrictions that significantly impair its ability to transfer funds to the investor.***

Investments in such associates should be accounted for in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 13, Accounting for Investments. The reasons for not applying the equity method in accounting for investments in an associate should be disclosed in the consolidated financial statements.
8. Recognition of income on the basis of distributions received may not be an adequate measure of the income earned by an investor on an investment in an associate because the distributions received may bear little relationship to the performance of the associate. As the investor has significant influence over the associate, the investor has a measure of responsibility for the associate's performance and, as a result, the return on its investment. The investor accounts for this stewardship by extending the scope of its consolidated financial statements to include its share of results of such an associate and so provides an analysis of earnings and investment from which more useful ratios can be calculated. As a result, application of the equity method in consolidated financial statements provides more informative reporting of the net assets and net income of the investor.
9. ***An investor should discontinue the use of the equity method from the date that:***
 - A. ***it ceases to have significant influence in an associate but retains, either in whole or in part, its investment; or***
 - B. ***the use of the equity method is no longer appropriate because the associate operates under severe long-term restrictions that significantly impair its ability to transfer funds to the investor.***

From the date of discontinuing the use of the equity method, investments in such associates should be accounted for in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 13, Accounting for Investments. For this purpose, the carrying amount of the investment at that date should be regarded as cost thereafter.

Application of the Equity Method

10. Many of the procedures appropriate for the application of the equity method are similar to the consolidation procedures set out in Accounting Standard (AS) 21, Consolidated Financial Statements. Furthermore, the broad concepts underlying the consolidation procedures used in the acquisition of a subsidiary are adopted on the acquisition of an investment in an associate.
11. An investment in an associate is accounted for under the equity method from the date on which it falls within the definition of an associate. On acquisition of the investment any difference between the cost of acquisition and the investor's share of the equity of the associate is described as goodwill or capital reserve, as the case may be.
12. ***Goodwill/capital reserve arising on the acquisition of an associate by an investor should be included in the carrying amount of investment in the associate but should be disclosed separately.***
13. ***In using equity method for accounting for investment in an associate, unrealised profits and losses resulting from transactions between the investor (or its consolidated subsidiaries) and the associate should be***

eliminated to the extent of the investor's interest in the associate. Unrealised losses should not be eliminated if and to the extent the cost of the transferred asset cannot be recovered.

14. The most recent available financial statements of the associate are used by the investor in applying the equity method; they are usually drawn up to the same date as the financial statements of the investor. When the reporting dates of the investor and the associate are different, the associate often prepares, for the use of the investor, statements as at the same date as the financial statements of the investor. When it is impracticable to do this, financial statements drawn up to a different reporting date may be used. The consistency principle requires that the length of the reporting periods, and any difference in the reporting dates, are consistent from period to period.
15. When financial statements with a different reporting date are used, adjustments are made for the effects of any significant events or transactions between the investor (or its consolidated subsidiaries) and the associate that occur between the date of the associate's financial statements and the date of the investor's consolidated financial statements.
16. The investor usually prepares consolidated financial statements using uniform accounting policies for the like transactions and events in similar circumstances. In case an associate uses accounting policies other than those adopted for the consolidated financial statements for like transactions and events in similar circumstances, appropriate adjustments are made to the associate's financial statements when they are used by the investor in applying the equity method. If it is not practicable to do so, that fact is disclosed along with a brief description of the differences between the accounting policies.
17. If an associate has outstanding cumulative preference shares held outside the group, the investor computes its share of profits or losses after adjusting for the preference dividends whether or not the dividends have been declared.
18. If, under the equity method, an investor's share of losses of an associate equals or exceeds the carrying amount of the investment, the investor ordinarily discontinues recognising its share of further losses and the investment is reported at nil value. Additional losses are provided for to the extent that the investor has incurred obligations or made payments on behalf of the associate to satisfy obligations of the associate that the investor has guaranteed or to which the investor is otherwise committed. If the associate subsequently reports profits, the investor resumes including its share of those profits only after its share of the profits equals the share of net losses that have not been recognised.
19. Where an associate presents consolidated financial statements, the results and net assets to be taken into account are those reported in that associate's consolidated financial statements.
20. **The carrying amount of investment in an associate should be reduced to recognise a decline, other than temporary, in the value of the investment, such reduction being determined and made for each investment individually.**

Contingencies

21. In accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 4, Contingencies and Events Occurring After the Balance Sheet Date, the investor discloses in the consolidated financial statements:
 - A. its share of the contingencies and capital commitments of an associate for which it is also contingently liable; and
 - B. those contingencies that arise because the investor is severally liable for the liabilities of the associate.

Disclosure

22. *In addition to the disclosures required by paragraph 7 and 12, an appropriate listing and description of associates including the proportion of ownership interest and, if different, the proportion of voting power held should be disclosed in the consolidated financial statements.*
23. *Investments in associates accounted for using the equity method should be classified as long-term investments and disclosed separately in the consolidated balance sheet. The investor's share of the profits or losses of such investments should be disclosed separately in the consolidated statement of profit and loss. The investor's share of any extraordinary or prior period items should also be separately disclosed.*
24. *The name(s) of the associate(s) of which reporting date(s) is/are different from that of the financial statements of an investor and the differences in reporting dates should be disclosed in the consolidated financial statements.*
25. *In case an associate uses accounting policies other than those adopted for the consolidated financial statements for like transactions and events in similar circumstances and it is not practicable to make appropriate adjustments to the associate's financial statements, the fact should be disclosed along with a brief description of the differences in the accounting policies.*

Transitional Provisions

26. *On the first occasion when investment in an associate is accounted for in consolidated financial statements in accordance with this Statement, the carrying amount of investment in the associate should be brought to the amount that would have resulted had the equity method of accounting been followed as per this Statement since the acquisition of the associate. The corresponding adjustment in this regard should be made in the retained earnings in the consolidated financial statements.*

Accounting Standard – 24, Discontinuing Operations (issued in 2002)

*(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in **bold italic** type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)*

Accounting Standard (AS) 24, Discontinuing Operations', issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, comes into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1.4.2004. This Standard is mandatory in nature in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2004 for the enterprises which fall in any one or more of the following categories, at any time during the accounting period:

- A. Enterprises whose equity or debt securities are listed whether in India or outside India.
- B. Enterprises which are in the process of listing their equity or debt securities as evidenced by the board of directors' resolution in this regard.
- C. Banks including co-operative banks.
- D. Financial institutions.
- E. Enterprises carrying on insurance business.
- F. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises, whose turnover for the immediately preceding accounting period on the basis of audited financial statements exceeds Rs. 50 crore. Turnover does not include other income.
- G. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises having borrowings, including public deposits, in excess of Rs. 10 crore at any time during the accounting period.
- H. Holding and subsidiary enterprises of any one of the above at any time during the accounting period.

Earlier application is encouraged.

The enterprises which do not fall in any of the above categories are not required to apply this Standard.

Where an enterprise has been covered in any one or more of the above categories and subsequently, ceases to be so covered, the enterprise will not qualify for exemption from application of this Standard, until the enterprise ceases to be covered in any of the above categories for two consecutive years.

Where an enterprise has previously qualified for exemption from application of this Standard (being not covered by any of the above categories) but no longer qualifies for exemption in the current accounting period, this Standard becomes applicable from the current period. However, the corresponding previous period figures need not be disclosed.

An enterprise, which, pursuant to the above provisions, does not present the information relating to the discontinuing operations, should disclose the fact.

The following is the text of the Accounting Standard.

Objective

The objective of this Statement is to establish principles for reporting information about discontinuing operations, thereby enhancing the ability of users of financial statements to make projections of an enterprise's cash flows, earnings-generating capacity, and

financial position by segregating information about discontinuing operations from information about continuing operations.

Scope

1. ***This Statement applies to all discontinuing operations of an enterprise.***
2. The requirements related to cash flow statement contained in this Statement are applicable where an enterprise prepares and presents a cash flow statement.

Definitions

Discontinuing Operation

3. ***A discontinuing operation is a component of an enterprise:***
 - A. ***that the enterprise, pursuant to a single plan, is:***
 - a. ***disposing of substantially in its entirety, such as by selling the component in a single transaction or by demerger or spin-off of ownership of the component to the enterprise's shareholders; or***
 - b. ***disposing of piecemeal, such as by selling off the component's assets and settling its liabilities individually; or***
 - c. ***terminating through abandonment; and***
 - B. ***that represents a separate major line of business or geographical area of operations; and***
 - C. ***that can be distinguished operationally and for financial reporting purposes.***
4. Under criterion A. of the definition (paragraph 3 A.), a discontinuing operation may be disposed of in its entirety or piecemeal, but always pursuant to an overall plan to discontinue the entire component.
5. If an enterprise sells a component substantially in its entirety, the result can be a net gain or net loss. For such a discontinuance, a binding sale agreement is entered into on a specific date, although the actual transfer of possession and control of the discontinuing operation may occur at a later date. Also, payments to the seller may occur at the time of the agreement, at the time of the transfer, or over an extended future period.
6. Instead of disposing of a component substantially in its entirety, an enterprise may discontinue and dispose of the component by selling its assets and settling its liabilities piecemeal (individually or in small groups). For piecemeal disposals, while the overall result may be a net gain or a net loss, the sale of an individual asset or settlement of an individual liability may have the opposite effect. Moreover, there is no specific date at which an overall binding sale agreement is entered into. Rather, the sales of assets and settlements of liabilities may occur over a period of months or perhaps even longer. Thus, disposal of a component may be in progress at the end of a financial reporting period. To qualify as a discontinuing operation, the disposal must be pursuant to a single coordinated plan.
7. An enterprise may terminate an operation by abandonment without substantial sales of assets. An abandoned operation would be a discontinuing operation if it satisfies the criteria in the definition. However, changing the scope of an operation or the manner in which it is conducted is not an abandonment because that operation, although changed, is continuing.
8. Business enterprises frequently close facilities, abandon products or even product lines, and change the size of their work force in response to market forces. While those kinds of terminations generally are not, in themselves, discontinuing operations as that term is defined in paragraph 3 of this Statement, they can occur in connection with a discontinuing operation.

9. Examples of activities that do not necessarily satisfy criterion A. of paragraph 3, but that might do so in combination with other circumstances, include:
 - A. gradual or evolutionary phasing out of a product line or class of service;
 - B. discontinuing, even if relatively abruptly, several products within an ongoing line of business;
 - C. shifting of some production or marketing activities for a particular line of business from one location to another; and
 - D. closing of a facility to achieve productivity improvements or other cost savings.

An example in relation to consolidated financial statements is selling a subsidiary whose activities are similar to those of the parent or other subsidiaries.
10. A reportable business segment or geographical segment as defined in Accounting Standard (AS) 17, Segment Reporting, would normally satisfy criterion B. of the definition of a discontinuing operation (paragraph 3), that is, it would represent a separate major line of business or geographical area of operations. A part of such a segment may also satisfy criterion B. of the definition. For an enterprise that operates in a single business or geographical segment and therefore does not report segment information, a major product or service line may also satisfy the criteria of the definition.
11. A component can be distinguished operationally and for financial reporting purposes - criterion C. of the definition of a discontinuing operation (paragraph 3) - if all the following conditions are met:
 - A. the operating assets and liabilities of the component can be directly attributed to it;
 - B. its revenue can be directly attributed to it;
 - C. at least a majority of its operating expenses can be directly attributed to it.
12. Assets, liabilities, revenue, and expenses are directly attributable to a component if they would be eliminated when the component is sold, abandoned or otherwise disposed of. If debt is attributable to a component, the related interest and other financing costs are similarly attributed to it.
13. Discontinuing operations, as defined in this Statement, are expected to occur relatively infrequently. All infrequently occurring events do not necessarily qualify as discontinuing operations. Infrequently occurring events that do not qualify as discontinuing operations may result in items of income or expense that require separate disclosure pursuant to Accounting Standard (AS) 5, Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period Items and Changes in Accounting Policies, because their size, nature, or incidence make them relevant to explain the performance of the enterprise for the period.
14. The fact that a disposal of a component of an enterprise is classified as a discontinuing operation under this Statement does not, in itself, bring into question the enterprise's ability to continue as a going concern.

Initial Disclosure Event

15. ***With respect to a discontinuing operation, the initial disclosure event is the occurrence of one of the following, whichever occurs earlier:***
 - A. ***the enterprise has entered into a binding sale agreement for substantially all of the assets attributable to the discontinuing operation; or***
 - B. ***the enterprise's board of directors or similar governing body has both (i) approved a detailed, formal plan for the discontinuance and (ii) made an announcement of the plan.***
16. A detailed, formal plan for the discontinuance normally includes:
 - A. identification of the major assets to be disposed of;
 - B. the expected method of disposal;

- C. the period expected to be required for completion of the disposal;
 - D. the principal locations affected;
 - E. the location, function, and approximate number of employees who will be compensated for terminating their services; and
 - F. the estimated proceeds or salvage to be realised by disposal.
17. An enterprise's board of directors or similar governing body is considered to have made the announcement of a detailed, formal plan for discontinuance, if it has announced the main features of the plan to those affected by it, such as, lenders, stock exchanges, creditors, trade unions, etc., in a sufficiently specific manner so as to make the enterprise demonstrably committed to the discontinuance.

Recognition and Measurement

18. ***An enterprise should apply the principles of recognition and measurement that are set out in other Accounting Standards for the purpose of deciding as to when and how to recognise and measure the changes in assets and liabilities and the revenue, expenses, gains, losses and cash flows relating to a discontinuing operation.***
19. This Statement does not establish any recognition and measurement principles. Rather, it requires that an enterprise follow recognition and measurement principles established in other Accounting Standards, e.g., Accounting Standard (AS) 4, Contingencies and Events Occurring After the Balance Sheet Date and Accounting Standard on Impairment of Assets.

Presentation and Disclosure

Initial Disclosure

20. ***An enterprise should include the following information relating to a discontinuing operation in its financial statements beginning with the financial statements for the period in which the initial disclosure event (as defined in paragraph 15) occurs:***
- A. ***a description of the discontinuing operation(s);***
 - B. ***the business or geographical segment(s) in which it is reported as per AS 17, Segment Reporting;***
 - C. ***the date and nature of the initial disclosure event;***
 - D. ***the date or period in which the discontinuance is expected to be completed if known or determinable;***
 - E. ***the carrying amounts, as of the balance sheet date, of the total assets to be disposed of and the total liabilities to be settled;***
 - F. ***the amounts of revenue and expenses in respect of the ordinary activities attributable to the discontinuing operation during the current financial reporting period;***
 - G. ***the amount of pre-tax profit or loss from ordinary activities attributable to the discontinuing operation during the current financial reporting period, and the income tax expense related thereto; and***
 - H. ***the amounts of net cash flows attributable to the operating, investing, and financing activities of the discontinuing operation during the current financial reporting period.***
21. For the purpose of presentation and disclosures required by this Statement, the items of assets, liabilities, revenues, expenses, gains, losses, and cash flows can be attributed to a discontinuing operation only if they will be disposed of, settled, reduced, or eliminated when the discontinuance is completed. To the extent that such items continue after completion of the discontinuance, they are not

allocated to the discontinuing operation. For example, salary of the continuing staff of a discontinuing operation.

22. If an initial disclosure event occurs between the balance sheet date and the date on which the financial statements for that period are approved by the board of directors in the case of a company or by the corresponding approving authority in the case of any other enterprise, disclosures as required by Accounting Standard (AS) 4, Contingencies and Events Occurring After the Balance Sheet Date, are made.

Other Disclosures

23. ***When an enterprise disposes of assets or settles liabilities attributable to a discontinuing operation or enters into binding agreements for the sale of such assets or the settlement of such liabilities, it should include, in its financial statements, the following information when the events occur:***
- A. ***for any gain or loss that is recognised on the disposal of assets or settlement of liabilities attributable to the discontinuing operation, (i) the amount of the pre-tax gain or loss and (ii) income tax expense relating to the gain or loss; and***
 - B. ***the net selling price or range of prices (which is after deducting expected disposal costs) of those net assets for which the enterprise has entered into one or more binding sale agreements, the expected timing of receipt of those cash flows and the carrying amount of those net assets on the balance sheet date.***
24. The asset disposals, liability settlements, and binding sale agreements referred to in the preceding paragraph may occur concurrently with the initial disclosure event, or in the period in which the initial disclosure event occurs, or in a later period.
25. If some of the assets attributable to a discontinuing operation have actually been sold or are the subject of one or more binding sale agreements entered into between the balance sheet date and the date on which the financial statements are approved by the board of directors in case of a company or by the corresponding approving authority in the case of any other enterprise, the disclosures required by Accounting Standard (AS) 4, Contingencies and Events Occurring After the Balance Sheet Date, are made.

Updating the Disclosures

26. ***In addition to the disclosures in paragraphs 20 and 23, an enterprise should include, in its financial statements, for periods subsequent to the one in which the initial disclosure event occurs, a description of any significant changes in the amount or timing of cash flows relating to the assets to be disposed or liabilities to be settled and the events causing those changes.***
27. Examples of events and activities that would be disclosed include the nature and terms of binding sale agreements for the assets, a demerger or spin-off by issuing equity shares of the new company to the enterprise's shareholders, and legal or regulatory approvals.
28. ***The disclosures required by paragraphs 20, 23 and 26 should continue in financial statements for periods up to and including the period in which the discontinuance is completed. A discontinuance is completed when the plan is substantially completed or abandoned, though full payments from the buyer(s) may not yet have been received.***
29. ***If an enterprise abandons or withdraws from a plan that was previously reported as a discontinuing operation, that fact, reasons therefore and its effect should be disclosed.***

30. For the purpose of applying paragraph 29, disclosure of the effect includes reversal of any prior impairment loss or provision that was recognised with respect to the discontinuing operation.

Separate Disclosure for Each Discontinuing Operation

31. *Any disclosures required by this Statement should be presented separately for each discontinuing operation.*

Presentation of the Required Disclosures

32. *The disclosures required by paragraphs 20, 23, 26, 28, 29 and 31 should be presented in the notes to the financial statements except the following which should be shown on the face of the statement of profit and loss:*
- A. the amount of pre-tax profit or loss from ordinary activities attributable to the discontinuing operation during the current financial reporting period, and the income tax expense related thereto (paragraph 20 G.); and*
 - B. the amount of the pre-tax gain or loss recognised on the disposal of assets or settlement of liabilities attributable to the discontinuing operation (paragraph 23 A.).*

Restatement of Prior Periods

33. *Comparative information for prior periods that is presented in financial statements prepared after the initial disclosure event should be restated to segregate assets, liabilities, revenue, expenses, and cash flows of continuing and discontinuing operations in a manner similar to that required by paragraphs 20, 23, 26, 28, 29, 31 and 32.*

Disclosure in Interim Financial Reports

34. *Disclosures in an interim financial report in respect of a discontinuing operation should be made in accordance with AS 25, Interim Financial Reporting, including:*
- A. any significant activities or events since the end of the most recent annual reporting period relating to a discontinuing operation; and*
 - B. any significant changes in the amount or timing of cash flows relating to the assets to be disposed or liabilities to be settled.*

Accounting Standard – 25,

Interim Financial Reporting

(issued in 2002)

*(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in **bold italic** type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)*

Accounting Standard (AS) 25, 'Interim Financial Reporting', issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, comes into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2002. If an enterprise is required or elects to prepare and present an interim financial report, it should comply with this Standard. The following is the text of the Accounting Standard.

Objective

The objective of this Statement is to prescribe the minimum content of an interim financial report and to prescribe the principles for recognition and measurement in a complete or condensed financial statements for an interim period. Timely and reliable interim financial reporting improves the ability of investors, creditors, and others to understand an enterprise's capacity to generate earnings and cash flows, its financial condition and liquidity.

Scope

1. ***This Statement does not mandate which enterprises should be required to present interim financial reports, how frequently, or how soon after the end of an interim period. If an enterprise is required or elects to prepare and present an interim financial report, it should comply with this Statement.***
2. A statute governing an enterprise or a regulator may require an enterprise to prepare and present certain information at an interim date which may be different in form and/or content as required by this Statement. In such a case, the recognition and measurement principles as laid down in this Statement are applied in respect of such information, unless otherwise specified in the statute or by the regulator.
3. The requirements related to cash flow statement, complete or condensed, contained in this Statement are applicable where an enterprise prepares and presents a cash flow statement for the purpose of its annual financial report.

Definitions

4. ***The following terms are used in this Statement with the meanings specified:***

Interim period is a financial reporting period shorter than a full financial year.

Interim financial report means a financial report containing either a complete set of financial statements or a set of condensed financial statements (as described in this Statement) for an interim period.

5. During the first year of operations of an enterprise, its annual financial reporting period may be shorter than a financial year. In such a case, that shorter period is not considered as an interim period.

Content of an Interim Financial Report

6. A complete set of financial statements normally includes:
 - A. balance sheet;
 - B. statement of profit and loss;
 - C. cash flow statement; and
 - D. notes including those relating to accounting policies and other statements and explanatory material that are an integral part of the financial statements.
7. In the interest of timeliness and cost considerations and to avoid repetition of information previously reported, an enterprise may be required to or may elect to present less information at interim dates as compared with its annual financial statements. The benefit of timeliness of presentation may be partially offset by a reduction in detail in the information provided. Therefore, this Statement requires preparation and presentation of an interim financial report containing, as a minimum, a set of condensed financial statements. The interim financial report containing condensed financial statements is intended to provide an update on the latest annual financial statements. Accordingly, it focuses on new activities, events, and circumstances and does not duplicate information previously reported.
8. This Statement does not prohibit or discourage an enterprise from presenting a complete set of financial statements in its interim financial report, rather than a set of condensed financial statements. This Statement also does not prohibit or discourage an enterprise from including, in condensed interim financial statements, more than the minimum line items or selected explanatory notes as set out in this Statement. The recognition and measurement principles set out in this Statement apply also to complete financial statements for an interim period, and such statements would include all disclosures required by this Statement (particularly the selected disclosures in paragraph 16) as well as those required by other Accounting Standards.

Minimum Components of an Interim Financial Report

9. ***An interim financial report should include, at a minimum, the following components:***
 - A. ***condensed balance sheet;***
 - B. ***condensed statement of profit and loss;***
 - C. ***condensed cash flow statement; and***
 - D. ***selected explanatory notes.***

Form and Content of Interim Financial Statements

10. ***If an enterprise prepares and presents a complete set of financial statements in its interim financial report, the form and content of those statements should conform to the requirements as applicable to annual complete set of financial statements.***
11. ***If an enterprise prepares and presents a set of condensed financial statements in its interim financial report, those condensed statements should include, at a minimum, each of the headings and sub-headings that were included in its most recent annual financial statements and the selected explanatory notes as required by this Statement. Additional line items or notes should be included if their omission would make the condensed interim financial statements misleading.***
12. ***If an enterprise presents basic and diluted earnings per share in its annual financial statements in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 20, Earnings Per Share, basic and diluted earnings per share should be presented in accordance with AS 20 on the face of the***

statement of profit and loss, complete or condensed, for an interim period.

13. If an enterprise's annual financial report included the consolidated financial statements in addition to the parent's separate financial statements, the interim financial report includes both the consolidated financial statements and separate financial statements, complete or condensed.

Selected Explanatory Notes

14. A user of an enterprise's interim financial report will ordinarily have access to the most recent annual financial report of that enterprise. It is, therefore, not necessary for the notes to an interim financial report to provide relatively insignificant updates to the information that was already reported in the notes in the most recent annual financial report. At an interim date, an explanation of events and transactions that are significant to an understanding of the changes in financial position and performance of the enterprise since the last annual reporting date is more useful.
15. **An enterprise should include the following information, as a minimum, in the notes to its interim financial statements, if material and if not disclosed elsewhere in the interim financial report:**
- A. **a statement that the same accounting policies are followed in the interim financial statements as those followed in the most recent annual financial statements or, if those policies have been changed, a description of the nature and effect of the change;**
 - B. **explanatory comments about the seasonality of interim operations;**
 - C. **the nature and amount of items affecting assets, liabilities, equity, net income, or cash flows that are unusual because of their nature, size, or incidence (see paragraphs 12 to 14 of Accounting Standard (AS) 5, Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period Items and Changes in Accounting Policies);**
 - D. **the nature and amount of changes in estimates of amounts reported in prior interim periods of the current financial year or changes in estimates of amounts reported in prior financial years, if those changes have a material effect in the current interim period;**
 - E. **issuances, buy-backs, repayments and restructuring of debt, equity and potential equity shares;**
 - F. **dividends, aggregate or per share (in absolute or percentage terms), separately for equity shares and other shares;**
 - G. **segment revenue, segment capital employed (segment assets minus segment liabilities) and segment result for business segments or geographical segments, whichever is the enterprise's primary basis of segment reporting (disclosure of segment information is required in an enterprise's interim financial report only if the enterprise is required, in terms of AS 17, Segment Reporting, to disclose segment information in its annual financial statements);**
 - H. **material events subsequent to the end of the interim period that have not been reflected in the financial statements for the interim period;**
 - I. **the effect of changes in the composition of the enterprise during the interim period, such as amalgamations, acquisition or disposal of subsidiaries and long-term investments, restructurings, and discontinuing operations; and**

J. material changes in contingent liabilities since the last annual balance sheet date.

The above information should normally be reported on a financial year to date basis. However, the enterprise should also disclose any events or transactions that are material to an understanding of the current interim period.

16. Other Accounting Standards specify disclosures that should be made in financial statements. In that context, financial statements mean complete set of financial statements normally included in an annual financial report and sometimes included in other reports. The disclosures required by those other Accounting Standards are not required if an enterprise's interim financial report includes only condensed financial statements and selected explanatory notes rather than a complete set of financial statements.

Periods for which Interim Financial Statements are required to be presented

17. **Interim reports should include interim financial statements (condensed or complete) for periods as follows:**
- A. balance sheet as of the end of the current interim period and a comparative balance sheet as of the end of the immediately preceding financial year;**
 - B. statements of profit and loss for the current interim period and cumulatively for the current financial year to date, with comparative statements of profit and loss for the comparable interim periods (current and year-to-date) of the immediately preceding financial year;**
 - C. cash flow statement cumulatively for the current financial year to date, with a comparative statement for the comparable year-to-date period of the immediately preceding financial year.**
18. For an enterprise whose business is highly seasonal, financial information for the twelve months ending on the interim reporting date and comparative information for the prior twelve-month period may be useful. Accordingly, enterprises whose business is highly seasonal are encouraged to consider reporting such information in addition to the information called for in the preceding paragraph.

Materiality

19. **In deciding how to recognise, measure, classify, or disclose an item for interim financial reporting purposes, materiality should be assessed in relation to the interim period financial data. In making assessments of materiality, it should be recognised that interim measurements may rely on estimates to a greater extent than measurements of annual financial data.**
20. The Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards states that "The Accounting Standards are intended to apply only to items which are material". The Framework for the Preparation and Presentation of Financial Statements, issued by the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, states that "information is material if its misstatement (i.e., omission or erroneous statement) could influence the economic decisions of users taken on the basis of the financial information".
21. Judgement is always required in assessing materiality for financial reporting purposes. For reasons of understandability of the interim figures, materiality for making recognition and disclosure decision is assessed in relation to the interim period financial data. Thus, for example, unusual or extraordinary items, changes in accounting policies or estimates, and prior period items are

recognised and disclosed based on materiality in relation to interim period data. The overriding objective is to ensure that an interim financial report includes all information that is relevant to understanding an enterprise's financial position and performance during the interim period.

Disclosure in Annual Financial Statements

22. An enterprise may not prepare and present a separate financial report for the final interim period because the annual financial statements are presented. In such a case, paragraph 23 requires certain disclosures to be made in the annual financial statements for that financial year.
23. ***If an estimate of an amount reported in an interim period is changed significantly during the final interim period of the financial year but a separate financial report is not prepared and presented for that final interim period, the nature and amount of that change in estimate should be disclosed in a note to the annual financial statements for that financial year.***
24. Accounting Standard (AS) 5, Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period Items and Changes in Accounting Policies, requires disclosure, in financial statements, of the nature and (if practicable) the amount of a change in an accounting estimate which has a material effect in the current period, or which is expected to have a material effect in subsequent periods. Paragraph 15 D. of this Statement requires similar disclosure in an interim financial report. Examples include changes in estimate in the final interim period relating to inventory write-downs, restructurings, or impairment losses that were reported in an earlier interim period of the financial year. The disclosure required by the preceding paragraph is consistent with AS 5 requirements and is intended to be restricted in scope so as to relate only to the change in estimates. An enterprise is not required to include additional interim period financial information in its annual financial statements.

Recognition and Measurement

Same Accounting Policies as Annual

25. ***An enterprise should apply the same accounting policies in its interim financial statements as are applied in its annual financial statements, except for accounting policy changes made after the date of the most recent annual financial statements that are to be reflected in the next annual financial statements. However, the frequency of an enterprise's reporting (annual, half-yearly, or quarterly) should not affect the measurement of its annual results. To achieve that objective, measurements for interim reporting purposes should be made on a year to date basis.***
26. Requiring that an enterprise apply the same accounting policies in its interim financial statements as in its annual financial statements may seem to suggest that interim period measurements are made as if each interim period stands alone as an independent reporting period. However, by providing that the frequency of an enterprise's reporting should not affect the measurement of its annual results, paragraph 25 acknowledges that an interim period is a part of a financial year. Year to date measurements may involve changes in estimates of amounts reported in prior interim periods of the current financial year. But the principles for recognising assets, liabilities, income, and expenses for interim periods are the same as in annual financial statements.
27. To illustrate:
 - A. the principles for recognising and measuring losses from inventory write-downs, restructurings, or impairments in an interim period are the same

as those that an enterprise would follow if it prepared only annual financial statements. However, if such items are recognised and measured in one interim period and the estimate changes in a subsequent interim period of that financial year, the original estimate is changed in the subsequent interim period either by accrual of an additional amount of loss or by reversal of the previously recognised amount;

- B. a cost that does not meet the definition of an asset at the end of an interim period is not deferred on the balance sheet date either to await future information as to whether it has met the definition of an asset or to smooth earnings over interim periods within a financial year; and
 - C. income tax expense is recognised in each interim period based on the best estimate of the weighted average annual income tax rate expected for the full financial year. Amounts accrued for income tax expense in one interim period may have to be adjusted in a subsequent interim period of that financial year if the estimate of the annual income tax rate changes.
28. Under the Framework for the Preparation and Presentation of Financial Statements, recognition is the “process of incorporating in the balance sheet or statement of profit and loss an item that meets the definition of an element and satisfies the criteria for recognition”. The definitions of assets, liabilities, income, and expenses are fundamental to recognition, both at annual and interim financial reporting dates.
29. For assets, the same tests of future economic benefits apply at interim dates as they apply at the end of an enterprise's financial year. Costs that, by their nature, would not qualify as assets at financial year end would not qualify at interim dates as well. Similarly, a liability at an interim reporting date must represent an existing obligation at that date, just as it must at an annual reporting date.
30. Income is recognised in the statement of profit and loss when an increase in future economic benefits related to an increase in an asset or a decrease of a liability has arisen that can be measured reliably. Expenses are recognised in the statement of profit and loss when a decrease in future economic benefits related to a decrease in an asset or an increase of a liability has arisen that can be measured reliably. The recognition of items in the balance sheet which do not meet the definition of assets or liabilities is not allowed.
31. In measuring assets, liabilities, income, expenses, and cash flows reported in its financial statements, an enterprise that reports only annually is able to take into account information that becomes available throughout the financial year. Its measurements are, in effect, on a year-to-date basis.
32. An enterprise that reports half-yearly, uses information available by mid-year or shortly thereafter in making the measurements in its financial statements for the first six-month period and information available by year-end or shortly thereafter for the twelve-month period. The twelve-month measurements will reflect any changes in estimates of amounts reported for the first six-month period. The amounts reported in the interim financial report for the first six-month period are not retrospectively adjusted. Paragraphs 15 D. and 23 require, however, that the nature and amount of any significant changes in estimates be disclosed.
33. An enterprise that reports more frequently than half-yearly, measures income and expenses on a year-to-date basis for each interim period using information available when each set of financial statements is being prepared. Amounts of income and expenses reported in the current interim period will reflect any changes in estimates of amounts reported in prior interim periods of the financial year. The amounts reported in prior interim periods are not retrospectively adjusted. Paragraphs 15 D. and 23 require, however, that the nature and amount of any significant changes in estimates be disclosed.

Revenues Received Seasonally or Occasionally

- 34. Revenues that are received seasonally or occasionally within a financial year should not be anticipated or deferred as of an interim date if anticipation or deferral would not be appropriate at the end of the enterprise's financial year.**
35. Examples include dividend revenue, royalties, and government grants. Additionally, some enterprises consistently earn more revenues in certain interim periods of a financial year than in other interim periods, for example, seasonal revenues of retailers. Such revenues are recognised when they occur.

Costs Incurred Unevenly During the Financial Year

- 36. Costs that are incurred unevenly during an enterprise's financial year should be anticipated or deferred for interim reporting purposes if, and only if, it is also appropriate to anticipate or defer that type of cost at the end of the financial year.**

Use of Estimates

- 37. The measurement procedures to be followed in an interim financial report should be designed to ensure that the resulting information is reliable and that all material financial information that is relevant to an understanding of the financial position or performance of the enterprise is appropriately disclosed. While measurements in both annual and interim financial reports are often based on reasonable estimates, the preparation of interim financial reports generally will require a greater use of estimation methods than annual financial reports.**

Restatement of Previously Reported Interim Periods

- 38. A change in accounting policy, other than one for which the transition is specified by an Accounting Standard, should be reflected by restating the financial statements of prior interim periods of the current financial year.**
39. One objective of the preceding principle is to ensure that a single accounting policy is applied to a particular class of transactions throughout an entire financial year. The effect of the principle in paragraph 38 is to require that within the current financial year any change in accounting policy be applied retrospectively to the beginning of the financial year.

Transitional Provision

40. On the first occasion that an interim financial report is presented in accordance with this Statement, the following need not be presented in respect of all the interim periods of the current financial year:
- A. comparative statements of profit and loss for the comparable interim periods (current and year-to-date) of the immediately preceding financial year; and
 - B. comparative cash flow statement for the comparable year to date period of the immediately preceding financial year.

Accounting Standard – 26, Intangible Assets (issued in 2002)

*(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in **bold italic** type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)*

Accounting Standard (AS) 26, 'Intangible Assets', issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, comes into effect in respect of expenditure incurred on intangible items during accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2003 and is mandatory in nature from that date for the following:

1. Enterprises whose equity or debt securities are listed on a recognised stock exchange in India, and enterprises that are in the process of issuing equity or debt securities that will be listed on a recognised stock exchange in India as evidenced by the board of directors' resolution in this regard.
2. All other commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises, whose turnover for the accounting period exceeds Rs. 50 crores.

In respect of all other enterprises, the Accounting Standard comes into effect in respect of expenditure incurred on intangible items during accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2004 and is mandatory in nature from that date.

Earlier application of the Accounting Standard is encouraged.

In respect of intangible items appearing in the balance sheet as on the aforesaid date, i.e., 1-4-2003 or 1-4-2004, as the case may be, the Standard has limited application as stated in paragraph 99. From the date of this Standard becoming mandatory for the concerned enterprises, the following stand withdrawn:

1. Accounting Standard (AS) 8, Accounting for Research and Development;
2. Accounting Standard (AS) 6, Depreciation Accounting, with respect to the amortisation (depreciation) of intangible assets; and
3. Accounting Standard (AS) 10, Accounting for Fixed Assets.

The following is the text of the Accounting Standard.

Objective

The objective of this Statement is to prescribe the accounting treatment for intangible assets that are not dealt with specifically in another Accounting Standard. This Statement requires an enterprise to recognise an intangible asset if, and only if, certain criteria are met. The Statement also specifies how to measure the carrying amount of intangible assets and requires certain disclosures about intangible assets.

Scope

1. ***This Statement should be applied by all enterprises in accounting for intangible assets, except:***
 - A. ***intangible assets that are covered by another Accounting Standard;***
 - B. ***financial assets;***

- C. mineral rights and expenditure on the exploration for, or development and extraction of, minerals, oil, natural gas and similar non-regenerative resources; and**
- D. intangible assets arising in insurance enterprises from contracts with policyholders.**

This Statement should not be applied to expenditure in respect of termination benefits also.

- 2. If another Accounting Standard deals with a specific type of intangible asset, an enterprise applies that Accounting Standard instead of this Statement. For example, this Statement does not apply to:
 - A. intangible assets held by an enterprise for sale in the ordinary course of business (see AS 2, Valuation of Inventories, and AS 7, Accounting for Construction Contracts);
 - B. deferred tax assets (see AS 22, Accounting for Taxes on Income);
 - C. leases that fall within the scope of AS 19, Leases; and
 - D. goodwill arising on an amalgamation (see AS 14, Accounting for Amalgamations) and goodwill arising on consolidation (see AS 21, Consolidated Financial Statements).
- 3. This Statement applies to, among other things, expenditure on advertising, training, start-up, research and development activities. Research and development activities are directed to the development of knowledge. Therefore, although these activities may result in an asset with physical substance (for example, a prototype), the physical element of the asset is secondary to its intangible component, that is the knowledge embodied in it. This Statement also applies to rights under licensing agreements for items such as motion picture films, video recordings, plays, manuscripts, patents and copyrights. These items are excluded from the scope of AS 19.
- 4. In the case of a finance lease, the underlying asset may be either tangible or intangible. After initial recognition, a lessee deals with an intangible asset held under a finance lease under this Statement.
- 5. Exclusions from the scope of an Accounting Standard may occur if certain activities or transactions are so specialised that they give rise to accounting issues that may need to be dealt with in a different way. Such issues arise in the expenditure on the exploration for, or development and extraction of, oil, gas and mineral deposits in extractive industries and in the case of contracts between insurance enterprises and their policyholders. Therefore, this Statement does not apply to expenditure on such activities. However, this Statement applies to other intangible assets used (such as computer software), and other expenditure (such as start-up costs), in extractive industries or by insurance enterprises. Accounting issues of specialised nature also arise in respect of accounting for discount or premium relating to borrowings and ancillary costs incurred in connection with the arrangement of borrowings, share issue expenses and discount allowed on the issue of shares. Accordingly, this Statement does not apply to such items also.

Definitions

- 6. ***The following terms are used in this Statement with the meanings specified:***

An intangible asset is an identifiable non-monetary asset, without physical substance, held for use in the production or supply of goods or services, for rental to others, or for administrative purposes.

An asset is a resource:

- A. **controlled by an enterprise as a result of past events; and**
- B. **from which future economic benefits are expected to flow to the enterprise.**

Monetary assets are money held and assets to be received in fixed or determinable amounts of money.

Non-monetary assets are assets other than monetary assets.

Research is original and planned investigation undertaken with the prospect of gaining new scientific or technical knowledge and understanding.

Development is the application of research findings or other knowledge to a plan or design for the production of new or substantially improved materials, devices, products, processes, systems or services prior to the commencement of commercial production or use.

Amortisation is the systematic allocation of the depreciable amount of an intangible asset over its useful life.

Depreciable amount is the cost of an asset less its residual value.

Useful life is either:

- A. **the period of time over which an asset is expected to be used by the enterprise; or**
- B. **the number of production or similar units expected to be obtained from the asset by the enterprise.**

Residual value is the amount which an enterprise expects to obtain for an asset at the end of its useful life after deducting the expected costs of disposal.

Fair value of an asset is the amount for which that asset could be exchanged between knowledgeable, willing parties in an arm's length transaction.

An active market is a market where all the following conditions exist:

- A. **the items traded within the market are homogeneous;**
- B. **willing buyers and sellers can normally be found at any time; and**
- C. **prices are available to the public.**

An impairment loss is the amount by which the carrying amount of an asset exceeds its recoverable amount.

Carrying amount is the amount at which an asset is recognised in the balance sheet, net of any accumulated amortisation and accumulated impairment losses thereon.

Intangible Assets

7. Enterprises frequently expend resources, or incur liabilities, on the acquisition, development, maintenance or enhancement of intangible resources such as scientific or technical knowledge, design and implementation of new processes or systems, licences, intellectual property, market knowledge and trademarks (including brand names and publishing titles). Common examples of items encompassed by these broad headings are computer software, patents,

copyrights, motion picture films, customer lists, mortgage servicing rights, fishing licences, import quotas, franchises, customer or supplier relationships, customer loyalty, market share and marketing rights. Goodwill is another example of an item of intangible nature which either arises on acquisition or is internally generated.

8. Not all the items described in paragraph 7 will meet the definition of an intangible asset, that is, identifiability, control over a resource and expectation of future economic benefits flowing to the enterprise. If an item covered by this Statement does not meet the definition of an intangible asset, expenditure to acquire it or generate it internally is recognised as an expense when it is incurred. However, if the item is acquired in an amalgamation in the nature of purchase, it forms part of the goodwill recognised at the date of the amalgamation (see paragraph 55).
9. Some intangible assets may be contained in or on a physical substance such as a compact disk (in the case of computer software), legal documentation (in the case of a licence or patent) or film (in the case of motion pictures). The cost of the physical substance containing the intangible assets is usually not significant. Accordingly, the physical substance containing an intangible asset, though tangible in nature, is commonly treated as a part of the intangible asset contained in or on it.
10. In some cases, an asset may incorporate both intangible and tangible elements that are, in practice, inseparable. In determining whether such an asset should be treated under AS 10, Accounting for Fixed Assets, or as an intangible asset under this Statement, judgement is required to assess as to which element is predominant. For example, computer software for a computer controlled machine tool that cannot operate without that specific software is an integral part of the related hardware and it is treated as a fixed asset. The same applies to the operating system of a computer. Where the software is not an integral part of the related hardware, computer software is treated as an intangible asset.

Identifiability

11. The definition of an intangible asset requires that an intangible asset be identifiable. To be identifiable, it is necessary that the intangible asset is clearly distinguished from goodwill. Goodwill arising on an amalgamation in the nature of purchase represents a payment made by the acquirer in anticipation of future economic benefits. The future economic benefits may result from synergy between the identifiable assets acquired or from assets which, individually, do not qualify for recognition in the financial statements but for which the acquirer is prepared to make a payment in the amalgamation.
12. An intangible asset can be clearly distinguished from goodwill if the asset is separable. An asset is separable if the enterprise could rent, sell, exchange or distribute the specific future economic benefits attributable to the asset without also disposing of future economic benefits that flow from other assets used in the same revenue earning activity.
13. Separability is not a necessary condition for identifiability since an enterprise may be able to identify an asset in some other way. For example, if an intangible asset is acquired with a group of assets, the transaction may involve the transfer of legal rights that enable an enterprise to identify the intangible asset. Similarly, if an internal project aims to create legal rights for the enterprise, the nature of these rights may assist the enterprise in identifying an underlying internally generated intangible asset. Also, even if an asset generates future economic benefits only in combination with other assets, the asset is identifiable if the enterprise can identify the future economic benefits that will flow from the asset.

Control

14. An enterprise controls an asset if the enterprise has the power to obtain the future economic benefits flowing from the underlying resource and also can restrict the access of others to those benefits. The capacity of an enterprise to control the future economic benefits from an intangible asset would normally stem from legal rights that are enforceable in a court of law. In the absence of legal rights, it is more difficult to demonstrate control. However, legal enforceability of a right is not a necessary condition for control since an enterprise may be able to control the future economic benefits in some other way.
15. Market and technical knowledge may give rise to future economic benefits. An enterprise controls those benefits if, for example, the knowledge is protected by legal rights such as copyrights, a restraint of trade agreement (where permitted) or by a legal duty on employees to maintain confidentiality.
16. An enterprise may have a team of skilled staff and may be able to identify incremental staff skills leading to future economic benefits from training. The enterprise may also expect that the staff will continue to make their skills available to the enterprise. However, usually an enterprise has insufficient control over the expected future economic benefits arising from a team of skilled staff and from training to consider that these items meet the definition of an intangible asset. For a similar reason, specific management or technical talent is unlikely to meet the definition of an intangible asset, unless it is protected by legal rights to use it and to obtain the future economic benefits expected from it, and it also meets the other parts of the definition.
17. An enterprise may have a portfolio of customers or a market share and expect that, due to its efforts in building customer relationships and loyalty, the customers will continue to trade with the enterprise. However, in the absence of legal rights to protect, or other ways to control, the relationships with customers or the loyalty of the customers to the enterprise, the enterprise usually has insufficient control over the economic benefits from customer relationships and loyalty to consider that such items (portfolio of customers, market shares, customer relationships, customer loyalty) meet the definition of intangible assets.

Future Economic Benefits

18. The future economic benefits flowing from an intangible asset may include revenue from the sale of products or services, cost savings, or other benefits resulting from the use of the asset by the enterprise. For example, the use of intellectual property in a production process may reduce future production costs rather than increase future revenues.

Recognition and Initial Measurement of an Intangible Asset

19. The recognition of an item as an intangible asset requires an enterprise to demonstrate that the item meets the:
 - A. definition of an intangible asset (see paragraphs 6-18); and
 - B. recognition criteria set out in this Statement (see paragraphs 20- 54).
20. ***An intangible asset should be recognised if, and only if:***
 - A. ***it is probable that the future economic benefits that are attributable to the asset will flow to the enterprise; and***
 - B. ***the cost of the asset can be measured reliably.***
21. ***An enterprise should assess the probability of future economic benefits using reasonable and supportable assumptions that represent best estimate of the set of economic conditions that will exist over the useful life of the asset.***

22. An enterprise uses judgement to assess the degree of certainty attached to the flow of future economic benefits that are attributable to the use of the asset on the basis of the evidence available at the time of initial recognition, giving greater weight to external evidence.
23. ***An intangible asset should be measured initially at cost.***

Separate Acquisition

24. If an intangible asset is acquired separately, the cost of the intangible asset can usually be measured reliably. This is particularly so when the purchase consideration is in the form of cash or other monetary assets.
25. The cost of an intangible asset comprises its purchase price, including any import duties and other taxes (other than those subsequently recoverable by the enterprise from the taxing authorities), and any directly attributable expenditure on making the asset ready for its intended use. Directly attributable expenditure includes, for example, professional fees for legal services. Any trade discounts and rebates are deducted in arriving at the cost.
26. If an intangible asset is acquired in exchange for shares or other securities of the reporting enterprise, the asset is recorded at its fair value, or the fair value of the securities issued, whichever is more clearly evident.

Acquisition as Part of an Amalgamation

27. An intangible asset acquired in an amalgamation in the nature of purchase is accounted for in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 14, Accounting for Amalgamations. Where in preparing the financial statements of the transferee company, the consideration is allocated to individual identifiable assets and liabilities on the basis of their fair values at the date of amalgamation, paragraphs 28 to 32 of this Statement need to be considered.
28. Judgement is required to determine whether the cost (i.e. fair value) of an intangible asset acquired in an amalgamation can be measured with sufficient reliability for the purpose of separate recognition. Quoted market prices in an active market provide the most reliable measurement of fair value. The appropriate market price is usually the current bid price. If current bid prices are unavailable, the price of the most recent similar transaction may provide a basis from which to estimate fair value, provided that there has not been a significant change in economic circumstances between the transaction date and the date at which the asset's fair value is estimated.
29. If no active market exists for an asset, its cost reflects the amount that the enterprise would have paid, at the date of the acquisition, for the asset in an arm's length transaction between knowledgeable and willing parties, based on the best information available. In determining this amount, an enterprise considers the outcome of recent transactions for similar assets.
30. Certain enterprises that are regularly involved in the purchase and sale of unique intangible assets have developed techniques for estimating their fair values indirectly. These techniques may be used for initial measurement of an intangible asset acquired in an amalgamation in the nature of purchase if their objective is to estimate fair value as defined in this Statement and if they reflect current transactions and practices in the industry to which the asset belongs. These techniques include, where appropriate, applying multiples reflecting current market transactions to certain indicators driving the profitability of the asset (such as revenue, market shares, operating profit, etc.) or discounting estimated future net cash flows from the asset.
31. In accordance with this Statement:
 - A. a transferee recognises an intangible asset that meets the recognition criteria in paragraphs 20 and 21, even if that intangible asset had not been recognised in the financial statements of the transferor; and

- B. if the cost (i.e. fair value) of an intangible asset acquired as part of an amalgamation in the nature of purchase cannot be measured reliably, that asset is not recognised as a separate intangible asset but is included in goodwill (see paragraph 55).
32. Unless there is an active market for an intangible asset acquired in an amalgamation in the nature of purchase, the cost initially recognised for the intangible asset is restricted to an amount that does not create or increase any capital reserve arising at the date of the amalgamation.

Acquisition by way of a Government Grant

33. In some cases, an intangible asset may be acquired free of charge, or for nominal consideration, by way of a government grant. This may occur when a government transfers or allocates to an enterprise intangible assets such as airport landing rights, licences to operate radio or television stations, import licences or quotas or rights to access other restricted resources. AS 12, Accounting for Government Grants, requires that government grants in the form of non-monetary assets, given at a concessional rate should be accounted for on the basis of their acquisition cost. AS 12 also requires that in case a non-monetary asset is given free of cost, it should be recorded at a nominal value. Accordingly, intangible asset acquired free of charge, or for nominal consideration, by way of government grant is recognised at a nominal value or at the acquisition cost, as appropriate; any expenditure that is directly attributable to making the asset ready for its intended use is also included in the cost of the asset.

Exchanges of Assets

34. An intangible asset may be acquired in exchange or part exchange for another asset. In such a case, the cost of the asset acquired is determined in accordance with the principles laid down in this regard in AS 10, Accounting for Fixed Assets.

Internally Generated Goodwill

35. ***Internally generated goodwill should not be recognised as an asset.***
36. In some cases, expenditure is incurred to generate future economic benefits, but it does not result in the creation of an intangible asset that meets the recognition criteria in this Statement. Such expenditure is often described as contributing to internally generated goodwill. Internally generated goodwill is not recognised as an asset because it is not an identifiable resource controlled by the enterprise that can be measured reliably at cost.
37. Differences between the market value of an enterprise and the carrying amount of its identifiable net assets at any point in time may be due to a range of factors that affect the value of the enterprise. However, such differences cannot be considered to represent the cost of intangible assets controlled by the enterprise.

Internally Generated Intangible Assets

38. It is sometimes difficult to assess whether an internally generated intangible asset qualifies for recognition. It is often difficult to:
- A. identify whether, and the point of time when, there is an identifiable asset that will generate probable future economic benefits; and
 - B. determine the cost of the asset reliably. In some cases, the cost of generating an intangible asset internally cannot be distinguished from the cost of maintaining or enhancing the enterprise's internally generated goodwill or of running day-to-day operations.

Therefore, in addition to complying with the general requirements for the recognition and initial measurement of an intangible asset, an enterprise applies the requirements and guidance in paragraphs 39-54 below to all internally generated intangible assets.

39. To assess whether an internally generated intangible asset meets the criteria for recognition, an enterprise classifies the generation of the asset into:

- A. a research phase; and
- B. a development phase.

Although the terms 'research' and 'development' are defined, the terms 'research phase' and 'development phase' have a broader meaning for the purpose of this Statement.

40. If an enterprise cannot distinguish the research phase from the development phase of an internal project to create an intangible asset, the enterprise treats the expenditure on that project as if it were incurred in the research phase only.

Research Phase

41. ***No intangible asset arising from research (or from the research phase of an internal project) should be recognised. Expenditure on research (or on the research phase of an internal project) should be recognised as an expense when it is incurred.***

42. This Statement takes the view that, in the research phase of a project, an enterprise cannot demonstrate that an intangible asset exists from which future economic benefits are probable. Therefore, this expenditure is recognised as an expense when it is incurred.

43. Examples of research activities are:

- A. activities aimed at obtaining new knowledge;
- B. the search for, evaluation and final selection of, applications of research findings or other knowledge;
- C. the search for alternatives for materials, devices, products, processes, systems or services; and
- D. the formulation, design, evaluation and final selection of possible alternatives for new or improved materials, devices, products, processes, systems or services.

Development Phase

44. ***An intangible asset arising from development (or from the development phase of an internal project) should be recognised if, and only if, an enterprise can demonstrate all of the following:***

- A. ***the technical feasibility of completing the intangible asset so that it will be available for use or sale;***
- B. ***its intention to complete the intangible asset and use or sell it;***
- C. ***its ability to use or sell the intangible asset;***
- D. ***how the intangible asset will generate probable future economic benefits. Among other things, the enterprise should demonstrate the existence of a market for the output of the intangible asset or the intangible asset itself or, if it is to be used internally, the usefulness of the intangible asset;***
- E. ***the availability of adequate technical, financial and other resources to complete the development and to use or sell the intangible asset; and***
- F. ***its ability to measure the expenditure attributable to the intangible asset during its development reliably.***

45. In the development phase of a project, an enterprise can, in some instances, identify an intangible asset and demonstrate that future economic benefits from

the asset are probable. This is because the development phase of a project is further advanced than the research phase.

46. Examples of development activities are:
 - A. the design, construction and testing of pre-production or pre-use prototypes and models;
 - B. the design of tools, jigs, moulds and dies involving new technology;
 - C. the design, construction and operation of a pilot plant that is not of a scale economically feasible for commercial production; and
 - D. the design, construction and testing of a chosen alternative for new or improved materials, devices, products, processes, systems or services.
47. To demonstrate how an intangible asset will generate probable future economic benefits, an enterprise assesses the future economic benefits to be received from the asset using the principles in Accounting Standard on Impairment of Assets. If the asset will generate economic benefits only in combination with other assets, the enterprise applies the concept of cash generating units as set out in Accounting Standard on Impairment of Assets.
48. Availability of resources to complete, use and obtain the benefits from an intangible asset can be demonstrated by, for example, a business plan showing the technical, financial and other resources needed and the enterprise's ability to secure those resources. In certain cases, an enterprise demonstrates the availability of external finance by obtaining a lender's indication of its willingness to fund the plan.
49. An enterprise's costing systems can often measure reliably the cost of generating an intangible asset internally, such as salary and other expenditure incurred in securing copyrights or licences or developing computer software.
50. ***Internally generated brands, mastheads, publishing titles, customer lists and items similar in substance should not be recognised as intangible assets.***
51. This Statement takes the view that expenditure on internally generated brands, mastheads, publishing titles, customer lists and items similar in substance cannot be distinguished from the cost of developing the business as a whole. Therefore, such items are not recognised as intangible assets.

Cost of an Internally Generated Intangible Asset

52. The cost of an internally generated intangible asset for the purpose of paragraph 23 is the sum of expenditure incurred from the time when the intangible asset first meets the recognition criteria in paragraphs 20-21 and 44. Paragraph 58 prohibits reinstatement of expenditure recognised as an expense in previous annual financial statements or interim financial reports.
53. The cost of an internally generated intangible asset comprises all expenditure that can be directly attributed, or allocated on a reasonable and consistent basis, to creating, producing and making the asset ready for its intended use. The cost includes, if applicable:
 - A. expenditure on materials and services used or consumed in generating the intangible asset;
 - B. the salaries, wages and other employment related costs of personnel directly engaged in generating the asset;
 - C. any expenditure that is directly attributable to generating the asset, such as fees to register a legal right and the amortisation of patents and licences that are used to generate the asset; and
 - D. overheads that are necessary to generate the asset and that can be allocated on a reasonable and consistent basis to the asset (for example, an allocation of the depreciation of fixed assets, insurance premium and rent). Allocations of overheads are made on bases similar to those used in allocating overheads to inventories (see AS 2, Valuation of Inventories).

AS 16, Borrowing Costs, establishes criteria for the recognition of interest as a component of the cost of a qualifying asset. These criteria are also applied for the recognition of interest as a component of the cost of an internally generated intangible asset.

54. The following are not components of the cost of an internally generated intangible asset:
- A. selling, administrative and other general overhead expenditure unless this expenditure can be directly attributed to making the asset ready for use;
 - B. clearly identified inefficiencies and initial operating losses incurred before an asset achieves planned performance; and
 - C. expenditure on training the staff to operate the asset.

Recognition of an Expense

55. Expenditure on an intangible item should be recognised as an expense when it is incurred unless:

- A. it forms part of the cost of an intangible asset that meets the recognition criteria (see paragraphs 19-54); or**
- B. the item is acquired in an amalgamation in the nature of purchase and cannot be recognised as an intangible asset. If this is the case, this expenditure (included in the cost of acquisition) should form part of the amount attributed to goodwill (capital reserve) at the date of acquisition (see AS 14, Accounting for Amalgamations).**

56. In some cases, expenditure is incurred to provide future economic benefits to an enterprise, but no intangible asset or other asset is acquired or created that can be recognised. In these cases, the expenditure is recognised as an expense when it is incurred. For example, expenditure on research is always recognised as an expense when it is incurred (see paragraph 41). Examples of other expenditure that is recognised as an expense when it is incurred include:

- A. expenditure on start-up activities (start-up costs), unless this expenditure is included in the cost of an item of fixed asset under AS 10. Start-up costs may consist of preliminary expenses incurred in establishing a legal entity such as legal and secretarial costs, expenditure to open a new facility or business (pre-opening costs) or expenditures for commencing new operations or launching new products or processes (pre-operating costs);
- B. expenditure on training activities;
- C. expenditure on advertising and promotional activities; and
- D. expenditure on relocating or re-organising part or all of an enterprise.

57. Paragraph 55 does not apply to payments for the delivery of goods or services made in advance of the delivery of goods or the rendering of services. Such prepayments are recognised as assets.

Past Expenses not to be Recognised as an Asset

58. Expenditure on an intangible item that was initially recognised as an expense by a reporting enterprise in previous annual financial statements or interim financial reports should not be recognised as part of the cost of an intangible asset at a later date.

Subsequent Expenditure

59. Subsequent expenditure on an intangible asset after its purchase or its completion should be recognised as an expense when it is incurred unless:

- A. it is probable that the expenditure will enable the asset to generate future economic benefits in excess of its originally assessed standard of performance; and**
- B. the expenditure can be measured and attributed to the asset reliably.**

If these conditions are met, the subsequent expenditure should be added to the cost of the intangible asset.

- 60. Subsequent expenditure on a recognised intangible asset is recognised as an expense if this expenditure is required to maintain the asset at its originally assessed standard of performance. The nature of intangible assets is such that, in many cases, it is not possible to determine whether subsequent expenditure is likely to enhance or maintain the economic benefits that will flow to the enterprise from those assets. In addition, it is often difficult to attribute such expenditure directly to a particular intangible asset rather than the business as a whole. Therefore, only rarely will expenditure incurred after the initial recognition of a purchased intangible asset or after completion of an internally generated intangible asset result in additions to the cost of the intangible asset.
- 61. Consistent with paragraph 50, subsequent expenditure on brands, mastheads, publishing titles, customer lists and items similar in substance (whether externally purchased or internally generated) is always recognised as an expense to avoid the recognition of internally generated goodwill.

Measurement Subsequent to Initial Recognition

- 62. After initial recognition, an intangible asset should be carried at its cost less any accumulated amortisation and any accumulated impairment losses.**

Amortisation

Amortisation Period

- 63. The depreciable amount of an intangible asset should be allocated on a systematic basis over the best estimate of its useful life. There is a rebuttable presumption that the useful life of an intangible asset will not exceed ten years from the date when the asset is available for use. Amortisation should commence when the asset is available for use.**
- 64. As the future economic benefits embodied in an intangible asset are consumed over time, the carrying amount of the asset is reduced to reflect that consumption. This is achieved by systematic allocation of the cost of the asset, less any residual value, as an expense over the asset's useful life. Amortisation is recognised whether or not there has been an increase in, for example, the asset's fair value or recoverable amount. Many factors need to be considered in determining the useful life of an intangible asset including:
 - A. the expected usage of the asset by the enterprise and whether the asset could be efficiently managed by another management team;
 - B. typical product life cycles for the asset and public information on estimates of useful lives of similar types of assets that are used in a similar way;
 - C. technical, technological or other types of obsolescence;
 - D. the stability of the industry in which the asset operates and changes in the market demand for the products or services output from the asset;
 - E. expected actions by competitors or potential competitors;
 - F. the level of maintenance expenditure required to obtain the expected future economic benefits from the asset and the company's ability and intent to reach such a level;

- G. the period of control over the asset and legal or similar limits on the use of the asset, such as the expiry dates of related leases; and
 - H. whether the useful life of the asset is dependent on the useful life of other assets of the enterprise.
65. Given the history of rapid changes in technology, computer software and many other intangible assets are susceptible to technological obsolescence. Therefore, it is likely that their useful life will be short.
66. Estimates of the useful life of an intangible asset generally become less reliable as the length of the useful life increases. This Statement adopts a presumption that the useful life of intangible assets is unlikely to exceed ten years.
67. In some cases, there may be persuasive evidence that the useful life of an intangible asset will be a specific period longer than ten years. In these cases, the presumption that the useful life generally does not exceed ten years is rebutted and the enterprise:
- A. amortises the intangible asset over the best estimate of its useful life;
 - B. estimates the recoverable amount of the intangible asset at least annually in order to identify any impairment loss (see paragraph 83); and
 - C. discloses the reasons why the presumption is rebutted and the factor(s) that played a significant role in determining the useful life of the asset (see paragraph 94 A.).
68. The useful life of an intangible asset may be very long but it is always finite. Uncertainty justifies estimating the useful life of an intangible asset on a prudent basis, but it does not justify choosing a life that is unrealistically short.
- 69. If control over the future economic benefits from an intangible asset is achieved through legal rights that have been granted for a finite period, the useful life of the intangible asset should not exceed the period of the legal rights unless:**
- A. the legal rights are renewable; and**
 - B. renewal is virtually certain.**
70. There may be both economic and legal factors influencing the useful life of an intangible asset: economic factors determine the period over which future economic benefits will be generated; legal factors may restrict the period over which the enterprise controls access to these benefits. The useful life is the shorter of the periods determined by these factors.
71. The following factors, among others, indicate that renewal of a legal right is virtually certain:
- A. the fair value of the intangible asset is not expected to reduce as the initial expiry date approaches, or is not expected to reduce by more than the cost of renewing the underlying right;
 - B. there is evidence (possibly based on past experience) that the legal rights will be renewed; and
 - C. there is evidence that the conditions necessary to obtain the renewal of the legal right (if any) will be satisfied.

Amortisation Method

- 72. The amortisation method used should reflect the pattern in which the asset's economic benefits are consumed by the enterprise. If that pattern cannot be determined reliably, the straight-line method should be used. The amortisation charge for each period should be recognised as an expense unless another Accounting Standard permits or requires it to be included in the carrying amount of another asset.**
73. A variety of amortisation methods can be used to allocate the depreciable amount of an asset on a systematic basis over its useful life. These methods include the straight-line method, the diminishing balance method and the unit of production method. The method used for an asset is selected based on the

expected pattern of consumption of economic benefits and is consistently applied from period to period, unless there is a change in the expected pattern of consumption of economic benefits to be derived from that asset. There will rarely, if ever, be persuasive evidence to support an amortization method for intangible assets that results in a lower amount of accumulated amortisation than under the straight-line method.

74. Amortisation is usually recognised as an expense. However, sometimes, the economic benefits embodied in an asset are absorbed by the enterprise in producing other assets rather than giving rise to an expense. In these cases, the amortisation charge forms part of the cost of the other asset and is included in its carrying amount. For example, the amortisation of intangible assets used in a production process is included in the carrying amount of inventories (see AS 2, Valuation of Inventories).

Residual Value

75. ***The residual value of an intangible asset should be assumed to be zero unless:***
- A. there is a commitment by a third party to purchase the asset at the end of its useful life; or***
 - B. there is an active market for the asset and:***
 - a. residual value can be determined by reference to that market; and***
 - b. it is probable that such a market will exist at the end of the asset's useful life.***
76. A residual value other than zero implies that an enterprise expects to dispose of the intangible asset before the end of its economic life.
77. The residual value is estimated using prices prevailing at the date of acquisition of the asset, for the sale of a similar asset that has reached the end of its estimated useful life and that has operated under conditions similar to those in which the asset will be used. The residual value is not subsequently increased for changes in prices or value.

Review of Amortisation Period and Amortisation Method

78. ***The amortisation period and the amortisation method should be reviewed at least at each financial year end. If the expected useful life of the asset is significantly different from previous estimates, the amortisation period should be changed accordingly. If there has been a significant change in the expected pattern of economic benefits from the asset, the amortisation method should be changed to reflect the changed pattern. Such changes should be accounted for in accordance with AS 5, Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period Items and Changes in Accounting Policies.***
79. During the life of an intangible asset, it may become apparent that the estimate of its useful life is inappropriate. For example, the useful life may be extended by subsequent expenditure that improves the condition of the asset beyond its originally assessed standard of performance. Also, the recognition of an impairment loss may indicate that the amortisation period needs to be changed.
80. Over time, the pattern of future economic benefits expected to flow to an enterprise from an intangible asset may change. For example, it may become apparent that a diminishing balance method of amortisation is appropriate rather than a straight-line method. Another example is if use of the rights represented by a licence is deferred pending action on other components of the business plan. In this case, economic benefits that flow from the asset may not be received until later periods.

Recoverability of the Carrying Amount— Impairment Losses

81. To determine whether an intangible asset is impaired, an enterprise applies Accounting Standard on Impairment of Assets. That Standard explains how an enterprise reviews the carrying amount of its assets, how it determines the recoverable amount of an asset and when it recognises or reverses an impairment loss.
82. If an impairment loss occurs before the end of the first annual accounting period commencing after acquisition for an intangible asset acquired in an amalgamation in the nature of purchase, the impairment loss is recognised as an adjustment to both the amount assigned to the intangible asset and the goodwill (capital reserve) recognised at the date of the amalgamation. However, if the impairment loss relates to specific events or changes in circumstances occurring after the date of acquisition, the impairment loss is recognised under Accounting Standard on Impairment of Assets and not as an adjustment to the amount assigned to the goodwill (capital reserve) recognised at the date of acquisition.
83. ***In addition to the requirements of Accounting Standard on Impairment of Assets, an enterprise should estimate the recoverable amount of the following intangible assets at least at each financial year end even if there is no indication that the asset is impaired:***
 - A. ***an intangible asset that is not yet available for use; and***
 - B. ***an intangible asset that is amortised over a period exceeding ten years from the date when the asset is available for use.******The recoverable amount should be determined under Accounting Standard on Impairment of Assets and impairment losses recognised accordingly.***
84. The ability of an intangible asset to generate sufficient future economic benefits to recover its cost is usually subject to great uncertainty until the asset is available for use. Therefore, this Statement requires an enterprise to test for impairment, at least annually, the carrying amount of an intangible asset that is not yet available for use.
85. It is sometimes difficult to identify whether an intangible asset may be impaired because, among other things, there is not necessarily any obvious evidence of obsolescence. This difficulty arises particularly if the asset has a long useful life. As a consequence, this Statement requires, as a minimum, an annual calculation of the recoverable amount of an intangible asset if its useful life exceeds ten years from the date when it becomes available for use.
86. The requirement for an annual impairment test of an intangible asset applies whenever the current total estimated useful life of the asset exceeds ten years from when it became available for use. Therefore, if the useful life of an intangible asset was estimated to be less than ten years at initial recognition, but the useful life is extended by subsequent expenditure to exceed ten years from when the asset became available for use, an enterprise performs the impairment test required under paragraph 83 B. and also makes the disclosure required under paragraph 94 A..

Retirements and Disposals

87. ***An intangible asset should be derecognised (eliminated from the balance sheet) on disposal or when no future economic benefits are expected from its use and subsequent disposal.***
88. ***Gains or losses arising from the retirement or disposal of an intangible asset should be determined as the difference between the net disposal proceeds and the carrying amount of the asset and should be recognised as income or expense in the statement of profit and loss.***

89. An intangible asset that is retired from active use and held for disposal is carried at its carrying amount at the date when the asset is retired from active use. At least at each financial year end, an enterprise tests the asset for impairment under Accounting Standard on Impairment of Assets, and recognises any impairment loss accordingly.

Disclosure

General

90. ***The financial statements should disclose the following for each class of intangible assets, distinguishing between internally generated intangible assets and other intangible assets:***
- A. the useful lives or the amortisation rates used;***
 - B. the amortisation methods used;***
 - C. the gross carrying amount and the accumulated amortisation (aggregated with accumulated impairment losses) at the beginning and end of the period;***
 - D. a reconciliation of the carrying amount at the beginning and end of the period showing:***
 - a. additions, indicating separately those from internal development and through amalgamation;***
 - b. retirements and disposals;***
 - c. impairment losses recognised in the statement of profit and loss during the period (if any);***
 - d. impairment losses reversed in the statement of profit and loss during the period (if any);***
 - e. amortisation recognised during the period; and***
 - f. other changes in the carrying amount during the period.***
91. A class of intangible assets is a grouping of assets of a similar nature and use in an enterprise's operations. Examples of separate classes may include:
- A. brand names;
 - B. mastheads and publishing titles;
 - C. computer software;
 - D. licences and franchises;
 - E. copyrights, and patents and other industrial property rights, service and operating rights;
 - F. recipes, formulae, models, designs and prototypes; and
 - G. intangible assets under development.
- The classes mentioned above are disaggregated (aggregated) into smaller (larger) classes if this results in more relevant information for the users of the financial statements.
92. An enterprise discloses information on impaired intangible assets under Accounting Standard on Impairment of Assets in addition to the information required by paragraph 90 D. c. and d..
93. An enterprise discloses the change in an accounting estimate or accounting policy such as that arising from changes in the amortisation method, the amortisation period or estimated residual values, in accordance with AS 5, Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period Items and Changes in Accounting Policies.
94. ***The financial statements should also disclose:***
- A. if an intangible asset is amortised over more than ten years, the reasons why it is presumed that the useful life of an intangible asset will exceed ten years from the date when the asset is available for use. In giving these reasons, the enterprise should***

describe the factor(s) that played a significant role in determining the useful life of the asset;

- B. a description, the carrying amount and remaining amortisation period of any individual intangible asset that is material to the financial statements of the enterprise as a whole;**
- C. the existence and carrying amounts of intangible assets whose title is restricted and the carrying amounts of intangible assets pledged as security for liabilities; and**
- D. the amount of commitments for the acquisition of intangible assets.**

95. When an enterprise describes the factor(s) that played a significant role in determining the useful life of an intangible asset that is amortised over more than ten years, the enterprise considers the list of factors in paragraph 64.

Research and Development Expenditure

96. **The financial statements should disclose the aggregate amount of research and development expenditure recognised as an expense during the period.**

97. Research and development expenditure comprises all expenditure that is directly attributable to research or development activities or that can be allocated on a reasonable and consistent basis to such activities (see paragraphs 53-54 for guidance on the type of expenditure to be included for the purpose of the disclosure requirement in paragraph 96).

Other Information

98. An enterprise is encouraged, but not required, to give a description of any fully amortised intangible asset that is still in use.

Transitional Provisions

99. **Where, on the date of this Statement coming into effect, an enterprise is following an accounting policy of not amortising an intangible item or amortising an intangible item over a period longer than the period determined under paragraph 63 of this Statement and the period determined under paragraph 63 has expired on the date of this Statement coming into effect, the carrying amount appearing in the balance sheet in respect of that item should be eliminated with a corresponding adjustment to the opening balance of revenue reserves. In the event the period determined under paragraph 63 has not expired on the date of this Statement coming into effect and:**

- A. if the enterprise is following an accounting policy of not amortising an intangible item, the carrying amount of the intangible item should be restated, as if the accumulated amortisation had always been determined under this Statement, with the corresponding adjustment to the opening balance of revenue reserves. The restated carrying amount should be amortised over the balance of the period as determined in paragraph 63.**
- B. if the remaining period as per the accounting policy followed by the enterprise:**
 - a. is shorter as compared to the balance of the period determined under paragraph 63, the carrying amount of the intangible item should be amortised over the remaining period as per the accounting policy followed by the enterprise,**

- b. is longer as compared to the balance of the period determined under paragraph 63, the carrying amount of the intangible item should be restated, as if the accumulated amortisation had always been determined under this Statement, with the corresponding adjustment to the opening balance of revenue reserves. The restated carrying amount should be amortised over the balance of the period as determined in paragraph 63.**

Ishan

Accounting Standard – 27,

Financial Reporting of Interests in Joint Ventures

(issued in 2002)

(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in **bold italic** type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)

Accounting Standard (AS) 27, 'Financial Reporting of Interests in Joint Ventures', issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, comes into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 01.04.2002. In respect of separate financial statements of an enterprise, this Standard is mandatory in nature from that date. In respect of consolidated financial statements of an enterprise, this Standard is mandatory in nature where the enterprise prepares and presents the consolidated financial statements in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 01.04.2002. Earlier application of the Accounting Standard is encouraged. The following is the text of the Accounting Standard.

Objective

The objective of this Statement is to set out principles and procedures for accounting for interests in joint ventures and reporting of joint venture assets, liabilities, income and expenses in the financial statements of venturers and investors.

Scope

1. ***This Statement should be applied in accounting for interests in joint ventures and the reporting of joint venture assets, liabilities, income and expenses in the financial statements of venturers and investors, regardless of the structures or forms under which the joint venture activities take place.***
2. The requirements relating to accounting for joint ventures in consolidated financial statements, contained in this Statement, are applicable only where consolidated financial statements are prepared and presented by the venturer.

Definitions

3. ***For the purpose of this Statement, the following terms are used with the meanings specified:***
A joint venture is a contractual arrangement whereby two or more parties undertake an economic activity, which is subject to joint control.

Joint control is the contractually agreed sharing of control over an economic activity.

Control is the power to govern the financial and operating policies of an economic activity so as to obtain benefits from it.

A venturer is a party to a joint venture and has joint control over that joint venture.

An investor in a joint venture is a party to a joint venture and does not have joint control over that joint venture.

Proportionate consolidation is a method of accounting and reporting whereby a venturer's share of each of the assets, liabilities, income and expenses of a jointly controlled entity is reported as separate line items in the venturer's financial statements.

Forms of Joint Venture

4. Joint ventures take many different forms and structures. This Statement identifies three broad types - jointly controlled operations, jointly controlled assets and jointly controlled entities - which are commonly described as, and meet the definition of, joint ventures. The following characteristics are common to all joint ventures:
 - A. two or more venturers are bound by a contractual arrangement; and
 - B. the contractual arrangement establishes joint control.

Contractual Arrangement

5. The existence of a contractual arrangement distinguishes interests which involve joint control from investments in associates in which the investor has significant influence (see Accounting Standard (AS) 23, Accounting for Investments in Associates in Consolidated Financial Statements). Activities which have no contractual arrangement to establish joint control are not joint ventures for the purposes of this Statement.
6. In some exceptional cases, an enterprise by a contractual arrangement establishes joint control over an entity which is a subsidiary of that enterprise within the meaning of Accounting Standard (AS) 21, Consolidated Financial Statements. In such cases, the entity is consolidated under AS 21 by the said enterprise, and is not treated as a joint venture as per this Statement. The consolidation of such an entity does not necessarily preclude other venturer(s) treating such an entity as a joint venture.
7. The contractual arrangement may be evidenced in a number of ways, for example by a contract between the venturers or minutes of discussions between the venturers. In some cases, the arrangement is incorporated in the articles or other by-laws of the joint venture. Whatever its form, the contractual arrangement is normally in writing and deals with such matters as:
 - A. the activity, duration and reporting obligations of the joint venture;
 - B. the appointment of the board of directors or equivalent governing body of the joint venture and the voting rights of the venturers;
 - C. capital contributions by the venturers; and
 - D. the sharing by the venturers of the output, income, expenses or results of the joint venture.
8. The contractual arrangement establishes joint control over the joint venture. Such an arrangement ensures that no single venturer is in a position to unilaterally control the activity. The arrangement identifies those decisions in areas essential to the goals of the joint venture which require the consent of all the venturers and those decisions which may require the consent of a specified majority of the venturers.
9. The contractual arrangement may identify one venturer as the operator or manager of the joint venture. The operator does not control the joint venture but acts within the financial and operating policies which have been agreed to by the venturers in accordance with the contractual arrangement and delegated to the operator.

Jointly Controlled Operations

10. The operation of some joint ventures involves the use of the assets and other resources of the venturers rather than the establishment of a corporation,

partnership or other entity, or a financial structure that is separate from the venturers themselves. Each venturer uses its own fixed assets and carries its own inventories. It also incurs its own expenses and liabilities and raises its own finance, which represent its own obligations. The joint venture's activities may be carried out by the venturer's employees alongside the venturer's similar activities. The joint venture agreement usually provides means by which the revenue from the jointly controlled operations and any expenses incurred in common are shared among the venturers.

11. An example of a jointly controlled operation is when two or more venturers combine their operations, resources and expertise in order to manufacture, market and distribute, jointly, a particular product, such as an aircraft. Different parts of the manufacturing process are carried out by each of the venturers. Each venturer bears its own costs and takes a share of the revenue from the sale of the aircraft, such share being determined in accordance with the contractual arrangement.
12. ***In respect of its interests in jointly controlled operations, a venturer should recognise in its separate financial statements and consequently in its consolidated financial statements:***
 - A. ***the assets that it controls and the liabilities that it incurs; and***
 - B. ***the expenses that it incurs and its share of the income that it earns from the joint venture.***
13. Because the assets, liabilities, income and expenses are already recognised in the separate financial statements of the venturer, and consequently in its consolidated financial statements, no adjustments or other consolidation procedures are required in respect of these items when the venturer presents consolidated financial statements.
14. Separate accounting records may not be required for the joint venture itself and financial statements may not be prepared for the joint venture. However, the venturers may prepare accounts for internal management reporting purposes so that they may assess the performance of the joint venture.

Jointly Controlled Assets

15. Some joint ventures involve the joint control, and often the joint ownership, by the venturers of one or more assets contributed to, or acquired for the purpose of, the joint venture and dedicated to the purposes of the joint venture. The assets are used to obtain economic benefits for the venturers. Each venturer may take a share of the output from the assets and each bears an agreed share of the expenses incurred.
16. These joint ventures do not involve the establishment of a corporation, partnership or other entity, or a financial structure that is separate from the venturers themselves. Each venturer has control over its share of future economic benefits through its share in the jointly controlled asset.
17. An example of a jointly controlled asset is an oil pipeline jointly controlled and operated by a number of oil production companies. Each venturer uses the pipeline to transport its own product in return for which it bears an agreed proportion of the expenses of operating the pipeline. Another example of a jointly controlled asset is when two enterprises jointly control a property, each taking a share of the rents received and bearing a share of the expenses.
18. ***In respect of its interest in jointly controlled assets, a venturer should recognise, in its separate financial statements, and consequently in its consolidated financial statements:***
 - A. ***its share of the jointly controlled assets, classified according to the nature of the assets;***
 - B. ***any liabilities which it has incurred;***

- C. its share of any liabilities incurred jointly with the other venturers in relation to the joint venture;**
 - D. any income from the sale or use of its share of the output of the joint venture, together with its share of any expenses incurred by the joint venture; and**
 - E. any expenses which it has incurred in respect of its interest in the joint venture.**
19. In respect of its interest in jointly controlled assets, each venturer includes in its accounting records and recognises in its separate financial statements and consequently in its consolidated financial statements:
- A. its share of the jointly controlled assets, classified according to the nature of the assets rather than as an investment, for example, a share of a jointly controlled oil pipeline is classified as a fixed asset;
 - B. any liabilities which it has incurred, for example, those incurred in financing its share of the assets;
 - C. its share of any liabilities incurred jointly with other venturers in relation to the joint venture;
 - D. any income from the sale or use of its share of the output of the joint venture, together with its share of any expenses incurred by the joint venture; and
 - E. any expenses which it has incurred in respect of its interest in the joint venture, for example, those related to financing the venturer's interest in the assets and selling its share of the output.
- Because the assets, liabilities, income and expenses are already recognised in the separate financial statements of the venturer, and consequently in its consolidated financial statements, no adjustments or other consolidation procedures are required in respect of these items when the venturer presents consolidated financial statements.
20. The treatment of jointly controlled assets reflects the substance and economic reality and, usually, the legal form of the joint venture. Separate accounting records for the joint venture itself may be limited to those expenses incurred in common by the venturers and ultimately borne by the venturers according to their agreed shares. Financial statements may not be prepared for the joint venture, although the venturers may prepare accounts for internal management reporting purposes so that they may assess the performance of the joint venture.

Jointly Controlled Entities

- 21. A jointly controlled entity is a joint venture which involves the establishment of a corporation, partnership or other entity in which each venturer has an interest. The entity operates in the same way as other enterprises, except that a contractual arrangement between the venturers establishes joint control over the economic activity of the entity.
- 22. A jointly controlled entity controls the assets of the joint venture, incurs liabilities and expenses and earns income. It may enter into contracts in its own name and raise finance for the purposes of the joint venture activity. Each venturer is entitled to a share of the results of the jointly controlled entity, although some jointly controlled entities also involve a sharing of the output of the joint venture.
- 23. An example of a jointly controlled entity is when two enterprises combine their activities in a particular line of business by transferring the relevant assets and liabilities into a jointly controlled entity. Another example is when an enterprise commences a business in a foreign country in conjunction with the government

or other agency in that country, by establishing a separate entity which is jointly controlled by the enterprise and the government or agency.

24. Many jointly controlled entities are similar to those joint ventures referred to as jointly controlled operations or jointly controlled assets. For example, the venturers may transfer a jointly controlled asset, such as an oil pipeline, into a jointly controlled entity. Similarly, the venturers may contribute, into a jointly controlled entity, assets which will be operated jointly. Some jointly controlled operations also involve the establishment of a jointly controlled entity to deal with particular aspects of the activity, for example, the design, marketing, distribution or after-sales service of the product.
25. A jointly controlled entity maintains its own accounting records and prepares and presents financial statements in the same way as other enterprises in conformity with the requirements applicable to that jointly controlled entity.

Separate Financial Statements of a Venturer

26. ***In a venturer's separate financial statements, interest in a jointly controlled entity should be accounted for as an investment in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 13, Accounting for Investments.***
27. Each venturer usually contributes cash or other resources to the jointly controlled entity. These contributions are included in the accounting records of the venturer and are recognised in its separate financial statements as an investment in the jointly controlled entity.

Consolidated Financial Statements of a Venturer

28. ***In its consolidated financial statements, a venturer should report its interest in a jointly controlled entity using proportionate consolidation except***
 - A. ***an interest in a jointly controlled entity which is acquired and held exclusively with a view to its subsequent disposal in the near future; and***
 - B. ***an interest in a jointly controlled entity which operates under severe long-term restrictions that significantly impair its ability to transfer funds to the venturer.******Interest in such a jointly controlled entity should be accounted for as an investment in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 13, Accounting for Investments.***
29. When reporting an interest in a jointly controlled entity in consolidated financial statements, it is essential that a venturer reflects the substance and economic reality of the arrangement, rather than the joint venture's particular structure or form. In a jointly controlled entity, a venturer has control over its share of future economic benefits through its share of the assets and liabilities of the venture. This substance and economic reality is reflected in the consolidated financial statements of the venturer when the venturer reports its interests in the assets, liabilities, income and expenses of the jointly controlled entity by using proportionate consolidation.
30. The application of proportionate consolidation means that the consolidated balance sheet of the venturer includes its share of the assets that it controls jointly and its share of the liabilities for which it is jointly responsible. The consolidated statement of profit and loss of the venturer includes its share of the income and expenses of the jointly controlled entity. Many of the procedures appropriate for the application of proportionate consolidation are similar to the procedures for the consolidation of investments in subsidiaries, which are set out in Accounting Standard (AS) 21, Consolidated Financial Statements.

31. For the purpose of applying proportionate consolidation, the venturer uses the consolidated financial statements of the jointly controlled entity.
32. Under proportionate consolidation, the venturer includes separate line items for its share of the assets, liabilities, income and expenses of the jointly controlled entity in its consolidated financial statements. For example, it shows its share of the inventory of the jointly controlled entity separately as part of the inventory of the consolidated group; it shows its share of the fixed assets of the jointly controlled entity separately as part of the same items of the consolidated group.
33. The financial statements of the jointly controlled entity used in applying proportionate consolidation are usually drawn up to the same date as the financial statements of the venturer. When the reporting dates are different, the jointly controlled entity often prepares, for applying proportionate consolidation, statements as at the same date as that of the venturer. When it is impracticable to do this, financial statements drawn up to different reporting dates may be used provided the difference in reporting dates is not more than six months. In such a case, adjustments are made for the effects of significant transactions or other events that occur between the date of financial statements of the jointly controlled entity and the date of the venturer's financial statements. The consistency principle requires that the length of the reporting periods, and any difference in the reporting dates, are consistent from period to period.
34. The venturer usually prepares consolidated financial statements using uniform accounting policies for the like transactions and events in similar circumstances. In case a jointly controlled entity uses accounting policies other than those adopted for the consolidated financial statements for like transactions and events in similar circumstances, appropriate adjustments are made to the financial statements of the jointly controlled entity when they are used by the venturer in applying proportionate consolidation. If it is not practicable to do so, that fact is disclosed together with the proportions of the items in the consolidated financial statements to which the different accounting policies have been applied.
35. While giving effect to proportionate consolidation, it is inappropriate to offset any assets or liabilities by the deduction of other liabilities or assets or any income or expenses by the deduction of other expenses or income, unless a legal right of set-off exists and the offsetting represents the expectation as to the realisation of the asset or the settlement of the liability.
36. Any excess of the cost to the venturer of its interest in a jointly controlled entity over its share of net assets of the jointly controlled entity, at the date on which interest in the jointly controlled entity is acquired, is recognised as goodwill, and separately disclosed in the consolidated financial statements. When the cost to the venturer of its interest in a jointly controlled entity is less than its share of the net assets of the jointly controlled entity, at the date on which interest in the jointly controlled entity is acquired, the difference is treated as a capital reserve in the consolidated financial statements. Where the carrying amount of the venturer's interest in a jointly controlled entity is different from its cost, the carrying amount is considered for the purpose of above computations.
37. The losses pertaining to one or more investors in a jointly controlled entity may exceed their interests in the equity of the jointly controlled entity. Such excess, and any further losses applicable to such investors, are recognised by the venturers in the proportion of their shares in the venture, except to the extent that the investors have a binding obligation to, and are able to, make good the losses. If the jointly controlled entity subsequently reports profits, all such profits are allocated to venturers until the investors' share of losses previously absorbed by the venturers has been recovered.
38. ***A venturer should discontinue the use of proportionate consolidation from the date that:***

- A. it ceases to have joint control over a jointly controlled entity but retains, either in whole or in part, its interest in the entity; or**
 - B. the use of the proportionate consolidation is no longer appropriate because the jointly controlled entity operates under severe long-term restrictions that significantly impair its ability to transfer funds to the venturer.**
- 39. From the date of discontinuing the use of the proportionate consolidation, interest in a jointly controlled entity should be accounted for:**
 - A. in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 21, Consolidated Financial Statements, if the venturer acquires unilateral control over the entity and becomes parent within the meaning of that Standard; and**
 - B. in all other cases, as an investment in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 13, Accounting for Investments, or in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 23, Accounting for Investments in Associates in Consolidated Financial Statements, as appropriate. For this purpose, cost of the investment should be determined as under:**
 - a. the venturer's share in the net assets of the jointly controlled entity as at the date of discontinuance of proportionate consolidation should be ascertained, and**
 - b. the amount of net assets so ascertained should be adjusted with the carrying amount of the relevant goodwill/capital reserve (see paragraph 37) as at the date of discontinuance of proportionate consolidation.**

Transactions between a Venturer and Joint Venture

- 40. When a venturer contributes or sells assets to a joint venture, recognition of any portion of a gain or loss from the transaction should reflect the substance of the transaction. While the assets are retained by the joint venture, and provided the venturer has transferred the significant risks and rewards of ownership, the venturer should recognise only that portion of the gain or loss which is attributable to the interests of the other venturers. The venturer should recognise the full amount of any loss when the contribution or sale provides evidence of a reduction in the net realisable value of current assets or an impairment loss.**
- 41. When a venturer purchases assets from a joint venture, the venturer should not recognise its share of the profits of the joint venture from the transaction until it resells the assets to an independent party. A venturer should recognise its share of the losses resulting from these transactions in the same way as profits except that losses should be recognised immediately when they represent a reduction in the net realisable value of current assets or an impairment loss.**
- 42. To assess whether a transaction between a venturer and a joint venture provides evidence of impairment of an asset, the venturer determines the recoverable amount of the asset as per Accounting Standard on Impairment of Assets. In determining value in use, future cash flows from the asset are estimated based on continuing use of the asset and its ultimate disposal by the joint venture.**
- 43. In case of transactions between a venturer and a joint venture in the form of a jointly controlled entity, the requirements of paragraphs 41 and 42 should be applied only in the preparation and presentation of**

consolidated financial statements and not in the preparation and presentation of separate financial statements of the venturer.

44. In the separate financial statements of the venturer, the full amount of gain or loss on the transactions taking place between the venturer and the jointly controlled entity is recognised. However, while preparing the consolidated financial statements, the venturer's share of the unrealised gain or loss is eliminated. Unrealised losses are not eliminated, if and to the extent they represent a reduction in the net realisable value of current assets or an impairment loss. The venturer, in effect, recognises, in consolidated financial statements, only that portion of gain or loss which is attributable to the interests of other venturers.

Reporting Interests in Joint Ventures in the Financial Statements of an Investor

45. **An investor in a joint venture, which does not have joint control, should report its interest in a joint venture in its consolidated financial statements in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 13, Accounting for Investments, Accounting Standard (AS) 21, Consolidated Financial Statements or Accounting Standard (AS) 23, Accounting for Investments in Associates in Consolidated Financial Statements, as appropriate.**
46. **In the separate financial statements of an investor, the interests in joint ventures should be accounted for in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 13, Accounting for Investments.**

Operators of Joint Ventures

47. **Operators or managers of a joint venture should account for any fees in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 9, Revenue Recognition.**
48. One or more venturers may act as the operator or manager of a joint venture. Operators are usually paid a management fee for such duties. The fees are accounted for by the joint venture as an expense.

Disclosure

49. **A venturer should disclose the information required by paragraphs 51, 52 and 53 in its separate financial statements as well as in consolidated financial statements.**
50. **A venturer should disclose the aggregate amount of the following contingent liabilities, unless the probability of loss is remote, separately from the amount of other contingent liabilities:**
- A. **any contingent liabilities that the venturer has incurred in relation to its interests in joint ventures and its share in each of the contingent liabilities which have been incurred jointly with other venturers;**
 - B. **its share of the contingent liabilities of the joint ventures themselves for which it is contingently liable; and**
 - C. **those contingent liabilities that arise because the venturer is contingently liable for the liabilities of the other venturers of a joint venture.**
51. **A venturer should disclose the aggregate amount of the following commitments in respect of its interests in joint ventures separately from other commitments:**

- A. any capital commitments of the venturer in relation to its interests in joint ventures and its share in the capital commitments that have been incurred jointly with other venturers; and**
 - B. its share of the capital commitments of the joint ventures themselves.**
- 52. A venturer should disclose a list of all joint ventures and description of interests in significant joint ventures. In respect of jointly controlled entities, the venturer should also disclose the proportion of ownership interest, name and country of incorporation or residence.**
- 53. A venturer should disclose, in its separate financial statements, the aggregate amounts of each of the assets, liabilities, income and expenses related to its interests in the jointly controlled entities.**

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Accounting Standard – 28, Impairment of Assets (issued in 2002)

(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in ***bold italic*** type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in bold italic type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)

Accounting Standard (AS) 28, 'Impairment of Assets', issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, comes into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2004. This Standard is mandatory in nature in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after:

1. 1-4-2004, for the enterprises, which fall in any one or more of the following categories, at any time during the accounting period:
 - a. Enterprises whose equity or debt securities are listed whether in India or outside India.
 - b. Enterprises which are in the process of listing their equity or debt securities as evidenced by the board of directors' resolution in this regard.
 - c. Banks including co-operative banks.
 - d. Financial institutions.
 - e. Enterprises carrying on insurance business.
 - f. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises, whose turnover for the immediately preceding accounting period on the basis of audited financial statements exceeds Rs. 50 crore. Turnover does not include other income.
 - g. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises having borrowings including public deposits, in excess of Rs. 10 crore at any time during the accounting period.
 - h. Holding and subsidiary enterprises of any one of the above at any time during the accounting period.
2. 1-4-2006, for the enterprises which do not fall in any of the categories in 1. above but fall in any one or more of the following categories:
 - a. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises, whose turnover for the immediately preceding accounting period on the basis of audited financial statements exceeds Rs. 40 lakhs but does not exceed Rs. 50 crore. Turnover does not include other income.
 - b. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises having borrowings, including public deposits, in excess Rs. 1 crore but not in excess of Rs. 10 crore at any time during the accounting period.
 - c. Holding and subsidiary enterprises of any one of the above at any time during the accounting period.
3. 1-4-2008, for the enterprises, which do not fall in any of the categories in 1. and 2. above.

Earlier application of the Accounting Standard is encouraged. The following is the text of the Accounting Standard.

Objective

The objective of this Statement is to prescribe the procedures that an enterprise applies to ensure that its assets are carried at no more than their recoverable amount. An asset is carried at more than its recoverable amount if its carrying amount exceeds the amount to be recovered through use or sale of the asset. If this is the case, the

asset is described as impaired and this Statement requires the enterprise to recognise an impairment loss. This Statement also specifies when an enterprise should reverse an impairment loss and it prescribes certain disclosures for impaired assets.

Scope

1. ***This Statement should be applied in accounting for the impairment of all assets, other than:***
 - A. ***inventories (see AS 2, Valuation of Inventories);***
 - B. ***assets arising from construction contracts (see AS 7, Accounting for Construction Contracts);***
 - C. ***financial assets, including investments that are included in the scope of AS 13, Accounting for Investments; and***
 - D. ***deferred tax assets (see AS 22, Accounting for Taxes on Income).***
2. This Statement does not apply to inventories, assets arising from construction contracts, deferred tax assets or investments because existing Accounting Standards applicable to these assets already contain specific requirements for recognising and measuring the impairment related to these assets.
3. This Statement applies to assets that are carried at cost. It also applies to assets that are carried at revalued amounts in accordance with other applicable Accounting Standards. However, identifying whether a revalued asset may be impaired depends on the basis used to determine the fair value of the asset:
 - A. if the fair value of the asset is its market value, the only difference between the fair value of the asset and its net selling price is the direct incremental costs to dispose of the asset:
 - a. if the disposal costs are negligible, the recoverable amount of the revalued asset is necessarily close to, or greater than, its revalued amount (fair value). In this case, after the revaluation requirements have been applied, it is unlikely that the revalued asset is impaired and recoverable amount need not be estimated; and
 - b. if the disposal costs are not negligible, net selling price of the revalued asset is necessarily less than its fair value. Therefore, the revalued asset will be impaired if its value in use is less than its revalued amount (fair value). In this case, after the revaluation requirements have been applied, an enterprise applies this Statement to determine whether the asset may be impaired; and
 - B. if the asset's fair value is determined on a basis other than its market value, its revalued amount (fair value) may be greater or lower than its recoverable amount. Hence, after the revaluation requirements have been applied, an enterprise applies this Statement to determine whether the asset may be impaired.

Definitions

4. ***The following terms are used in this Statement with the meanings specified:***

Recoverable amount is the higher of an asset's net selling price and its value in use.

Value in use is the present value of estimated future cash flows expected to arise from the continuing use of an asset and from its disposal at the end of its useful life.

Net selling price is the amount obtainable from the sale of an asset in an arm's length transaction between knowledgeable, willing parties, less the costs of disposal.

Costs of disposal are incremental costs directly attributable to the disposal of an asset, excluding finance costs and income tax expense.

An impairment loss is the amount by which the carrying amount of an asset exceeds its recoverable amount.

Carrying amount is the amount at which an asset is recognised in the balance sheet after deducting any accumulated depreciation (amortisation) and accumulated impairment losses thereon.

Depreciation (Amortisation) is a systematic allocation of the depreciable amount of an asset over its useful life.

Depreciable amount is the cost of an asset, or other amount substituted for cost in the financial statements, less its residual value.

Useful life is either:

- A. the period of time over which an asset is expected to be used by the enterprise; or**
- B. the number of production or similar units expected to be obtained from the asset by the enterprise.**

A cash generating unit is the smallest identifiable group of assets that generates cash inflows from continuing use that are largely independent of the cash inflows from other assets or groups of assets.

Corporate assets are assets other than goodwill that contribute to the future cash flows of both the cash generating unit under review and other cash generating units.

An active market is a market where all the following conditions exist :

- A. the items traded within the market are homogeneous;**
- B. willing buyers and sellers can normally be found at any time; and**
- C. prices are available to the public.**

Identifying an Asset that may be Impaired

- 5. An asset is impaired when the carrying amount of the asset exceeds its recoverable amount. Paragraphs 6 to 13 specify when recoverable amount should be determined. These requirements use the term 'an asset' but apply equally to an individual asset or a cash-generating unit.
- 6. ***An enterprise should assess at each balance sheet date whether there is any indication that an asset may be impaired. If any such indication exists, the enterprise should estimate the recoverable amount of the asset.***
- 7. Paragraphs 8 to 10 describe some indications that an impairment loss may have occurred: if any of those indications is present, an enterprise is required to make a formal estimate of recoverable amount. If no indication of a potential impairment loss is present, this Statement does not require an enterprise to make a formal estimate of recoverable amount.

8. ***In assessing whether there is any indication that an asset may be impaired, an enterprise should consider, as a minimum, the following indications:***

External sources of information

- A. during the period, an asset's market value has declined significantly more than would be expected as a result of the passage of time or normal use;***
- B. significant changes with an adverse effect on the enterprise have taken place during the period, or will take place in the near future, in the technological, market, economic or legal environment in which the enterprise operates or in the market to which an asset is dedicated;***
- C. market interest rates or other market rates of return on investments have increased during the period, and those increases are likely to affect the discount rate used in calculating an asset's value in use and decrease the asset's recoverable amount materially;***
- D. the carrying amount of the net assets of the reporting enterprise is more than its market capitalisation;***

Internal sources of information

- E. evidence is available of obsolescence or physical damage of an asset;***
- F. significant changes with an adverse effect on the enterprise have taken place during the period, or are expected to take place in the near future, in the extent to which, or manner in which, an asset is used or is expected to be used. These changes include plans to discontinue or restructure the operation to which an asset belongs or to dispose of an asset before the previously expected date; and***
- G. evidence is available from internal reporting that indicates that the economic performance of an asset is, or will be, worse than expected.***

9. The list of paragraph 8 is not exhaustive. An enterprise may identify other indications that an asset may be impaired and these would also require the enterprise to determine the asset's recoverable amount.
10. Evidence from internal reporting that indicates that an asset may be impaired includes the existence of:
- A. cash flows for acquiring the asset, or subsequent cash needs for operating or maintaining it, that are significantly higher than those originally budgeted;
 - B. actual net cash flows or operating profit or loss flowing from the asset that are significantly worse than those budgeted;
 - C. a significant decline in budgeted net cash flows or operating profit, or a significant increase in budgeted loss, flowing from the asset; or
 - D. operating losses or net cash outflows for the asset, when current period figures are aggregated with budgeted figures for the future.
11. The concept of materiality applies in identifying whether the recoverable amount of an asset needs to be estimated. For example, if previous calculations show that an asset's recoverable amount is significantly greater than its carrying amount, the enterprise need not re-estimate the asset's recoverable amount if no events have occurred that would eliminate that difference. Similarly, previous analysis may show that an asset's recoverable amount is not sensitive to one (or more) of the indications listed in paragraph 8.

12. As an illustration of paragraph 11, if market interest rates or other market rates of return on investments have increased during the period, an enterprise is not required to make a formal estimate of an asset's recoverable amount in the following cases:
- A. if the discount rate used in calculating the asset's value in use is unlikely to be affected by the increase in these market rates. For example, increases in short-term interest rates may not have a material effect on the discount rate used for an asset that has a long remaining useful life; or
 - B. if the discount rate used in calculating the asset's value in use is likely to be affected by the increase in these market rates but previous sensitivity analysis of recoverable amount shows that:
 - a. it is unlikely that there will be a material decrease in recoverable amount because future cash flows are also likely to increase. For example, in some cases, an enterprise may be able to demonstrate that it adjusts its revenues to compensate for any increase in market rates; or
 - b. the decrease in recoverable amount is unlikely to result in a material impairment loss.
13. If there is an indication that an asset may be impaired, this may indicate that the remaining useful life, the depreciation (amortisation) method or the residual value for the asset need to be reviewed and adjusted under the Accounting Standard applicable to the asset, such as Accounting Standard (AS) 6, Depreciation Accounting, even if no impairment loss is recognised for the asset.

Measurement of Recoverable Amount

14. This Statement defines recoverable amount as the higher of an asset's net selling price and value in use. Paragraphs 15 to 55 set out the requirements for measuring recoverable amount. These requirements use the term 'an asset' but apply equally to an individual asset or a cash-generating unit.
15. It is not always necessary to determine both an asset's net selling price and its value in use. For example, if either of these amounts exceeds the asset's carrying amount, the asset is not impaired and it is not necessary to estimate the other amount.
16. It may be possible to determine net selling price, even if an asset is not traded in an active market. However, sometimes it will not be possible to determine net selling price because there is no basis for making a reliable estimate of the amount obtainable from the sale of the asset in an arm's length transaction between knowledgeable and willing parties. In this case, the recoverable amount of the asset may be taken to be its value in use.
17. If there is no reason to believe that an asset's value in use materially exceeds its net selling price, the asset's recoverable amount may be taken to be its net selling price. This will often be the case for an asset that is held for disposal. This is because the value in use of an asset held for disposal will consist mainly of the net disposal proceeds, since the future cash flows from continuing use of the asset until its disposal are likely to be negligible.
18. Recoverable amount is determined for an individual asset, unless the asset does not generate cash inflows from continuing use that are largely independent of those from other assets or groups of assets. If this is the case, recoverable amount is determined for the cash-generating unit to which the asset belongs (see paragraphs 63 to 85), unless either:
- A. the asset's net selling price is higher than its carrying amount; or
 - B. the asset's value in use can be estimated to be close to its net selling price and net selling price can be determined.

19. In some cases, estimates, averages and simplified computations may provide a reasonable approximation of the detailed computations illustrated in this Statement for determining net selling price or value in use.

Net Selling Price

20. The best evidence of an asset's net selling price is a price in a binding sale agreement in an arm's length transaction, adjusted for incremental costs that would be directly attributable to the disposal of the asset.
21. If there is no binding sale agreement but an asset is traded in an active market, net selling price is the asset's market price less the costs of disposal. The appropriate market price is usually the current bid price. When current bid prices are unavailable, the price of the most recent transaction may provide a basis from which to estimate net selling price, provided that there has not been a significant change in economic circumstances between the transaction date and the date at which the estimate is made.
22. If there is no binding sale agreement or active market for an asset, net selling price is based on the best information available to reflect the amount that an enterprise could obtain, at the balance sheet date, for the disposal of the asset in an arm's length transaction between knowledgeable, willing parties, after deducting the costs of disposal. In determining this amount, an enterprise considers the outcome of recent transactions for similar assets within the same industry. Net selling price does not reflect a forced sale, unless management is compelled to sell immediately.
23. Costs of disposal, other than those that have already been recognised as liabilities, are deducted in determining net selling price. Examples of such costs are legal costs, costs of removing the asset, and direct incremental costs to bring an asset into condition for its sale. However, termination benefits and costs associated with reducing or reorganising a business following the disposal of an asset are not direct incremental costs to dispose of the asset.
24. Sometimes, the disposal of an asset would require the buyer to take over a liability and only a single net selling price is available for both the asset and the liability. Paragraph 76 explains how to deal with such cases.

Value in Use

25. Estimating the value in use of an asset involves the following steps:
- A. estimating the future cash inflows and outflows arising from continuing use of the asset and from its ultimate disposal; and
 - B. applying the appropriate discount rate to these future cash flows.

Basis for Estimates of Future Cash Flows

26. *In measuring value in use:*

- A. *cash flow projections should be based on reasonable and supportable assumptions that represent management's best estimate of the set of economic conditions that will exist over the remaining useful life of the asset. Greater weight should be given to external evidence;***
- B. *cash flow projections should be based on the most recent financial budgets/forecasts that have been approved by management. Projections based on these budgets/forecasts should cover a maximum period of five years, unless a longer period can be justified; and***
- C. *cash flow projections beyond the period covered by the most recent budgets/forecasts should be estimated by extrapolating the projections based on the budgets/forecasts using a steady or***

declining growth rate for subsequent years, unless an increasing rate can be justified. This growth rate should not exceed the long-term average growth rate for the products, industries, or country or countries in which the enterprise operates, or for the market in which the asset is used, unless a higher rate can be justified.

27. Detailed, explicit and reliable financial budgets/ forecasts of future cash flows for periods longer than five years are generally not available. For this reason, management's estimates of future cash flows are based on the most recent budgets/ forecasts for a maximum of five years. Management may use cash flow projections based on financial budgets/ forecasts over a period longer than five years if management is confident that these projections are reliable and it can demonstrate its ability, based on past experience, to forecast cash flows accurately over that longer period.
28. Cash flow projections until the end of an asset's useful life are estimated by extrapolating the cash flow projections based on the financial budgets/ forecasts using a growth rate for subsequent years. This rate is steady or declining, unless an increase in the rate matches objective information about patterns over a product or industry lifecycle. If appropriate, the growth rate is zero or negative.
29. Where conditions are very favourable, competitors are likely to enter the market and restrict growth. Therefore, enterprises will have difficulty in exceeding the average historical growth rate over the long term (say, twenty years) for the products, industries, or country or countries in which the enterprise operates, or for the market in which the asset is used.
30. In using information from financial budgets/ forecasts, an enterprise considers whether the information reflects reasonable and supportable assumptions and represents management's best estimate of the set of economic conditions that will exist over the remaining useful life of the asset.

Composition of Estimates of Future Cash Flows

31. Estimates of future cash flows should include:

- A. **projections of cash inflows from the continuing use of the asset;**
 - B. **projections of cash outflows that are necessarily incurred to generate the cash inflows from continuing use of the asset (including cash outflows to prepare the asset for use) and that can be directly attributed, or allocated on a reasonable and consistent basis, to the asset; and**
 - C. **net cash flows, if any, to be received (or paid) for the disposal of the asset at the end of its useful life.**
32. Estimates of future cash flows and the discount rate reflect consistent assumptions about price increases due to general inflation. Therefore, if the discount rate includes the effect of price increases due to general inflation, future cash flows are estimated in nominal terms. If the discount rate excludes the effect of price increases due to general inflation, future cash flows are estimated in real terms but include future specific price increases or decreases.
 33. Projections of cash outflows include future overheads that can be attributed directly, or allocated on a reasonable and consistent basis, to the use of the asset.
 34. When the carrying amount of an asset does not yet include all the cash outflows to be incurred before it is ready for use or sale, the estimate of future cash outflows includes an estimate of any further cash outflow that is expected to be incurred before the asset is ready for use or sale. For example, this is the case for a building under construction or for a development project that is not yet completed.
 35. To avoid double counting, estimates of future cash flows do not include:

- A. cash inflows from assets that generate cash inflows from continuing use that are largely independent of the cash inflows from the asset under review (for example, financial assets such as receivables); and
 - B. cash outflows that relate to obligations that have already been recognised as liabilities (for example, payables, pensions or provisions).
- 36. Future cash flows should be estimated for the asset in its current condition. Estimates of future cash flows should not include estimated future cash inflows or outflows that are expected to arise from:**
- A. a future restructuring to which an enterprise is not yet committed; or**
 - B. future capital expenditure that will improve or enhance the asset in excess of its originally assessed standard of performance.**
37. Because future cash flows are estimated for the asset in its current condition, value in use does not reflect:
- A. future cash outflows or related cost savings (for example, reductions in staff costs) or benefits that are expected to arise from a future restructuring to which an enterprise is not yet committed; or
 - B. future capital expenditure that will improve or enhance the asset in excess of its originally assessed standard of performance or the related future benefits from this future expenditure.
38. A restructuring is a programme that is planned and controlled by management and that materially changes either the scope of the business undertaken by an enterprise or the manner in which the business is conducted.
39. When an enterprise becomes committed to a restructuring, some assets are likely to be affected by this restructuring. Once the enterprise is committed to the restructuring, in determining value in use, estimates of future cash inflows and cash outflows reflect the cost savings and other benefits from the restructuring (based on the most recent financial budgets/forecasts that have been approved by management).
40. Until an enterprise incurs capital expenditure that improves or enhances an asset in excess of its originally assessed standard of performance, estimates of future cash flows do not include the estimated future cash inflows that are expected to arise from this expenditure.
41. Estimates of future cash flows include future capital expenditure necessary to maintain or sustain an asset at its originally assessed standard of performance.
- 42. Estimates of future cash flows should not include:**
- A. cash inflows or outflows from financing activities; or**
 - B. income tax receipts or payments.**
43. Estimated future cash flows reflect assumptions that are consistent with the way the discount rate is determined. Otherwise, the effect of some assumptions will be counted twice or ignored. Because the time value of money is considered by discounting the estimated future cash flows, these cash flows exclude cash inflows or outflows from financing activities. Similarly, since the discount rate is determined on a pre-tax basis, future cash flows are also estimated on a pre-tax basis.
- 44. The estimate of net cash flows to be received (or paid) for the disposal of an asset at the end of its useful life should be the amount that an enterprise expects to obtain from the disposal of the asset in an arm's length transaction between knowledgeable, willing parties, after deducting the estimated costs of disposal.**
45. The estimate of net cash flows to be received (or paid) for the disposal of an asset at the end of its useful life is determined in a similar way to an asset's net selling price, except that, in estimating those net cash flows:
- A. an enterprise uses prices prevailing at the date of the estimate for similar assets that have reached the end of their useful life and that have

operated under conditions similar to those in which the asset will be used; and

- B. those prices are adjusted for the effect of both future price increases due to general inflation and specific future price increases (decreases). However, if estimates of future cash flows from the asset's continuing use and the discount rate exclude the effect of general inflation, this effect is also excluded from the estimate of net cash flows on disposal.

Foreign Currency Future Cash Flows

- 46. Future cash flows are estimated in the currency in which they will be generated and then discounted using a discount rate appropriate for that currency. An enterprise translates the present value obtained using the exchange rate at the balance sheet date (described in Accounting Standard (AS) 11, Accounting for the Effects of Changes in Foreign Exchange Rates, as the closing rate).

Discount Rate

- 47. ***The discount rate(s) should be a pre tax rate(s) that reflect(s) current market assessments of the time value of money and the risks specific to the asset. The discount rate(s) should not reflect risks for which future cash flow estimates have been adjusted.***
- 48. A rate that reflects current market assessments of the time value of money and the risks specific to the asset is the return that investors would require if they were to choose an investment that would generate cash flows of amounts, timing and risk profile equivalent to those that the enterprise expects to derive from the asset. This rate is estimated from the rate implicit in current market transactions for similar assets or from the weighted average cost of capital of a listed enterprise that has a single asset (or a portfolio of assets) similar in terms of service potential and risks to the asset under review.
- 49. When an asset-specific rate is not directly available from the market, an enterprise uses other bases to estimate the discount rate. The purpose is to estimate, as far as possible, a market assessment of:
 - A. the time value of money for the periods until the end of the asset's useful life; and
 - B. the risks that the future cash flows will differ in amount or timing from estimates.
- 50. As a starting point, the enterprise may take into account the following rates:
 - A. the enterprise's weighted average cost of capital determined using techniques such as the Capital Asset Pricing Model;
 - B. the enterprise's incremental borrowing rate; and
 - C. other market borrowing rates.
- 51. These rates are adjusted:
 - A. to reflect the way that the market would assess the specific risks associated with the projected cash flows; and
 - B. to exclude risks that are not relevant to the projected cash flows. Consideration is given to risks such as country risk, currency risk, price risk and cash flow risk.
- 52. To avoid double counting, the discount rate does not reflect risks for which future cash flow estimates have been adjusted.
- 53. The discount rate is independent of the enterprise's capital structure and the way the enterprise financed the purchase of the asset because the future cash flows expected to arise from an asset do not depend on the way in which the enterprise financed the purchase of the asset.
- 54. When the basis for the rate is post-tax, that basis is adjusted to reflect a pre-tax rate.

55. An enterprise normally uses a single discount rate for the estimate of an asset's value in use. However, an enterprise uses separate discount rates for different future periods where value in use is sensitive to a difference in risks for different periods or to the term structure of interest rates.

Recognition and Measurement of an Impairment Loss

56. Paragraphs 57 to 62 set out the requirements for recognising and measuring impairment losses for an individual asset. Recognition and measurement of impairment losses for a cash-generating unit are dealt with in paragraphs 86 to 91.
57. ***If the recoverable amount of an asset is less than its carrying amount, the carrying amount of the asset should be reduced to its recoverable amount. That reduction is an impairment loss.***
58. ***An impairment loss should be recognised as an expense in the statement of profit and loss immediately, unless the asset is carried at revalued amount in accordance with another Accounting Standard (see Accounting Standard (AS) 10, Accounting for Fixed Assets), in which case any impairment loss of a revalued asset should be treated as a revaluation decrease under that Accounting Standard.***
59. An impairment loss on a revalued asset is recognised as an expense in the statement of profit and loss. However, an impairment loss on a revalued asset is recognised directly against any revaluation surplus for the asset to the extent that the impairment loss does not exceed the amount held in the revaluation surplus for that same asset.
60. ***When the amount estimated for an impairment loss is greater than the carrying amount of the asset to which it relates, an enterprise should recognise a liability if, and only if, that is required by another Accounting Standard.***
61. ***After the recognition of an impairment loss, the depreciation (amortisation) charge for the asset should be adjusted in future periods to allocate the asset's revised carrying amount, less its residual value (if any), on a systematic basis over its remaining useful life.***
62. If an impairment loss is recognised, any related deferred tax assets or liabilities are determined under Accounting Standard (AS) 22, Accounting for Taxes on Income.

Cash-Generating Units

63. Paragraphs 64 to 91 set out the requirements for identifying the cash generating unit to which an asset belongs and determining the carrying amount of, and recognising impairment losses for, cash-generating units.

Identification of the Cash-Generating Unit to Which an Asset Belongs

64. ***If there is any indication that an asset may be impaired, the recoverable amount should be estimated for the individual asset. If it is not possible to estimate the recoverable amount of the individual asset, an enterprise should determine the recoverable amount of the cash-generating unit to which the asset belongs (the asset's cash-generating unit).***
65. The recoverable amount of an individual asset cannot be determined if:
- the asset's value in use cannot be estimated to be close to its net selling price (for example, when the future cash flows from continuing use of the asset cannot be estimated to be negligible); and
 - the asset does not generate cash inflows from continuing use that are largely independent of those from other assets. In such cases, value in

use and, therefore, recoverable amount, can be determined only for the asset's cash-generating unit.

66. As defined in paragraph 4, an asset's cash-generating unit is the smallest group of assets that includes the asset and that generates cash inflows from continuing use that are largely independent of the cash inflows from other assets or groups of assets. Identification of an asset's cash-generating unit involves judgement. If recoverable amount cannot be determined for an individual asset, an enterprise identifies the lowest aggregation of assets that generate largely independent cash inflows from continuing use.
67. Cash inflows from continuing use are inflows of cash and cash equivalents received from parties outside the reporting enterprise. In identifying whether cash inflows from an asset (or group of assets) are largely independent of the cash inflows from other assets (or groups of assets), an enterprise considers various factors including how management monitors the enterprise's operations (such as by product lines, businesses, individual locations, districts or regional areas or in some other way) or how management makes decisions about continuing or disposing of the enterprise's assets and operations.
68. ***If an active market exists for the output produced by an asset or a group of assets, this asset or group of assets should be identified as a separate cash-generating unit, even if some or all of the output is used internally. If this is the case, management's best estimate of future market prices for the output should be used:***
 - A. ***in determining the value in use of this cash-generating unit, when estimating the future cash inflows that relate to the internal use of the output; and***
 - B. ***in determining the value in use of other cash-generating units of the reporting enterprise, when estimating the future cash outflows that relate to the internal use of the output.***
69. Even if part or all of the output produced by an asset or a group of assets is used by other units of the reporting enterprise (for example, products at an intermediate stage of a production process), this asset or group of assets forms a separate cash-generating unit if the enterprise could sell this output in an active market. This is because this asset or group of assets could generate cash inflows from continuing use that would be largely independent of the cash inflows from other assets or groups of assets. In using information based on financial budgets/forecasts that relates to such a cash-generating unit, an enterprise adjusts this information if internal transfer prices do not reflect management's best estimate of future market prices for the cash-generating unit's output.
70. ***Cash-generating units should be identified consistently from period to period for the same asset or types of assets, unless a change is justified.***
71. If an enterprise determines that an asset belongs to a different cash generating unit than in previous periods, or that the types of assets aggregated for the asset's cash-generating unit have changed, paragraph 120 requires certain disclosures about the cash-generating unit, if an impairment loss is recognised or reversed for the cash generating unit and is material to the financial statements of the reporting enterprise as a whole.

Recoverable Amount and Carrying Amount of a Cash- Generating Unit

72. The recoverable amount of a cash-generating unit is the higher of the cash-generating unit's net selling price and value in use. For the purpose of determining the recoverable amount of a cash-generating unit, any reference in paragraphs 15 to 55 to 'an asset' is read as a reference to 'a cash generating unit'.

73. The carrying amount of a cash-generating unit should be determined consistently with the way the recoverable amount of the cash-generating unit is determined.

74. The carrying amount of a cash-generating unit:

- A. includes the carrying amount of only those assets that can be attributed directly, or allocated on a reasonable and consistent basis, to the cash-generating unit and that will generate the future cash inflows estimated in determining the cash-generating unit's value in use; and
- B. does not include the carrying amount of any recognised liability, unless the recoverable amount of the cash-generating unit cannot be determined without consideration of this liability.

This is because net selling price and value in use of a cash-generating unit are determined excluding cash flows that relate to assets that are not part of the cash-generating unit and liabilities that have already been recognised in the financial statements, as set out in paragraphs 23 and 35.

75. Where assets are grouped for recoverability assessments, it is important to include in the cash-generating unit all assets that generate the relevant stream of cash inflows from continuing use. Otherwise, the cash-generating unit may appear to be fully recoverable when in fact an impairment loss has occurred. In some cases, although certain assets contribute to the estimated future cash flows of a cash-generating unit, they cannot be allocated to the cash-generating unit on a reasonable and consistent basis. This might be the case for goodwill or corporate assets such as head office assets. Paragraphs 78 to 85 explain how to deal with these assets in testing a cash-generating unit for impairment.

76. It may be necessary to consider certain recognised liabilities in order to determine the recoverable amount of a cash-generating unit. This may occur if the disposal of a cash-generating unit would require the buyer to take over a liability. In this case, the net selling price (or the estimated cash flow from ultimate disposal) of the cash-generating unit is the estimated selling price for the assets of the cash-generating unit and the liability together, less the costs of disposal. In order to perform a meaningful comparison between the carrying amount of the cash generating unit and its recoverable amount, the carrying amount of the liability is deducted in determining both the cash generating unit's value in use and its carrying amount.

77. For practical reasons, the recoverable amount of a cash generating unit is sometimes determined after consideration of assets that are not part of the cash-generating unit (for example, receivables or other financial assets) or liabilities that have already been recognised in the financial statements (for example, payables, pensions and other provisions). In such cases, the carrying amount of the cash-generating unit is increased by the carrying amount of those assets and decreased by the carrying amount of those liabilities.

Goodwill

78. In testing a cash-generating unit for impairment, an enterprise should identify whether goodwill that relates to this cash generating unit is recognised in the financial statements. If this is the case, an enterprise should:

- A. **perform a 'bottom-up' test, that is, the enterprise should:**
 - a. **identify whether the carrying amount of goodwill can be allocated on a reasonable and consistent basis to the cash-generating unit under review; and**
 - b. **then, compare the recoverable amount of the cash generating unit under review to its carrying amount (including the carrying amount of allocated goodwill, if any)**

and recognise any impairment loss in accordance with paragraph 86.

The enterprise should perform the step at b. above even if none of the carrying amount of goodwill can be allocated on a reasonable and consistent basis to the cash-generating unit under review; and

B. if, in performing the 'bottom-up' test, the enterprise could not allocate the carrying amount of goodwill on a reasonable and consistent basis to the cash-generating unit under review, the enterprise should also perform a 'top-down' test, that is, the enterprise should:

a. identify the smallest cash-generating unit that includes the cash-generating unit under review and to which the carrying amount of goodwill can be allocated on a reasonable and consistent basis (the larger 'cash generating unit'); and

b. then, compare the recoverable amount of the larger cash generating unit to its carrying amount (including the carrying amount of allocated goodwill) and recognise any impairment loss in accordance with paragraph 86.

79. Goodwill arising on acquisition represents a payment made by an acquirer in anticipation of future economic benefits. The future economic benefits may result from synergy between the identifiable assets acquired or from assets that individually do not qualify for recognition in the financial statements. Goodwill does not generate cash flows independently from other assets or groups of assets and, therefore, the recoverable amount of goodwill as an individual asset cannot be determined. As a consequence, if there is an indication that goodwill may be impaired, recoverable amount is determined for the cash-generating unit to which goodwill belongs. This amount is then compared to the carrying amount of this cash-generating unit and any impairment loss is recognised in accordance with paragraph 86.
80. Whenever a cash-generating unit is tested for impairment, an enterprise considers any goodwill that is associated with the future cash flows to be generated by the cash-generating unit. If goodwill can be allocated on a reasonable and consistent basis, an enterprise applies the 'bottom-up' test only. If it is not possible to allocate goodwill on a reasonable and consistent basis, an enterprise applies both the 'bottom-up' test and 'top-down' test.
81. The 'bottom-up' test ensures that an enterprise recognises any impairment loss that exists for a cash-generating unit, including for goodwill that can be allocated on a reasonable and consistent basis. Whenever it is impracticable to allocate goodwill on a reasonable and consistent basis in the 'bottom-up' test, the combination of the 'bottom-up' and the 'top-down' test ensures that an enterprise recognises:
 - A. first, any impairment loss that exists for the cash-generating unit excluding any consideration of goodwill; and
 - B. then, any impairment loss that exists for goodwill. Because an enterprise applies the 'bottom-up' test first to all assets that may be impaired, any impairment loss identified for the larger cash generating unit in the 'top-down' test relates only to goodwill allocated to the larger unit.
82. If the 'top-down' test is applied, an enterprise formally determines the recoverable amount of the larger cash-generating unit, unless there is persuasive evidence that there is no risk that the larger cash-generating unit is impaired.

Corporate Assets

83. Corporate assets include group or divisional assets such as the building of a headquarters or a division of the enterprise, EDP equipment or a research

centre. The structure of an enterprise determines whether an asset meets the definition of corporate assets (see paragraph 4) for a particular cash-generating unit. Key characteristics of corporate assets are that they do not generate cash inflows independently from other assets or groups of assets and their carrying amount cannot be fully attributed to the cash generating unit under review.

84. Because corporate assets do not generate separate cash inflows, the recoverable amount of an individual corporate asset cannot be determined unless management has decided to dispose of the asset. As a consequence, if there is an indication that a corporate asset may be impaired, recoverable amount is determined for the cash generating unit to which the corporate asset belongs, compared to the carrying amount of this cash-generating unit and any impairment loss is recognised in accordance with paragraph 86.
- 85. In testing a cash-generating unit for impairment, an enterprise should identify all the corporate assets that relate to the cash-generating unit under review. For each identified corporate asset, an enterprise should then apply paragraph 78, that is:**
- A. if the carrying amount of the corporate asset can be allocated on a reasonable and consistent basis to the cash generating unit under review, an enterprise should apply the 'bottom-up' test only; and**
 - B. if the carrying amount of the corporate asset cannot be allocated on a reasonable and consistent basis to the cash generating unit under review, an enterprise should apply both the 'bottom-up' and 'top-down' tests.**

Impairment Loss for a Cash-Generating Unit

- 86. An impairment loss should be recognised for a cash-generating unit if, and only if, its recoverable amount is less than its carrying amount. The impairment loss should be allocated to reduce the carrying amount of the assets of the unit in the following order:**
- A. first, to goodwill allocated to the cash-generating unit (if any); and**
 - B. then, to the other assets of the unit on a pro-rata basis based on the carrying amount of each asset in the unit.**
- These reductions in carrying amounts should be treated as impairment losses on individual assets and recognised in accordance with paragraph 58.**
- 87. In allocating an impairment loss under paragraph 86, the carrying amount of an asset should not be reduced below the highest of:**
- A. its net selling price (if determinable);**
 - B. its value in use (if determinable); and**
 - C. zero.**
- The amount of the impairment loss that would otherwise have been allocated to the asset should be allocated to the other assets of the unit on a pro-rata basis.**
88. The goodwill allocated to a cash-generating unit is reduced before reducing the carrying amount of the other assets of the unit because of its nature.
89. If there is no practical way to estimate the recoverable amount of each individual asset of a cash-generating unit, this Statement requires the allocation of the impairment loss between the assets of that unit other than goodwill on a pro-rata basis, because all assets of a cash-generating unit work together.
90. If the recoverable amount of an individual asset cannot be determined (see paragraph 65):
- A. an impairment loss is recognised for the asset if its carrying amount is greater than the higher of its net selling price and the results of the allocation procedures described in paragraphs 86 and 87; and

- B. no impairment loss is recognised for the asset if the related cash generating unit is not impaired. This applies even if the asset's net selling price is less than its carrying amount.
- 91. After the requirements in paragraphs 86 and 87 have been applied, a liability should be recognised for any remaining amount of an impairment loss for a cash-generating unit if that is required by another Accounting Standard.**

Reversal of an Impairment Loss

92. Paragraphs 93 to 99 set out the requirements for reversing an impairment loss recognised for an asset or a cash-generating unit in prior accounting periods. These requirements use the term 'an asset' but apply equally to an individual asset or a cash-generating unit. Additional requirements are set out for an individual asset in paragraphs 100 to 104, for a cash generating unit in paragraphs 105 and 106 and for goodwill in paragraphs 107 to 110.
- 93. An enterprise should assess at each balance sheet date whether there is any indication that an impairment loss recognised for an asset in prior accounting periods may no longer exist or may have decreased. If any such indication exists, the enterprise should estimate the recoverable amount of that asset.**
- 94. In assessing whether there is any indication that an impairment loss recognised for an asset in prior accounting periods may no longer exist or may have decreased, an enterprise should consider, as a minimum, the following indications:**

External sources of information

- A. the asset's market value has increased significantly during the period;
- B. significant changes with a favourable effect on the enterprise have taken place during the period, or will take place in the near future, in the technological, market, economic or legal environment in which the enterprise operates or in the market to which the asset is dedicated;
- C. market interest rates or other market rates of return on investments have decreased during the period, and those decreases are likely to affect the discount rate used in calculating the asset's value in use and increase the asset's recoverable amount materially;

Internal sources of information

- D. significant changes with a favourable effect on the enterprise have taken place during the period, or are expected to take place in the near future, in the extent to which, or manner in which, the asset is used or is expected to be used. These changes include capital expenditure that has been incurred during the period to improve or enhance an asset in excess of its originally assessed standard of performance or a commitment to discontinue or restructure the operation to which the asset belongs; and
- E. evidence is available from internal reporting that indicates that the economic performance of the asset is, or will be, better than expected.
95. Indications of a potential decrease in an impairment loss in paragraph 94 mainly mirror the indications of a potential impairment loss in paragraph 8. The concept of materiality applies in identifying whether an impairment loss

recognised for an asset in prior accounting periods may need to be reversed and the recoverable amount of the asset determined.

96. If there is an indication that an impairment loss recognised for an asset may no longer exist or may have decreased, this may indicate that the remaining useful life, the depreciation (amortisation) method or the residual value may need to be reviewed and adjusted in accordance with the Accounting Standard applicable to the asset, even if no impairment loss is reversed for the asset.
97. ***An impairment loss recognised for an asset in prior accounting periods should be reversed if there has been a change in the estimates of cash inflows, cash outflows or discount rates used to determine the asset's recoverable amount since the last impairment loss was recognised. If this is the case, the carrying amount of the asset should be increased to its recoverable amount. That increase is a reversal of an impairment loss.***
98. A reversal of an impairment loss reflects an increase in the estimated service potential of an asset, either from use or sale, since the date when an enterprise last recognised an impairment loss for that asset. An enterprise is required to identify the change in estimates that causes the increase in estimated service potential. Examples of changes in estimates include:
 - A. a change in the basis for recoverable amount (i.e., whether recoverable amount is based on net selling price or value in use);
 - B. if recoverable amount was based on value in use: a change in the amount or timing of estimated future cash flows or in the discount rate; or
 - C. if recoverable amount was based on net selling price: a change in estimate of the components of net selling price.
99. An asset's value in use may become greater than the asset's carrying amount simply because the present value of future cash inflows increases as they become closer. However, the service potential of the asset has not increased. Therefore, an impairment loss is not reversed just because of the passage of time (sometimes called the 'unwinding' of the discount), even if the recoverable amount of the asset becomes higher than its carrying amount.

Reversal of an Impairment Loss for an Individual Asset

100. ***The increased carrying amount of an asset due to a reversal of an impairment loss should not exceed the carrying amount that would have been determined (net of amortisation or depreciation) had no impairment loss been recognised for the asset in prior accounting periods.***
101. Any increase in the carrying amount of an asset above the carrying amount that would have been determined (net of amortisation or depreciation) had no impairment loss been recognised for the asset in prior accounting periods is a revaluation. In accounting for such a revaluation, an enterprise applies the Accounting Standard applicable to the asset.
102. ***A reversal of an impairment loss for an asset should be recognised as income immediately in the statement of profit and loss, unless the asset is carried at revalued amount in accordance with another Accounting Standard (see Accounting Standard (AS) 10, Accounting for Fixed Assets) in which case any reversal of an impairment loss on a revalued asset should be treated as a revaluation increase under that Accounting Standard.***
103. A reversal of an impairment loss on a revalued asset is credited directly to equity under the heading revaluation surplus. However, to the extent that an impairment loss on the same revalued asset was previously recognised as an expense in the statement of profit and loss, a reversal of that impairment loss is recognised as income in the statement of profit and loss.

- 104. After a reversal of an impairment loss is recognised, the depreciation (amortisation) charge for the asset should be adjusted in future periods to allocate the asset's revised carrying amount, less its residual value (if any), on a systematic basis over its remaining useful life.**

Reversal of an Impairment Loss for a Cash-Generating Unit

- 105. A reversal of an impairment loss for a cash-generating unit should be allocated to increase the carrying amount of the assets of the unit in the following order:**
- A. first, assets other than goodwill on a pro-rata basis based on the carrying amount of each asset in the unit; and**
 - B. then, to goodwill allocated to the cash-generating unit (if any), if the requirements in paragraph 107 are met.**
- These increases in carrying amounts should be treated as reversals of impairment losses for individual assets and recognised in accordance with paragraph 102.**
- 106. In allocating a reversal of an impairment loss for a cash generating unit under paragraph 105, the carrying amount of an asset should not be increased above the lower of:**
- A. its recoverable amount (if determinable); and**
 - B. the carrying amount that would have been determined (net of amortisation or depreciation) had no impairment loss been recognised for the asset in prior accounting periods.**
- The amount of the reversal of the impairment loss that would otherwise have been allocated to the asset should be allocated to the other assets of the unit on a pro-rata basis.**

Reversal of an Impairment Loss for Goodwill

- 107. As an exception to the requirement in paragraph 97, an impairment loss recognised for goodwill should not be reversed in a subsequent period unless:**
- A. the impairment loss was caused by a specific external event of an exceptional nature that is not expected to recur; and**
 - B. subsequent external events have occurred that reverse the effect of that event.**
- 108. Accounting Standard (AS) 26, Intangible Assets, prohibits the recognition of internally generated goodwill. Any subsequent increase in the recoverable amount of goodwill is likely to be an increase in internally generated goodwill, unless the increase relates clearly to the reversal of the effect of a specific external event of an exceptional nature.**
- 109. This Statement does not permit an impairment loss to be reversed for goodwill because of a change in estimates (for example, a change in the discount rate or in the amount and timing of future cash flows of the cash generating unit to which goodwill relates).**
- 110. A specific external event is an event that is outside of the control of the enterprise. Examples of external events of an exceptional nature include new regulations that significantly curtail the operating activities, or decrease the profitability, of the business to which the goodwill relates.**

Impairment in case of Discontinuing Operations

- 111. The approval and announcement of a plan for discontinuance is an indication that the assets attributable to the discontinuing operation may be impaired or that an impairment loss previously recognised for those assets should be increased or reversed. Therefore, in accordance with this Statement, an**

enterprise estimates the recoverable amount of each asset of the discontinuing operation and recognises an impairment loss or reversal of a prior impairment loss, if any.

112. In applying this Statement to a discontinuing operation, an enterprise determines whether the recoverable amount of an asset of a discontinuing operation is assessed for the individual asset or for the asset's cash generating unit. For example:
 - A. if the enterprise sells the discontinuing operation substantially in its entirety, none of the assets of the discontinuing operation generate cash inflows independently from other assets within the discontinuing operation. Therefore, recoverable amount is determined for the discontinuing operation as a whole and an impairment loss, if any, is allocated among the assets of the discontinuing operation in accordance with this Statement;
 - B. if the enterprise disposes of the discontinuing operation in other ways such as piecemeal sales, the recoverable amount is determined for individual assets, unless the assets are sold in groups; and
 - C. if the enterprise abandons the discontinuing operation, the recoverable amount is determined for individual assets as set out in this Statement.
113. After announcement of a plan, negotiations with potential purchasers of the discontinuing operation or actual binding sale agreements may indicate that the assets of the discontinuing operation may be further impaired or that impairment losses recognised for these assets in prior periods may have decreased. As a consequence, when such events occur, an enterprise re-estimates the recoverable amount of the assets of the discontinuing operation and recognises resulting impairment losses or reversals of impairment losses in accordance with this Statement.
114. A price in a binding sale agreement is the best evidence of an asset's (cash generating unit's) net selling price or of the estimated cash inflow from ultimate disposal in determining the asset's (cash-generating unit's) value in use.
115. The carrying amount (recoverable amount) of a discontinuing operation includes the carrying amount (recoverable amount) of any goodwill that can be allocated on a reasonable and consistent basis to that discontinuing operation.

Disclosure

116. **For each class of assets, the financial statements should disclose:**
 - A. **the amount of impairment losses recognised in the statement of profit and loss during the period and the line item(s) of the statement of profit and loss in which those impairment losses are included;**
 - B. **the amount of reversals of impairment losses recognised in the statement of profit and loss during the period and the line item(s) of the statement of profit and loss in which those impairment losses are reversed;**
 - C. **the amount of impairment losses recognised directly against revaluation surplus during the period; and**
 - D. **the amount of reversals of impairment losses recognised directly in revaluation surplus during the period.**
117. A class of assets is a grouping of assets of similar nature and use in an enterprise's operations.
118. The information required in paragraph 116 may be presented with other information disclosed for the class of assets. For example, this information may be included in a reconciliation of the carrying amount of fixed assets, at the

beginning and end of the period, as required under AS 10, Accounting for Fixed Assets.

- 119. An enterprise that applies AS 17, Segment Reporting, should disclose the following for each reportable segment based on an enterprise's primary format (as defined in AS 17):**
 - A. the amount of impairment losses recognised in the statement of profit and loss and directly against revaluation surplus during the period; and**
 - B. the amount of reversals of impairment losses recognised in the statement of profit and loss and directly in revaluation surplus during the period.**
- 120. If an impairment loss for an individual asset or a cash-generating unit is recognised or reversed during the period and is material to the financial statements of the reporting enterprise as a whole, an enterprise should disclose:**
 - A. the events and circumstances that led to the recognition or reversal of the impairment loss;**
 - B. the amount of the impairment loss recognised or reversed;**
 - C. for an individual asset:**
 - a. the nature of the asset; and**
 - b. the reportable segment to which the asset belongs, based on the enterprise's primary format (as defined in AS 17, Segment Reporting);**
 - D. for a cash-generating unit:**
 - a. a description of the cash-generating unit (such as whether it is a product line, a plant, a business operation, a geographical area, a reportable segment as defined in AS 17 or other);**
 - b. the amount of the impairment loss recognised or reversed by class of assets and by reportable segment based on the enterprise's primary format (as defined in AS 17); and**
 - c. if the aggregation of assets for identifying the cash generating unit has changed since the previous estimate of the cash-generating unit's recoverable amount (if any), the enterprise should describe the current and former way of aggregating assets and the reasons for changing the way the cash-generating unit is identified;**
 - E. whether the recoverable amount of the asset (cash generating unit) is its net selling price or its value in use;**
 - F. if recoverable amount is net selling price, the basis used to determine net selling price (such as whether selling price was determined by reference to an active market or in some other way); and**
 - G. if recoverable amount is value in use, the discount rate(s) used in the current estimate and previous estimate (if any) of value in use.**
- 121. If impairment losses recognised (reversed) during the period are material in aggregate to the financial statements of the reporting enterprise as a whole, an enterprise should disclose a brief description of the following:**
 - A. the main classes of assets affected by impairment losses (reversals of impairment losses) for which no information is disclosed under paragraph 120; and**

B. the main events and circumstances that led to the recognition (reversal) of these impairment losses for which no information is disclosed under paragraph 120.

122. An enterprise is encouraged to disclose key assumptions used to determine the recoverable amount of assets (cash-generating units) during the period.

Transitional Provisions

- 123. On the date of this Statement becoming mandatory, an enterprise should assess whether there is any indication that an asset may be impaired (see paragraphs 5-13). If any such indication exists, the enterprise should determine impairment loss, if any, in accordance with this Statement. The impairment loss, so determined, should be adjusted against opening balance of revenue reserves being the accumulated impairment loss relating to periods prior to this Statement becoming mandatory unless the impairment loss is on a revalued asset. An impairment loss on a revalued asset should be recognised directly against any revaluation surplus for the asset to the extent that the impairment loss does not exceed the amount held in the revaluation surplus for that same asset. If the impairment loss exceeds the amount held in the revaluation surplus for that same asset, the excess should be adjusted against opening balance of revenue reserves.**
- 124. Any impairment loss arising after the date of this Statement becoming mandatory should be recognised in accordance with this Statement (i.e., in the statement of profit and loss unless an asset is carried at revalued amount. An impairment loss on a revalued asset should be treated as a revaluation decrease).**

Accounting Standard – 29, Provisions, Contingent Liabilities and Contingent Assets (issued in 2003)

*(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in **bold italic** type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)*

Accounting Standard (AS) 29, Provisions, Contingent Liabilities and Contingent Assets', issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, comes into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2004. This Standard is mandatory in nature from that date:

- A. in its entirety, for the enterprises which fall in any one or more of the following categories, at any time during the accounting period:
 - a. Enterprises whose equity or debt securities are listed whether in India or outside India.
 - b. Enterprises which are in the process of listing their equity or debt securities as evidenced by the board of directors' resolution in this regard.
 - c. Banks including co-operative banks.
 - d. Financial institutions.
 - e. Enterprises carrying on insurance business.
 - f. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises, whose turnover for the immediately preceding accounting period on the basis of audited financial statements exceeds Rs. 50 crore. Turnover does not include other income.
 - g. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises having borrowings, including public deposits, in excess of Rs. 10 crore at any time during the accounting period.
 - h. Holding and subsidiary enterprises of any one of the above at any time during the accounting period.
- B. in its entirety, except paragraph 67, for the enterprises which do not fall in any of the categories in A. above but fall in any one or more of the following categories:
 - a. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises, whose turnover for the immediately preceding accounting period on the basis of audited financial statements exceeds Rs. 40 lakh but does not exceed Rs. 50 crore. Turnover does not include other income.
 - b. All commercial, industrial and business reporting enterprises having borrowings, including public deposits, in excess of Rs. 1 crore but not in excess of Rs. 10 crore at any time during the accounting period.
 - c. Holding and subsidiary enterprises of any one of the above at any time during the accounting period.
- C. in its entirety, except paragraphs 66 and 67, for the enterprises, which do not fall in any of the categories in A. and B. above.

Where an enterprise has been covered in any one or more of the categories in A. above and subsequently, ceases to be so covered, the enterprise will not qualify for exemption from paragraph 67 of this Standard, until the enterprise ceases to be covered in any of the categories in A. above for two consecutive years.

Where an enterprise has been covered in any one or more of the categories in A. or B. above and subsequently, ceases to be covered in any of the categories in A. and B. above, the enterprise will not qualify for exemption from paragraphs 66 and 67 of this Standard, until the enterprise ceases to be covered in any of the categories in A. and B. above for two consecutive years.

Where an enterprise has previously qualified for exemption from paragraph 67 or paragraphs 66 and 67, as the case may be, but no longer qualifies for exemption from paragraph 67 or paragraphs 66 and 67, as the case may be, in the current accounting period, this Standard becomes applicable, in its entirety or, in its entirety except paragraph 67, as the case may be, from the current period. However, the relevant corresponding previous period figures need not be disclosed.

An enterprise, which, pursuant to the above provisions, does not disclose the information required by paragraph 67 or paragraphs 66 and 67, as the case may be, should disclose the fact.

Objective

The objective of this Statement is to ensure that appropriate recognition criteria and measurement bases are applied to provisions and contingent liabilities and that sufficient information is disclosed in the notes to the financial statements to enable users to understand their nature, timing and amount. The objective of this Statement is also to lay down appropriate accounting for contingent assets.

Scope

1. ***This Statement should be applied in accounting for provisions and contingent liabilities and in dealing with contingent assets, except:***
 - A. ***those resulting from financial instruments that are carried at fair value;***
 - B. ***those resulting from executory contracts, except where the contract is onerous ;***
 - C. ***those arising in insurance enterprises from contracts with policy-holders; and***
 - D. ***those covered by another Accounting Standard.***
2. This Statement applies to financial instruments (including guarantees) that are not carried at fair value.
3. Executory contracts are contracts under which neither party has performed any of its obligations or both parties have partially performed their obligations to an equal extent. This Statement does not apply to executory contracts unless they are onerous.
4. This Statement applies to provisions, contingent liabilities and contingent assets of insurance enterprises other than those arising from contracts with policy-holders.
5. Where another Accounting Standard deals with a specific type of provision, contingent liability or contingent asset, an enterprise applies that Statement instead of this Statement. For example, certain types of provisions are also addressed in Accounting Standards on:
 - A. construction contracts (see AS 7, Construction Contracts);
 - B. taxes on income (see AS 22, Accounting for Taxes on Income);
 - C. leases (see AS 19, Leases). However, as AS 19 contains no specific requirements to deal with operating leases that have become onerous, this Statement applies to such cases; and
 - D. retirement benefits (see AS 15, Accounting for Retirement Benefits in the Financial Statements of Employers).

6. Some amounts treated as provisions may relate to the recognition of revenue, for example where an enterprise gives guarantees in exchange for a fee. This Statement does not address the recognition of revenue. AS 9, Revenue Recognition, identifies the circumstances in which revenue is recognised and provides practical guidance on the application of the recognition criteria. This Statement does not change the requirements of AS 9.
7. This Statement defines provisions as liabilities which can be measured only by using a substantial degree of estimation. The term 'provision' is also used in the context of items such as depreciation, impairment of assets and doubtful debts: these are adjustments to the carrying amounts of assets and are not addressed in this Statement.
8. Other Accounting Standards specify whether expenditures are treated as assets or as expenses. These issues are not addressed in this Statement. Accordingly, this Statement neither prohibits nor requires capitalisation of the costs recognised when a provision is made.
9. This Statement applies to provisions for restructuring (including discontinuing operations). Where a restructuring meets the definition of a discontinuing operation, additional disclosures are required by AS 24, Discontinuing Operations.

Definitions

10. ***The following terms are used in this Statement with the meanings specified:***

A provision is a liability which can be measured only by using a substantial degree of estimation.

A liability is a present obligation of the enterprise arising from past events, the settlement of which is expected to result in an outflow from the enterprise of resources embodying economic benefits.

An obligating event is an event that creates an obligation that results in an enterprise having no realistic alternative to settling that obligation.

A contingent liability is:

- A. ***a possible obligation that arises from past events and the existence of which will be confirmed only by the occurrence or non-occurrence of one or more uncertain future events not wholly within the control of the enterprise; or***
- B. ***a present obligation that arises from past events but is not recognised because:***
 - a. ***it is not probable that an outflow of resources embodying economic benefits will be required to settle the obligation; or***
 - b. ***a reliable estimate of the amount of the obligation cannot be made.***

A contingent asset is a possible asset that arises from past events the existence of which will be confirmed only by the occurrence or nonoccurrence of one or more uncertain future events not wholly within the control of the enterprise.

Present obligation - an obligation is a present obligation if, based on the evidence available, its existence at the balance sheet date is considered probable, i.e., more likely than not.

Possible obligation - an obligation is a possible obligation if, based on the evidence available, its existence at the balance sheet date is considered not probable.

A restructuring is a programme that is planned and controlled by management, and materially changes either:

- A. the scope of a business undertaken by an enterprise; or**
- B. the manner in which that business is conducted.**

11. An obligation is a duty or responsibility to act or perform in a certain way. Obligations may be legally enforceable as a consequence of a binding contract or statutory requirement. Obligations also arise from normal business practice, custom and a desire to maintain good business relations or act in an equitable manner.
12. Provisions can be distinguished from other liabilities such as trade payables and accruals because in the measurement of provisions substantial degree of estimation is involved with regard to the future expenditure required in settlement. By contrast:
 - A. trade payables are liabilities to pay for goods or services that have been received or supplied and have been invoiced or formally agreed with the supplier; and
 - B. accruals are liabilities to pay for goods or services that have been received or supplied but have not been paid, invoiced or formally agreed with the supplier, including amounts due to employees. Although it is sometimes necessary to estimate the amount of accruals, the degree of estimation is generally much less than that for provisions.
13. In this Statement, the term 'contingent' is used for liabilities and assets that are not recognised because their existence will be confirmed only by the occurrence or non-occurrence of one or more uncertain future events not wholly within the control of the enterprise. In addition, the term 'contingent liability' is used for liabilities that do not meet the recognition criteria.

Recognition

Provisions

14. **A provision should be recognised when:**
 - A. an enterprise has a present obligation as a result of a past event;**
 - B. it is probable that an outflow of resources embodying economic benefits will be required to settle the obligation; and**
 - C. a reliable estimate can be made of the amount of the obligation.****If these conditions are not met, no provision should be recognised.**

Present Obligation

15. In almost all cases it will be clear whether a past event has given rise to a present obligation. In rare cases, for example in a lawsuit, it may be disputed either whether certain events have occurred or whether those events result in a present obligation. In such a case, an enterprise determines whether a present obligation exists at the balance sheet date by taking account of all available evidence, including, for example, the opinion of experts. The evidence considered includes any additional evidence provided by events after the balance sheet date. On the basis of such evidence:
 - A. where it is more likely than not that a present obligation exists at the balance sheet date, the enterprise recognises a provision (if the recognition criteria are met); and

- B. where it is more likely that no present obligation exists at the balance sheet date, the enterprise discloses a contingent liability, unless the possibility of an outflow of resources embodying economic benefits is remote (see paragraph 68).

Past Event

16. A past event that leads to a present obligation is called an obligating event. For an event to be an obligating event, it is necessary that the enterprise has no realistic alternative to settling the obligation created by the event.
17. Financial statements deal with the financial position of an enterprise at the end of its reporting period and not its possible position in the future. Therefore, no provision is recognised for costs that need to be incurred to operate in the future. The only liabilities recognised in an enterprise's balance sheet are those that exist at the balance sheet date.
18. It is only those obligations arising from past events existing independently of an enterprise's future actions (i.e. the future conduct of its business) that are recognised as provisions. Examples of such obligations are penalties or clean-up costs for unlawful environmental damage, both of which would lead to an outflow of resources embodying economic benefits in settlement regardless of the future actions of the enterprise. Similarly, an enterprise recognises a provision for the decommissioning costs of an oil installation to the extent that the enterprise is obliged to rectify damage already caused. In contrast, because of commercial pressures or legal requirements, an enterprise may intend or need to carry out expenditure to operate in a particular way in the future (for example, by fitting smoke filters in a certain type of factory). Because the enterprise can avoid the future expenditure by its future actions, for example by changing its method of operation, it has no present obligation for that future expenditure and no provision is recognised.
19. An obligation always involves another party to whom the obligation is owed. It is not necessary, however, to know the identity of the party to whom the obligation is owed – indeed the obligation may be to the public at large.
20. An event that does not give rise to an obligation immediately may do so at a later date, because of changes in the law. For example, when environmental damage is caused there may be no obligation to remedy the consequences. However, the causing of the damage will become an obligating event when a new law requires the existing damage to be rectified.
21. Where details of a proposed new law have yet to be finalised, an obligation arises only when the legislation is virtually certain to be enacted. Differences in circumstances surrounding enactment usually make it impossible to specify a single event that would make the enactment of a law virtually certain. In many cases it will be impossible to be virtually certain of the enactment of a law until it is enacted.

Probable Outflow of Resources Embodying Economic Benefits

22. For a liability to qualify for recognition there must be not only a present obligation but also the probability of an outflow of resources embodying economic benefits to settle that obligation. For the purpose of this Statement, an outflow of resources or other event is regarded as probable if the event is more likely than not to occur, i.e., the probability that the event will occur is greater than the probability that it will not. Where it is not probable that a present obligation exists, an enterprise discloses a contingent liability, unless the possibility of an outflow of resources embodying economic benefits is remote (see paragraph 68).
23. Where there are a number of similar obligations (e.g. product warranties or similar contracts) the probability that an outflow will be required in settlement is

determined by considering the class of obligations as a whole. Although the likelihood of outflow for any one item may be small, it may well be probable that some outflow of resources will be needed to settle the class of obligations as a whole. If that is the case, a provision is recognised (if the other recognition criteria are met).

Reliable Estimate of the Obligation

24. The use of estimates is an essential part of the preparation of financial statements and does not undermine their reliability. This is especially true in the case of provisions, which by their nature involve a greater degree of estimation than most other items. Except in extremely rare cases, an enterprise will be able to determine a range of possible outcomes and can therefore make an estimate of the obligation that is reliable to use in recognising a provision.
25. In the extremely rare case where no reliable estimate can be made, a liability exists that cannot be recognised. That liability is disclosed as a contingent liability (see paragraph 68).

Contingent Liabilities

26. *An enterprise should not recognise a contingent liability.*

27. A contingent liability is disclosed, as required by paragraph 68, unless the possibility of an outflow of resources embodying economic benefits is remote.
28. Where an enterprise is jointly and severally liable for an obligation, the part of the obligation that is expected to be met by other parties is treated as a contingent liability. The enterprise recognises a provision for the part of the obligation for which an outflow of resources embodying economic benefits is probable, except in the extremely rare circumstances where no reliable estimate can be made (see paragraph 14).
29. Contingent liabilities may develop in a way not initially expected. Therefore, they are assessed continually to determine whether an outflow of resources embodying economic benefits has become probable. If it becomes probable that an outflow of future economic benefits will be required for an item previously dealt with as a contingent liability, a provision is recognised in accordance with paragraph 14 in the financial statements of the period in which the change in probability occurs (except in the extremely rare circumstances where no reliable estimate can be made).

Contingent Assets

30. *An enterprise should not recognise a contingent asset.*

31. Contingent assets usually arise from unplanned or other unexpected events that give rise to the possibility of an inflow of economic benefits to the enterprise. An example is a claim that an enterprise is pursuing through legal processes, where the outcome is uncertain.
32. Contingent assets are not recognised in financial statements since this may result in the recognition of income that may never be realised. However, when the realisation of income is virtually certain, then the related asset is not a contingent asset and its recognition is appropriate.
33. A contingent asset is not disclosed in the financial statements. It is usually disclosed in the report of the approving authority (Board of Directors in the case of a company, and, the corresponding approving authority in the case of any other enterprise), where an inflow of economic benefits is probable.
34. Contingent assets are assessed continually and if it has become virtually certain that an inflow of economic benefits will arise, the asset and the related income are recognised in the financial statements of the period in which the change occurs.

Measurement

Best Estimate

35. ***The amount recognised as a provision should be the best estimate of the expenditure required to settle the present obligation at the balance sheet date. The amount of a provision should not be discounted to its present value.***
36. The estimates of outcome and financial effect are determined by the judgment of the management of the enterprise, supplemented by experience of similar transactions and, in some cases, reports from independent experts. The evidence considered includes any additional evidence provided by events after the balance sheet date.
37. The provision is measured before tax; the tax consequences of the provision, and changes in it, are dealt with under AS 22, Accounting for Taxes on Income.

Risks and Uncertainties

38. ***The risks and uncertainties that inevitably surround many events and circumstances should be taken into account in reaching the best estimate of a provision.***
39. Risk describes variability of outcome. A risk adjustment may increase the amount at which a liability is measured. Caution is needed in making judgments under conditions of uncertainty, so that income or assets are not overstated and expenses or liabilities are not understated. However, uncertainty does not justify the creation of excessive provisions or a deliberate overstatement of liabilities. For example, if the projected costs of a particularly adverse outcome are estimated on a prudent basis, that outcome is not then deliberately treated as more probable than is realistically the case. Care is needed to avoid duplicating adjustments for risk and uncertainty with consequent overstatement of a provision.
40. Disclosure of the uncertainties surrounding the amount of the expenditure is made under paragraph 67 B..

Future Events

41. ***Future events that may affect the amount required to settle an obligation should be reflected in the amount of a provision where there is sufficient objective evidence that they will occur.***
42. Expected future events may be particularly important in measuring provisions. For example, an enterprise may believe that the cost of cleaning up a site at the end of its life will be reduced by future changes in technology. The amount recognised reflects a reasonable expectation of technically qualified, objective observers, taking account of all available evidence as to the technology that will be available at the time of the clean-up. Thus, it is appropriate to include, for example, expected cost reductions associated with increased experience in applying existing technology or the expected cost of applying existing technology to a larger or more complex clean-up operation than has previously been carried out. However, an enterprise does not anticipate the development of a completely new technology for cleaning up unless it is supported by sufficient objective evidence.
43. The effect of possible new legislation is taken into consideration in measuring an existing obligation when sufficient objective evidence exists that the legislation is virtually certain to be enacted. The variety of circumstances that arise in practice usually makes it impossible to specify a single event that will provide sufficient, objective evidence in every case. Evidence is required both of what legislation will demand and of whether it is virtually certain to be enacted and

implemented in due course. In many cases sufficient objective evidence will not exist until the new legislation is enacted.

Expected Disposal of Assets

- 44. Gains from the expected disposal of assets should not be taken into account in measuring a provision.**
45. Gains on the expected disposal of assets are not taken into account in measuring a provision, even if the expected disposal is closely linked to the event giving rise to the provision. Instead, an enterprise recognises gains on expected disposals of assets at the time specified by the Accounting Standard dealing with the assets concerned.

Reimbursements

- 46. Where some or all of the expenditure required to settle a provision is expected to be reimbursed by another party, the reimbursement should be recognised when, and only when, it is virtually certain that reimbursement will be received if the enterprise settles the obligation. The reimbursement should be treated as a separate asset. The amount recognised for the reimbursement should not exceed the amount of the provision.**
- 47. In the statement of profit and loss, the expense relating to a provision may be presented net of the amount recognised for a reimbursement.**
48. Sometimes, an enterprise is able to look to another party to pay part or all of the expenditure required to settle a provision (for example, through insurance contracts, indemnity clauses or suppliers' warranties). The other party may either reimburse amounts paid by the enterprise or pay the amounts directly.
49. In most cases, the enterprise will remain liable for the whole of the amount in question so that the enterprise would have to settle the full amount if the third party failed to pay for any reason. In this situation, a provision is recognised for the full amount of the liability, and a separate asset for the expected reimbursement is recognised when it is virtually certain that reimbursement will be received if the enterprise settles the liability.
50. In some cases, the enterprise will not be liable for the costs in question if the third party fails to pay. In such a case, the enterprise has no liability for those costs and they are not included in the provision.
51. As noted in paragraph 28, an obligation for which an enterprise is jointly and severally liable is a contingent liability to the extent that it is expected that the obligation will be settled by the other parties.

Changes in Provisions

- 52. Provisions should be reviewed at each balance sheet date and adjusted to reflect the current best estimate. If it is no longer probable that an outflow of resources embodying economic benefits will be required to settle the obligation, the provision should be reversed.**

Use of Provisions

- 53. A provision should be used only for expenditures for which the provision was originally recognised.**
54. Only expenditures that relate to the original provision are adjusted against it. Adjusting expenditures against a provision that was originally recognised for another purpose would conceal the impact of two different events.

Application of the Recognition and Measurement Rules

Future Operating Losses

55. Provisions should not be recognised for future operating losses.

56. Future operating losses do not meet the definition of a liability in paragraph 10 and the general recognition criteria set out for provisions in paragraph 14.
57. An expectation of future operating losses is an indication that certain assets of the operation may be impaired. An enterprise tests these assets for impairment under Accounting Standard (AS) 28, Impairment of Assets.

Restructuring

58. The following are examples of events that may fall under the definition of restructuring:

- A. sale or termination of a line of business;
- B. the closure of business locations in a country or region or the relocation of business activities from one country or region to another;
- C. changes in management structure, for example, eliminating a layer of management; and
- D. fundamental re-organisations that have a material effect on the nature and focus of the enterprise's operations.

59. A provision for restructuring costs is recognised only when the recognition criteria for provisions set out in paragraph 14 are met.

60. No obligation arises for the sale of an operation until the enterprise is committed to the sale, i.e., there is a binding sale agreement.

61. An enterprise cannot be committed to the sale until a purchaser has been identified and there is a binding sale agreement. Until there is a binding sale agreement, the enterprise will be able to change its mind and indeed will have to take another course of action if a purchaser cannot be found on acceptable terms. When the sale of an operation is envisaged as part of a restructuring, the assets of the operation are reviewed for impairment under Accounting Standard (AS) 28, Impairment of Assets.

62. A restructuring provision should include only the direct expenditures arising from the restructuring which are those that are both:

- A. necessarily entailed by the restructuring; and
- B. not associated with the ongoing activities of the enterprise.

63. A restructuring provision does not include such costs as:

- A. retraining or relocating continuing staff;
- B. marketing; or
- C. investment in new systems and distribution networks.

These expenditures relate to the future conduct of the business and are not liabilities for restructuring at the balance sheet date. Such expenditures are recognised on the same basis as if they arose independently of a restructuring.

64. Identifiable future operating losses up to the date of a restructuring are not included in a provision.

65. As required by paragraph 44, gains on the expected disposal of assets are not taken into account in measuring a restructuring provision, even if the sale of assets is envisaged as part of the restructuring.

Disclosure

66. For each class of provision, an enterprise should disclose:

- A. the carrying amount at the beginning and end of the period;
- B. additional provisions made in the period, including increases to existing provisions;
- C. amounts used (i.e. incurred and charged against the provision) during the period; and

- D. unused amounts reversed during the period.**
- 67. An enterprise should disclose the following for each class of provision:**
- A. a brief description of the nature of the obligation and the expected timing of any resulting outflows of economic benefits;**
 - B. an indication of the uncertainties about those outflows. Where necessary to provide adequate information, an enterprise should disclose the major assumptions made concerning future events, as addressed in paragraph 41; and**
 - C. the amount of any expected reimbursement, stating the amount of any asset that has been recognised for that expected reimbursement.**
- 68. Unless the possibility of any outflow in settlement is remote, an enterprise should disclose for each class of contingent liability at the balance sheet date a brief description of the nature of the contingent liability and, where practicable:**
- A. an estimate of its financial effect, measured under paragraphs 35-45;**
 - B. an indication of the uncertainties relating to any outflow; and**
 - C. the possibility of any reimbursement.**
- 69. In determining which provisions or contingent liabilities may be aggregated to form a class, it is necessary to consider whether the nature of the items is sufficiently similar for a single statement about them to fulfill the requirements of paragraphs 67 A. and B. and 68 A. and B.. Thus, it may be appropriate to treat as a single class of provision amounts relating to warranties of different products, but it would not be appropriate to treat as a single class amounts relating to normal warranties and amounts that are subject to legal proceedings.**
- 70. Where a provision and a contingent liability arise from the same set of circumstances, an enterprise makes the disclosures required by paragraphs 66-68 in a way that shows the link between the provision and the contingent liability.**
- 71. Where any of the information required by paragraph 68 is not disclosed because it is not practicable to do so, that fact should be stated.**
- 72. In extremely rare cases, disclosure of some or all of the information required by paragraphs 66-70 can be expected to prejudice seriously the position of the enterprise in a dispute with other parties on the subject matter of the provision or contingent liability. In such cases, an enterprise need not disclose the information, but should disclose the general nature of the dispute, together with the fact that, and reason why, the information has not been disclosed.**

Accounting Standard – 30, Financial Instruments: Recognition and Measurement (effecting from 2009, mandatory from 2011)

*(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in **bold italic** type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in **bold italic** type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards (revised 2004))*

Accounting Standard (AS) 30, Financial Instruments: Recognition and Measurement, issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, comes into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2009 and will be recommendatory in nature for an initial period of two years. This Accounting Standard will become mandatory in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2011 for all commercial, industrial and business entities except to a Small and Medium-sized Entity, as defined below:

- A. Whose equity or debt securities are not listed or are not in the process of listing on any stock exchange, whether in India or outside India;
- B. which is not a bank (including co-operative bank), financial institution or any entity carrying on insurance business;
- C. whose turnover (excluding other income) does not exceed rupees fifty crore in the immediately preceding accounting year;
- D. which does not have borrowings (including public deposits) in excess of rupees ten crore at any time during the immediately preceding accounting year; and
- E. which is not a holding or subsidiary entity of an entity which is not a small and medium-sized entity.

For the above purpose an entity would qualify as a Small and Medium-sized Entity, if the conditions mentioned therein are satisfied as at the end of the relevant accounting period.

From the date of this Standard becoming mandatory for the concerned entities, the following stand withdrawn:

- A. Accounting Standard (AS) 4, Contingencies and Events Occurring After the Balance Sheet Date, to the extent it deals with contingencies.
- B. Accounting Standard (AS) 11 (revised 2003), The Effects of Changes in Foreign Exchange Rates, to the extent it deals with the forward exchange contracts.
- C. Accounting Standard (AS) 13, Accounting for Investments, except to the extent it relates to accounting for investment properties.

From the date this Accounting Standard becomes recommendatory in nature, the following Guidance Notes issued by the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, stand withdrawn:

- D. Guidance Note on Guarantees & Counter Guarantees Given by the Companies.
- E. Guidance Note on Accounting for Investments in the Financial Statements of Mutual Funds.
- F. Guidance Note on Accounting for Securitisation.
- G. Guidance Note on Accounting for Equity Index and Equity Stock Futures and Options.

The following is the text of the Accounting Standard.

Objective

1. The objective of this Standard is to establish principles for recognising and measuring financial assets, financial liabilities and some contracts to buy or sell non-financial items. Requirements for presenting information about financial instruments are in Accounting Standard (AS) 31, Financial Instruments: Presentation. Requirements for disclosing information about financial instruments are in Accounting Standard (AS) 32, Financial Instruments: Disclosures.

Scope

2. ***This Standard should be applied by all entities to all types of financial instruments except:***
 - A. ***those interests in subsidiaries, associates and joint ventures that are accounted for under AS 21, Consolidated Financial Statements and Accounting for Investments in Subsidiaries in Separate Financial Statements, AS 23, Accounting for Investments in Associates, or AS 27, Financial Reporting of Interests in Joint Ventures. However, entities should apply this Standard to an interest in a subsidiary, associate or joint venture that according to AS 21, AS 23 or AS 27 is accounted for under this Standard. Entities should also apply this Standard to derivatives on an interest in a subsidiary, associate or joint venture unless the derivative meets the definition of an equity instrument of the entity in AS 31, Financial Instruments: Presentation***
 - B. ***rights and obligations under leases to which AS 19, Leases, applies. However:***
 - a. ***lease receivables recognised by a lessor are subject to the derecognition and impairment provisions of this Standard (see paragraphs 15-37, 64, 65, 69-71);***
 - b. ***finance lease payables recognised by a lessee are subject to the derecognition provisions of this Standard (see paragraphs 43-46); and***
 - c. ***derivatives that are embedded in leases are subject to the embedded derivatives provisions of this Standard (see paragraphs 9-13).***
 - C. ***employers' rights and obligations under employee benefit plans, to which AS 15, Employee Benefits, applies.***
 - D. ***financial instruments issued by the entity that meet the definition of an equity instrument in AS 31, Financial Instruments: Presentation (including options and warrants). However, the holder of such equity instruments should apply this Standard to those instruments, unless they meet the exception in A. above.***
 - E.
 - a. ***rights and obligations arising under an insurance contract as defined in the Accounting Standard on Insurance Contracts, other than an issuer's rights and obligations arising under an insurance contract that meets the definition of a financial guarantee contract in paragraph 8.6, or***
 - b. ***a contract that is within the scope of Accounting Standard on Insurance Contracts because it contains a discretionary participation feature. However, this Standard applies to a derivative that is embedded in a contract within the scope of Accounting Standard on Insurance Contracts if the derivative is not itself a contract within the scope of that Standard (see paragraphs 9-13). Moreover, if an issuer of financial guarantee***

contracts has previously asserted explicitly that it regards such contracts as insurance contracts and has used accounting applicable to insurance contracts, the issuer may choose to apply either this Standard or Accounting Standard on Insurance Contracts to such financial guarantee contracts. The issuer may make that choice contract by contract, but the choice made for each contract is irrevocable.

- F. contracts for contingent consideration in a business combination. This exemption applies only to the acquirer.**
- G. contracts between an acquirer and a vendor in a business combination to buy or sell an acquiree at a future date.**
- H. loan commitments other than those loan commitments described in paragraph 3. An issuer of loan commitments should apply AS 29, Provision, Contingent Liabilities and Contingent Assets, to loan commitments that are not within the scope of this Standard. However, all loan commitments are subject to the derecognition provisions of this Standard (see paragraphs 15–46).**
- I. financial instruments, contracts and obligations under share-based payment transactions, except for contracts within the scope of paragraphs 4-6 of this Standard, to which this Standard applies.**
- J. rights to receive payments as reimbursement of expenditure, the entity is required to make, to settle a liability that it recognises as a provision in accordance with AS 29, Provisions, Contingent Liabilities and Contingent Assets, or for which, in an earlier period, it recognised a provision in accordance with AS 29.**
- 3. The following loan commitments are within the scope of this Standard:**
 - A. loan commitments that the entity designates as financial liabilities at fair value through profit or loss. An entity that has a past practice of selling the assets resulting from its loan commitments shortly after origination should apply this Standard to all its loan commitments in the same class.**
 - B. loan commitments that can be settled net in cash or by delivering or issuing another financial instrument. These loan commitments are derivatives. A loan commitment is not regarded as settled net merely because the loan is paid out in instalments (for example, a mortgage construction loan that is paid out in instalments in line with the progress of construction).**
 - C. commitments to provide a loan at a below-market interest rate. Paragraph 52 E. specifies the subsequent measurement of liabilities arising from these loan commitments.**
- 4. This Standard should be applied to those contracts to buy or sell a non-financial item that can be settled net in cash or another financial instrument, or by exchanging financial instruments, as if the contracts were financial instruments, with the exception of contracts that were entered into and continue to be held for the purpose of the receipt or delivery of a non-financial item in accordance with the entity's expected purchase, sale or usage requirements.**
- 5. There are various ways in which a contract to buy or sell a non-financial item can be settled net in cash or another financial instrument or by exchanging financial instruments. These include:**
 - A. when the terms of the contract permit either party to settle it net in cash or another financial instrument or by exchanging financial instruments;**
 - B. when the ability to settle net in cash or another financial instrument, or by exchanging financial instruments, is not explicit in the terms of the contract, but the entity has a practice of settling similar contracts net in**

cash or another financial instrument or by exchanging financial instruments (whether with the counterparty, by entering into offsetting contracts or by selling the contract before its exercise or lapse);

- C. when, for similar contracts, the entity has a practice of taking delivery of the underlying and selling it within a short period after delivery for the purpose of generating a profit from short-term fluctuations in price or dealer's margin; and
- D. when the non-financial item that is the subject of the contract is readily convertible to cash.

A contract to which B. or C. applies is not entered into for the purpose of the receipt or delivery of the non-financial item in accordance with the entity's expected purchase, sale or usage requirements and, accordingly, is within the scope of this Standard. Other contracts to which paragraph 4 applies are evaluated to determine whether they were entered into and continue to be held for the purpose of the receipt or delivery of the non-financial item in accordance with the entity's expected purchase, sale or usage requirements and, accordingly, whether they are within the scope of this Standard.

- 6. A written option to buy or sell a non-financial item that can be settled net in cash or another financial instrument, or by exchanging financial instruments, in accordance with paragraph 5 A. or B. is within the scope of this Standard. Such a contract cannot be entered into for the purpose of the receipt or delivery of the non-financial item in accordance with the entity's expected purchase, sale or usage requirements.

Definitions

- 7. The terms defined in AS 31, Financial Instruments: Presentation are used in this Standard with the meanings specified in paragraph 7 of AS 31. AS 31 defines the following terms:

- ✍ financial instrument
- ✍ financial asset
- ✍ financial liability
- ✍ equity instrument

and provides guidance on applying those definitions.

- 8. ***The following terms are used in this Standard with the meanings specified:***

Definition of a Derivative

A derivative is a financial instrument or other contract within the scope of this Standard (see paragraphs 2-6) with all three of the following characteristics:

- A. its value changes in response to the change in a specified interest rate, financial instrument price, commodity price, foreign exchange rate, index of prices or rates, credit rating or credit index, or other variable, provided in the case of a non-financial variable that the variable is not specific to a party to the contract (sometimes called the 'underlying');***
- B. it requires no initial net investment or an initial net investment that is smaller than would be required for other types of contracts that would be expected to have a similar response to changes in market factors; and***
- C. it is settled at a future date.***

Definitions of Four Categories of Financial Instruments

A financial asset or financial liability at fair value through profit or loss is a financial asset or financial liability that meets either of the following conditions.

- A.** *It is classified as held for trading. A financial asset or financial liability is classified as held for trading if it is:*
 - a.** *acquired or incurred principally for the purpose of selling or repurchasing it in the near term; or*
 - b.** *part of a portfolio of identified financial instruments that are managed together and for which there is evidence of a recent actual pattern of short-term profit-taking; or*
 - c.** *a derivative (except for a derivative that is a financial guarantee contract or a designated and effective hedging instrument).*
- B.** *Upon initial recognition it is designated by the entity as at fair value through profit or loss. An entity may use this designation only when permitted by paragraph 11, or when doing so results in more relevant information, because either*
 - a.** *it eliminates or significantly reduces a measurement or recognition inconsistency (sometimes referred to as 'an accounting mismatch') that would otherwise arise from measuring assets or liabilities or recognizing the gains and losses on them on different bases; or*
 - b.** *a group of financial assets, financial liabilities or both is managed and its performance is evaluated on a fair value basis, in accordance with a documented risk management or investment strategy, and information about the group is provided internally on that basis to the entity's key management personnel (as defined in AS 18, Related Party Disclosures), its board of directors or similar governing body and its chief executive officer. This would normally be relevant in case of a venture capital organisation, mutual fund, unit trust or similar entity whose business is investing in financial assets with a view to profiting from their total return in the form of interest or dividends and changes in fair value.*

Accounting Standard (AS) 32, Financial Instruments: Disclosures, requires the entity to provide disclosures about financial assets and financial liabilities it has designated as at fair value through profit or loss, including how it has satisfied these conditions. For instruments qualifying in accordance with b. above, that disclosure includes a narrative description of how designation as at fair value through profit or loss is consistent with the entity's documented risk management or investment strategy.

Investments in equity instruments that do not have a quoted market price in an active market, and whose fair value cannot be reliably measured (see paragraph 51 C.), should not be designated as at fair value through profit or loss.

It should be noted that paragraphs 53, 54, 55, which set out requirements for determining a reliable measure of the fair value of a financial asset or financial liability, apply equally to all items that are measured at fair value, whether by designation or otherwise, or whose fair value is disclosed.

Held-to-maturity investments are non-derivative financial assets with fixed or determinable payments and fixed maturity that an entity has the positive intention and ability to hold to maturity other than:

- A. those that the entity upon initial recognition designates as at fair value through profit or loss;**
- B. those that meet the definition of loans and receivables; and**
- C. those that the entity designates as available for sale.**

An entity should not classify any financial assets as held to maturity if the entity has, during the current financial year or during the two preceding financial years, sold or reclassified more than an insignificant amount of held-to-maturity investments before maturity (more than insignificant in relation to the total amount of held-to maturity investments) other than sales or reclassifications that:

- a. are so close to maturity or the financial asset's call date (for example, less than three months before maturity) that changes in the market rate of interest would not have a significant effect on the financial asset's fair value; or**
- b. occur after the entity has collected substantially all of the financial asset's original principal through scheduled payments or prepayments; or**
- c. are attributable to an isolated event that is beyond the entity's control, is non-recurring and could not have been reasonably anticipated by the entity.**

Loans and receivables are non-derivative financial assets with fixed or determinable payments that are not quoted in an active market, other than:

- A. those that the entity intends to sell immediately or in the near term, which should be classified as held for trading, and those that the entity upon initial recognition designates as at fair value through profit or loss;**
- B. those that the entity upon initial recognition designates as available for sale; or**
- C. those for which the holder may not recover substantially all of its initial investment, other than because of credit deterioration, which should be classified as available for sale.**

An interest acquired in a pool of assets that are not loans or receivables (for example, an interest in a mutual fund or a similar fund) is not a loan or receivable.

Available-for-sale financial assets are those non-derivative financial assets that are designated as available for sale or are not classified as A. loans and receivables, B. held-to-maturity investments, or C. financial assets at fair value through profit or loss.

Definition of a financial guarantee contract

A financial guarantee contract is a contract that requires the issuer to make specified payments to reimburse the holder for a loss it incurs because a specified debtor fails to make payment when due in accordance with the original or modified terms of a debt instrument.

Definitions Relating to Recognition and Measurement

The amortised cost of a financial asset or financial liability is the amount at which the financial asset or financial liability is measured at initial recognition minus principal repayments, plus or minus the cumulative

amortisation using the effective interest method of any difference between that initial amount and the maturity amount, and minus any reduction (directly or through the use of an allowance account) for impairment or uncollectibility.

The effective interest method is a method of calculating the amortised cost of a financial asset or a financial liability (or group of financial assets or financial liabilities) and of allocating the interest income or interest expense over the relevant period.

The effective interest rate is the rate that exactly discounts estimated future cash payments or receipts through the expected life of the financial instrument or, when appropriate, a shorter period to the net carrying amount of the financial asset or financial liability.

Derecognition is the removal of a previously recognised financial asset or financial liability from an entity's balance sheet.

Fair value is the amount for which an asset could be exchanged, or a liability settled, between knowledgeable, willing parties in an arm's length transaction.

A regular way purchase or sale is a purchase or sale of a financial asset under a contract whose terms require delivery of the asset within the time frame established generally by regulation or convention in the marketplace concerned.

Transaction costs are incremental costs that are directly attributable to the acquisition, issue or disposal of a financial asset or financial liability. An incremental cost is one that would not have been incurred if the entity had not acquired, issued or disposed of the financial instrument.

Definitions Relating to Hedge Accounting

A firm commitment is a binding agreement for the exchange of a specified quantity of resources at a specified price on a specified future date or dates.

A forecast transaction is an uncommitted but anticipated future transaction.

Functional currency is the currency of the primary economic environment in which the entity operates.

A hedging instrument is A. a designated derivative or B. for a hedge of the risk of changes in foreign currency exchange rates only, a designated non-derivative financial asset or non-derivative financial liability whose fair value or cash flows are expected to offset changes in the fair value or cash flows of a designated hedged item (paragraphs 81-86).

A hedged item is an asset, liability, firm commitment, highly probable forecast transaction or net investment in a foreign operation that A. exposes the entity to risk of changes in fair value or future cash flows and B. is designated as being hedged (paragraphs 87-94).

Hedge effectiveness is the degree to which changes in the fair value or cash flows of the hedged item that are attributable to a hedged risk are offset by changes in the fair value or cash flows of the hedging instrument.

Embedded Derivatives

9. An embedded derivative is a component of a hybrid (combined) instrument that also includes a non-derivative host contract—with the effect that some of the cash flows of the combined instrument vary in a way similar to a stand-alone derivative. An embedded derivative causes some or all of the cash flows that otherwise would be required by the contract to be modified according to a specified interest rate, financial instrument price, commodity price, foreign exchange rate, index of prices or rates, credit rating or credit index, or other variable, provided in the case of a non-financial variable that the variable is not specific to a party to the contract. A derivative that is attached to a financial instrument but is contractually transferable independently of that instrument, or has a different counterparty from that instrument, is not an embedded derivative, but a separate financial instrument.
10. ***An embedded derivative should be separated from the host contract and accounted for as a derivative under this Standard if, and only if:***
 - A. ***the economic characteristics and risks of the embedded derivative are not closely related to the economic characteristics and risks of the host contract;***
 - B. ***a separate instrument with the same terms as the embedded derivative would meet the definition of a derivative; and***
 - C. ***the hybrid (combined) instrument is not measured at fair value with changes in fair value recognised in the statement of profit and loss (i.e., a derivative that is embedded in a financial asset or financial liability at fair value through profit or loss is not separated).***

If an embedded derivative is separated, the host contract should be accounted for under this Standard if it is a financial instrument, and in accordance with other appropriate Standards if it is not a financial instrument. This Standard does not address whether an embedded derivative should be presented separately on the face of the financial statements.
11. ***Notwithstanding paragraph 10, if a contract contains one or more embedded derivatives, an entity may designate the entire hybrid (combined) contract as a financial asset or financial liability at fair value through profit or loss unless:***
 - A. ***the embedded derivative(s) does not significantly modify the cash flows that otherwise would be required by the contract; or***
 - B. ***it is clear with little or no analysis when a similar hybrid (combined) instrument is first considered that separation of the embedded derivative(s) is prohibited, such as a prepayment option embedded in a loan that permits the holder to prepay the loan for approximately its amortised cost.***
12. ***If an entity is required by this Standard to separate an embedded derivative from its host contract, but is unable to measure embedded derivative separately either at acquisition or at a subsequent financial reporting date, it should designate the entire hybrid (combined) contract as at fair value through profit or loss.***
13. If an entity is unable to determine reliably the fair value of an embedded derivative on the basis of its terms and conditions (for example, because the

embedded derivative is based on an unquoted equity instrument), the fair value of the embedded derivative is the difference between the fair value of the hybrid (combined) instrument and the fair value of the host contract, if those can be determined under this Standard. If the entity is unable to determine the fair value of the embedded derivative using this method, paragraph 12 applies and the hybrid (combined) instrument is designated as at fair value through profit or loss.

Recognition and Derecognition

Initial Recognition

- 14. An entity should recognise a financial asset or a financial liability on its balance sheet when, and only when, the entity becomes a party to the contractual provisions of the instrument. (See paragraphs 38-42 with respect to regular way purchases of financial assets.)**

Derecognition of a Financial Asset

- 15. Before evaluating whether, and to what extent, derecognition is appropriate under paragraphs 16-22, an entity determines whether those paragraphs should be applied to a part of a financial asset (or a part of a group of similar financial assets) or a financial asset (or a group of similar financial assets) in its entirety, as follows.**
- A. Paragraphs 16-22 are applied to a part of a financial asset (or a part of a group of similar financial assets) if, and only if, the part being considered for derecognition meets one of the following three conditions.**
- a. The part comprises only specifically identified cash flows from a financial asset (or a group of similar financial assets). For example, when an entity enters into an interest rate strip whereby the counterparty obtains the right to the interest cash flows, but not the principal cash flows from a debt instrument, paragraphs 16-22 are applied to the interest cash flows.**
 - b. The part comprises only a fully proportionate (pro rata) share of the cash flows from a financial asset (or a group of similar financial assets). For example, when an entity enters into an arrangement whereby the counterparty obtains the rights to a 90 per cent share of all cash flows of a debt instrument, paragraphs 16-22 are applied to 90 per cent of those cash flows. If there is more than one counterparty, each counterparty is not required to have a proportionate share of the cash flows provided that the transferring entity has a fully proportionate share.**
 - c. The part comprises only a fully proportionate (pro rata) share of specifically identified cash flows from a financial asset (or a group of similar financial assets). For example, when an entity enters into an arrangement whereby the counterparty obtains the rights to a 90 per cent share of interest cash flows from a financial asset, paragraphs 16- 22 are applied to 90 per cent of those interest cash flows. If there is more than one counterparty, each counterparty is not required to have a proportionate share of the specifically identified cash flows provided that the transferring entity has a fully proportionate share.**

- B. In all other cases, paragraphs 16-22 are applied to the financial asset in its entirety (or to the group of similar financial assets in their entirety). For example, when an entity transfers a. the rights to the first or the last 90 per cent of cash collections from a financial asset (or a group of financial assets), or b. the rights to 90 per cent of the cash flows from a group of receivables, but provides a guarantee to compensate the buyer for any credit losses up to 8 per cent of the principal amount of the receivables, paragraphs 16-22 are applied to the financial asset (or a group of similar financial assets) in its entirety. In paragraphs 16-26, the term 'financial asset' refers to either a part of a financial asset (or a part of a group of similar financial assets) as identified in A. above or, otherwise, a financial asset (or a group of similar financial assets) in its entirety.**
- 16. An entity should derecognise a financial asset when, and only when:**
- A. the contractual rights to the cash flows from the financial asset expire; or**
 - B. it transfers the financial asset as set out in paragraphs 17 and 18 and the transfer qualifies for derecognition in accordance with paragraph 19. (See paragraphs 38-42 for regular way sales of financial assets.)**
- 17. An entity transfers a financial asset if, and only if, it either:**
- A. transfers the contractual rights to receive the cash flows of the financial asset; or**
 - B. retains the contractual rights to receive the cash flows of the financial asset, but assumes a contractual obligation to pay the cash flows to one or more recipients in an arrangement that meets the conditions in paragraph 18.**
- 18. When an entity retains the contractual rights to receive the cash flows of a financial asset (the 'original asset'), but assumes a contractual obligation to pay those cash flows to one or more entities (the 'eventual recipients'), the entity treats the transaction as a transfer of a financial asset if, and only if, all of the following three conditions are met.**
- A. The entity has no obligation to pay amounts to the eventual recipients unless it collects equivalent amounts from the original asset. Short-term advances by the entity to the eventual recipients with the right of full recovery of the amount lent plus accrued interest at market rates do not violate this condition.**
 - B. The entity is prohibited by the terms of the transfer contract from selling or pledging the original asset other than as security to the eventual recipients for the obligation to pay them cash flows.**
 - C. The entity has an obligation to remit any cash flows it collects on behalf of the eventual recipients without material delay. In addition, the entity is not entitled to reinvest such cash flows, except for investments in cash or cash equivalents (as defined in AS 3, Cash Flow Statements) during the short settlement period from the collection date to the date of required remittance to the eventual recipients, and interest earned on such investments is passed to the eventual recipients.**
- 19. When an entity transfers a financial asset (see paragraph 17), it should evaluate the extent to which it retains the risks and rewards of ownership of the financial asset. In this case:**
- A. if the entity transfers substantially all the risks and rewards of ownership of the financial asset, the entity should derecognise the**

financial asset and recognise separately as assets or liabilities any rights and obligations created or retained in the transfer.

- B. if the entity retains substantially all the risks and rewards of ownership of the financial asset, the entity should continue to recognise the financial asset.**
 - C. if the entity neither transfers nor retains substantially all the risks and rewards of ownership of the financial asset, the entity should determine whether it has retained control of the financial asset. In this case:**
 - a. if the entity has not retained control, it should derecognise the financial asset and recognise separately as assets or liabilities any rights and obligations created or retained in the transfer.**
 - b. if the entity has retained control, it should continue to recognise the financial asset to the extent of its continuing involvement in the financial asset (see paragraph 30).**
20. The transfer of risks and rewards (see paragraph 19) is evaluated by comparing the entity's exposure, before and after the transfer, with the variability in the amounts and timing of the net cash flows of the transferred asset. An entity has retained substantially all the risks and rewards of ownership of a financial asset if its exposure to the variability in the present value of the future net cash flows from the financial asset does not change significantly as a result of the transfer (e.g., because the entity has sold a financial asset subject to an agreement to buy it back at a fixed price or the sale price plus a lender's return). An entity has transferred substantially all the risks and rewards of ownership of a financial asset if its exposure to such variability is no longer significant in relation to the total variability in the present value of the future net cash flows associated with the financial asset (e.g., because the entity has sold a financial asset subject only to an option to buy it back at its fair value at the time of repurchase or has transferred a fully proportionate share of the cash flows from a larger financial asset in an arrangement, such as a loan sub-participation, that meets the conditions in paragraph 18).
21. Often it will be obvious whether the entity has transferred or retained substantially all risks and rewards of ownership and there will be no need to perform any computations. In other cases, it will be necessary to compute and compare the entity's exposure to the variability in the present value of the future net cash flows before and after the transfer. The computation and comparison is made using as the discount rate an appropriate current market interest rate. All reasonably possible variability in net cash flows is considered, with greater weight being given to those outcomes that are more likely to occur.
22. Whether the entity has retained control (see paragraph 19 C.) of the transferred asset depends on the transferee's ability to sell the asset. If the transferee has the practical ability to sell the asset in its entirety to an unrelated party and is able to exercise that ability unilaterally and without needing to impose additional restrictions on the transfer, the entity has not retained control. In all other cases, the entity has retained control.
23. In consolidated financial statements, paragraphs 15-22 are applied at a consolidated level. Hence, an entity first consolidates all subsidiaries in accordance with AS 21 and then applies paragraphs 15-22 to the resulting group.

Transfers that Qualify for Derecognition (see paragraph 19 A. and C. a.)

- 24. If an entity transfers a financial asset in a transfer that qualifies for derecognition in its entirety and retains the right to service the financial asset for a fee, it should recognise either a servicing asset or a servicing**

liability for that servicing contract. If the fee to be received is not expected to compensate the entity adequately for performing the servicing, a servicing liability for the servicing obligation should be recognised at its fair value. If the fee to be received is expected to be more than adequate compensation for the servicing, a servicing asset should be recognised for the servicing right at an amount determined on the basis of an allocation of the carrying amount of the larger financial asset in accordance with paragraph 27.

25. If, as a result of a transfer, a financial asset is derecognised in its entirety but the transfer results in the entity obtaining a new financial asset or assuming a new financial liability, or a servicing liability, the entity should recognise the new financial asset, financial liability or servicing liability at fair value.

26. On derecognition of a financial asset in its entirety, the difference between:

A. the carrying amount and

B. the sum of a. the consideration received (including any new asset obtained less any new liability assumed) and b. any cumulative gain or loss that had been recognised directly in an equity account, say, Investment Revaluation Reserve Account (see paragraph 61 B.)

should be recognised in the statement of profit and loss.

27. If the transferred asset is part of a larger financial asset (e.g., when an entity transfers interest cash flows that are part of a debt instrument, see paragraph 15 A.) and the part transferred qualifies for derecognition in its entirety, the previous carrying amount of the larger financial asset should be allocated between the part that continues to be recognised and the part that is derecognised, based on the relative fair values of those parts on the date of the transfer. For this purpose, a retained servicing asset should be treated as a part that continues to be recognised. The difference between:

A. the carrying amount allocated to the part derecognised and

B. the sum of a. the consideration received for the part derecognised (including any new asset obtained less any new liability assumed) and b. any cumulative gain or loss allocated to it that had been recognised directly in the equity account (see paragraph 61 B.)

should be recognised in the statement of profit and loss. A cumulative gain or loss that had been recognised in the equity account is allocated between the part that continues to be recognised and the part that is derecognised, based on the relative fair values of those parts.

28. When an entity allocates the previous carrying amount of a larger financial asset between the part that continues to be recognised and the part that is derecognised, the fair value of the part that continues to be recognised needs to be determined. When the entity has a history of selling parts similar to the part that continues to be recognised or other market transactions exist for such parts, recent prices of actual transactions provide the best estimate of its fair value. When there are no price quotes or recent market transactions to support the fair value of the part that continues to be recognised, the best estimate of the fair value is the difference between the fair value of the larger financial asset as a whole and the consideration received from the transferee for the part that is derecognised.

Transfers that Do Not Qualify for Derecognition (see paragraph 19 B.)

29. If a transfer does not result in derecognition because the entity has retained substantially all the risks and rewards of ownership of the

transferred asset, the entity should continue to recognise the transferred asset in its entirety and should recognise a financial liability for the consideration received. In subsequent periods, the entity should recognise any income on the transferred asset and any expense incurred on the financial liability.

Continuing Involvement in Transferred Assets (see paragraph 19 C. b.)

- 30. If an entity neither transfers nor retains substantially all the risks and rewards of ownership of a transferred asset, but retains control of the transferred asset, the entity continues to recognise the transferred asset to the extent of its continuing involvement. The extent of the entity's continuing involvement in the transferred asset is the extent to which it is exposed to changes in the value of the transferred asset. For example:**
 - A. when the entity's continuing involvement takes the form of guaranteeing the transferred asset, the extent of the entity's continuing involvement is the lower of a. the carrying amount of the asset and b. the maximum amount of the consideration received that the entity could be required to repay (the guarantee amount).**
 - B. when the entity's continuing involvement takes the form of a written or purchased option (or both) on the transferred asset, the extent of the entity's continuing involvement is the amount of the transferred asset that the entity may repurchase. However, in case of a written put option on an asset that is measured at fair value, the extent of the entity's continuing involvement is limited to the lower of the fair value of the transferred asset and the option exercise price.**
 - C. when the entity's continuing involvement takes the form of a cash-settled option or similar provision on the transferred asset, the extent of the entity's continuing involvement is measured in the same way as that which results from non-cash settled options as set out in B. above.**
- 31. When an entity continues to recognise an asset to the extent of its continuing involvement, the entity also recognises an associated liability. Despite the other measurement requirements in this Standard, the transferred asset and the associated liability are measured on a basis that reflects the rights and obligations that the entity has retained. The associated liability is measured in such a way that the net carrying amount of the transferred asset and the associated liability is:**
 - A. the amortised cost of the rights and obligations retained by the entity, if the transferred asset is measured at amortised cost; or**
 - B. equal to the fair value of the rights and obligations retained by the entity when measured on a stand-alone basis, if the transferred asset is measured at fair value.**
- 32. The entity should continue to recognise any income arising on the transferred asset to the extent of its continuing involvement and should recognise any expense incurred on the associated liability.**
- 33. For the purpose of subsequent measurement, recognised changes in the fair value of the transferred asset and the associated liability are accounted for consistently with each other in accordance with paragraph 61, and should not be offset.**
- 34. If an entity's continuing involvement is in only a part of a financial asset (e.g., when an entity retains an option to repurchase part of a transferred asset, or retains a residual interest that does not result in**

the retention of substantially all the risks and rewards of ownership and the entity retains control), the entity allocates the previous carrying amount of the financial asset between the part it continues to recognise under continuing involvement, and the part it no longer recognises on the basis of the relative fair values of those parts on the date of the transfer. For this purpose, the requirements of paragraph 28 apply. The difference between:

- A. the carrying amount allocated to the part that is no longer recognised; and**
- B. the sum of a. the consideration received for the part no longer recognised and b. any cumulative gain or loss allocated to it that had been recognised directly in the appropriate equity account (see paragraph 61 B.)**

should be recognised in the statement of profit and loss. A cumulative gain or loss that had been recognised in the equity account is allocated between the part that continues to be recognised and the part that is no longer recognised on the basis of the relative fair values of those parts.

35. If the transferred asset is measured at amortised cost, the option in this Standard to designate a financial liability as at fair value through profit or loss is not applicable to the associated liability.

All Transfers

36. **If a transferred asset continues to be recognised, the asset and the associated liability should not be offset. Similarly, the entity should not offset any income arising from the transferred asset with any expense incurred on the associated liability (see AS 31, Financial Instruments: Presentation, paragraph 72).**

37. **If a transferor provides non-cash collateral (such as debt or equity instruments) to the transferee, the accounting for the collateral by the transferor and the transferee depends on whether the transferee has the right to sell or repledge the collateral and on whether the transferor has defaulted. The transferor and transferee should account for the collateral as follows:**

- A. If the transferee has the right by contract or custom to sell or repledge the collateral, then the transferor should reclassify that asset in its balance sheet (e.g., as a loaned asset, pledged equity instruments or repurchase receivable) separately from other assets.**
- B. If the transferee sells collateral pledged to it, it should recognise the proceeds from the sale and a liability measured at fair value for its obligation to return the collateral.**
- C. If the transferor defaults under the terms of the contract and is no longer entitled to redeem the collateral, it should derecognise the collateral, and the transferee should recognise the collateral as its asset initially measured at fair value or, if it has already sold the collateral, derecognise its obligation to return the collateral.**
- D. Except as provided in C., the transferor should continue to carry the collateral as its asset, and the transferee should not recognise the collateral as an asset.**

Regular Way Purchase or Sale of a Financial Asset

38. **A regular way purchase or sale of financial assets should be recognised and derecognised using trade date accounting or settlement date accounting.**

39. A regular way purchase or sale of financial assets is recognised using either trade date accounting or settlement date accounting as described in paragraphs 41 and 42. The method used is applied consistently for all purchases and sales of financial assets that belong to the same category of financial assets defined in paragraphs 8. For this purpose, assets that are held for trading form a separate category from assets designated at fair value through profit or loss.
40. A contract that requires or permits net settlement of the change in the value of the contract is not a regular way contract. Instead, such a contract is accounted for as a derivative in the period between the trade date and the settlement date.
41. The trade date is the date that an entity commits itself to purchase or sell an asset. Trade date accounting refers to A. the recognition of an asset to be received and the liability to pay for it on the trade date, and B. derecognition of an asset that is sold, recognition of any gain or loss on disposal and the recognition of a receivable from the buyer for payment on the trade date. Generally, interest does not start to accrue on the asset and corresponding liability until the settlement date when title passes.
42. The settlement date is the date on which an asset is delivered to or by an entity. Settlement date accounting refers to A. the recognition of an asset on the day it is received by the entity, and B. the derecognition of an asset and recognition of any gain or loss on disposal on the day that it is delivered by the entity. When settlement date accounting is applied, an entity accounts for any change in the fair value of the asset to be received during the period between the trade date and the settlement date in the same way as it accounts for the acquired asset. In other words, the change in value is not recognised for assets carried at cost or amortised cost; it is recognised in the statement of profit and loss for assets classified as financial assets at fair value through profit or loss; and it is recognised in the appropriate equity account for assets classified as available for sale.

Derecognition of a Financial Liability

43. ***An entity should remove a financial liability (or a part of a financial liability) from its balance sheet when, and only when, it is extinguished—i.e., when the obligation specified in the contract is discharged or cancelled or expires.***
44. ***An exchange between an existing borrower and lender of debt instruments with substantially different terms should be accounted for as an extinguishment of the original financial liability and the recognition of a new financial liability. Similarly, a substantial modification of the terms of an existing financial liability or a part of it (whether or not attributable to the financial difficulty of the debtor) should be accounted for as an extinguishment of the original financial liability and the recognition of a new financial liability.***
45. ***The difference between the carrying amount of a financial liability (or part of a financial liability) extinguished or transferred to another party and the consideration paid, including any non-cash assets transferred or liabilities assumed, should be recognised in the statement of profit and loss.***
46. If an entity repurchases a part of a financial liability, the entity allocates the previous carrying amount of the financial liability between the part that continues to be recognised and the part that is derecognised based on the relative fair values of those parts on the date of the repurchase. The difference between A. the carrying amount allocated to the part derecognized and B. the consideration paid, including any non-cash assets transferred or liabilities assumed, for the part derecognised is recognised in the statement of profit and loss.

Measurement

Initial Measurement of Financial Assets and Financial Liabilities

- 47. When a financial asset or financial liability is recognised initially, an entity should measure it as follows:**
- A. A financial asset or financial liability at fair value through profit or loss should be measured at fair value on the date of acquisition or issue.**
 - B. Short-term receivables and payables with no stated interest rate should be measured at original invoice amount if the effect of discounting is immaterial.**
 - C. Other financial assets or financial liabilities should be measured at fair value plus/ minus transaction costs that are directly attributable to the acquisition or issue of the financial asset or financial liability.**
- 48.** When an entity uses settlement date accounting for an asset that is subsequently measured at cost or amortised cost, the asset is recognised initially at its fair value on the trade date (see paragraphs 38–42).
- 49.** Often it will be obvious whether the effect of discounting of short-term receivables and payables would be material or immaterial and there would be no need to make detailed calculations. In other cases, it will be necessary to make detailed calculations.

Subsequent Measurement of Financial Assets

- 50.** For the purpose of measuring a financial asset after initial recognition, this Standard classifies financial assets into the following four Categories defined in paragraph 8:
- A. financial assets at fair value through profit or loss;
 - B. held-to-maturity investments;
 - C. loans and receivables; and
 - D. available-for-sale financial assets.
- These categories apply to measurement and profit or loss recognition under this Standard. The entity may use other descriptors for these categories or other categorisations when presenting information on the face of the financial statements. The entity should disclose in the notes the information required by AS 32 on Financial Instruments: Disclosures.
- 51. After initial recognition, an entity should measure financial assets, including derivatives that are assets, at their fair values, without any deduction for transaction costs it may incur on sale or other disposal, except for the following financial assets:**
- A. loans and receivables as defined in paragraph 8.4, which should be measured at amortised cost using the effective interest method. However, short-term receivables with no stated interest rate should not be measured at amortised cost if the effect of discounting is immaterial. Such short-term receivables should be measured at the original invoice amount;**
 - B. held-to-maturity investments as defined in paragraph 8.3, which should be measured at amortised cost using the effective interest method; and**
 - C. investments in equity instruments that do not have a quoted market price in an active market and whose fair value can not be reliably measured and derivatives that are linked to and must be settled by delivery of such unquoted equity instruments, which should be measured at cost.**

Financial assets that are designated as hedged items are subject to measurement under the hedge accounting requirements in paragraphs 99-113. All financial assets except those measured at fair value through profit or loss are subject to review for impairment in accordance with paragraphs 64-79.

Subsequent Measurement of Financial Liabilities

- 52. After initial recognition, an entity should measure all financial liabilities at amortised cost using the effective interest method, except for:**
- A. financial liabilities at fair value through profit or loss. Such liabilities, including derivatives that are liabilities, should be measured at fair value other than a derivative liability that is linked to and must be settled by delivery of an unquoted equity instrument whose fair value cannot be reliably measured, which should be measured at cost.**
 - B. financial liabilities that arise when a transfer of a financial asset does not qualify for derecognition or when the continuing involvement approach applies. Paragraphs 29 and 31 apply to the measurement of such financial liabilities.**
 - C. short-term payables with no stated interest rate should be measured at the original invoice amount if the effect of discounting is immaterial.**
 - D. financial guarantee contracts as defined in paragraph 8.6. After initial recognition, an issuer of such a contract should (unless paragraph 52 A. or D. applies) measure it at the higher of:**
 - a. the amount determined in accordance with AS 29; and**
 - b. the amount initially recognised (see paragraphs 47-49) less, when appropriate, cumulative amortisation recognised, if any.**
 - E. commitments to provide a loan at a below-market interest rate. After initial recognition, an issuer of such a commitment should (unless paragraph 52 A. applies) measure it at the higher of:**
 - a. the amount determined in accordance with AS 29; and**
 - b. the amount initially recognised (see paragraphs 47-49) less, when appropriate, cumulative amortisation recognised, if any.**
- Financial liabilities that are designated as hedged items are subject to the hedge accounting requirements in paragraphs 99-113.**

Fair Value Measurement Considerations

- 53. In determining the fair value of a financial asset or a financial liability for the purpose of applying this Standard, AS 31, Financial Instruments: Presentation or AS 32 on Financial Instruments: Disclosures.**
- 54.** The best evidence of fair value is quoted prices in an active market. If the market for a financial instrument is not active, an entity establishes fair value by using a valuation technique. The objective of using a valuation technique is to establish what the transaction price would have been on the measurement date in an arm's length exchange motivated by normal business considerations. Valuation techniques include using recent arm's length market transactions between knowledgeable, willing parties, if available, reference to the current fair value of another instrument that is substantially the same, discounted cash flow analysis and option pricing models. If there is a valuation technique commonly used by market participants to price the instrument and that technique has been demonstrated to provide reliable estimates of prices obtained in actual market

transactions, the entity uses that technique. The chosen valuation technique makes maximum use of market inputs and relies as little as possible on entity-specific inputs. It incorporates all factors that market participants would consider in setting a price and is consistent with accepted economic methodologies for pricing financial instruments. Periodically, an entity calibrates the valuation technique and tests it for validity using prices from any observable current market transactions in the same instrument (i.e., without modification or repackaging) or based on any available observable market data.

55. The fair value of a financial liability with a demand feature (e.g., a demand deposit) is not less than the amount payable on demand, discounted from the first date that the amount could be required to be paid.

Reclassifications

56. ***An entity should not reclassify a financial instrument into or out of the fair value through profit or loss category while it is held or issued.***
57. ***If, as a result of a change in intention or ability, it is no longer appropriate to classify an investment as held to maturity, it should be reclassified as available for sale and remeasured at fair value, and the difference between its carrying amount and fair value should be accounted for in accordance with paragraph 61 B..***
58. ***Whenever sales or reclassification of more than an insignificant amount of held to maturity investments do not meet any of the conditions in paragraph 8, any remaining held to maturity investments should be reclassified as available for sale. On such reclassification, the difference between their carrying amount and fair value should be accounted for in accordance with paragraph 61B...***
59. ***If a reliable measure becomes available for a financial asset or financial liability for which such a measure was previously not available, and the asset or liability is required to be measured at fair value if a reliable measure is available (see paragraphs 51 C. and 52), the asset or liability should be remeasured at fair value, and the difference between its carrying amount and fair value should be accounted for in accordance with paragraph 61.***
60. ***If,***
- A. as a result of a change in intention or ability; or***
 - B. in the rare circumstance that a reliable measure of fair value is no longer available (see paragraphs 51 C. and 52); or***
 - C. the two preceding financial years 'referred to in paragraph 8 have passed,***
- it becomes appropriate to carry a financial asset or financial liability at cost or amortised cost rather than at fair value, the fair value carrying amount of the financial asset or the financial liability on that date becomes its new cost or amortised cost, as applicable. Any previous gain or loss on that asset that has been recognised directly in the appropriate equity account in accordance with paragraph 61 D. should be accounted for as follows:***
- A. In the case of a financial asset with a fixed maturity, the gain or loss should be amortised to the statement of profit and loss over the remaining life of the held to maturity investment using the effective interest method. Any difference between the new amortised cost and maturity amount should also be amortised over the remaining life of the financial asset using the effective interest method, similar to the amortisation of a premium and a discount. If the financial asset is subsequently impaired, any gain or loss that has been recognised directly in the appropriate equity***

account is recognised in the statement of profit and loss in accordance with paragraph 76.

- B.** *In the case of a financial asset that does not have a fixed maturity, the gain or loss should remain in the appropriate equity account until the financial asset is sold or otherwise disposed of, when it should be recognised in the statement profit and loss. If the financial asset is subsequently impaired any previous gain or loss that has been recognised directly in the appropriate equity account is recognised in the statement of profit and loss in accordance with paragraph 76.*

Gains and Losses

- 61.** *A gain or loss arising from a change in the fair value of a financial asset or financial liability that is not part of a hedging relationship (see paragraphs 99-113), should be recognised, as follows.*
- A.** *A gain or loss on a financial asset or financial liability classified as at fair value through profit or loss should be recognised in the statement of profit and loss.*
- B.** *A gain or loss on an available-for-sale financial asset should be recognised directly in an appropriate equity account, say, Investment Revaluation Reserve Account, except for impairment losses (see paragraphs 76-79) and foreign exchange gains and losses, until the financial asset is derecognised, at which time the cumulative gain or loss previously recognised in the appropriate equity account should be recognised in the statement of profit and loss. However, interest calculated using the effective interest method (see paragraph 8) is recognised in the statement of profit and loss. Dividends on an available-for-sale equity instrument are recognised in the statement of profit and loss when the entity's right to receive payment is established (see AS 9, Revenue Recognition).*
- 62.** *For financial assets and financial liabilities carried at amortised cost (see paragraphs 51 and 52), a gain or loss is recognised in the statement of profit and loss when the financial asset or financial liability is derecognised or impaired, and through the amortisation process. However, for financial assets or financial liabilities that are hedged items (see paragraphs 87- 94) the accounting for the gain or loss should follow paragraphs 99-113.*
- 63.** *If an entity recognises financial assets using settlement date accounting (see paragraphs 38-42), any change in the fair value of the asset to be received during the period between the trade date and the settlement date is not recognised for assets carried at cost or amortised cost (other than impairment losses). For assets carried at fair value, however, the change in fair value should be recognised in the statement of profit and loss or in the appropriate equity account, as appropriate under paragraph 61.*

Impairment and Uncollectibility of Financial Assets

- 64.** *An entity should assess at each balance sheet date whether there is any objective evidence that a financial asset or group of financial assets is impaired. If any such evidence exists, the entity should apply paragraph 69 (for financial assets carried at amortised cost), paragraph 72-74 (for short-term receivables with no stated interest rate carried at original invoice amount), paragraph 75 (for financial assets carried at*

cost) or paragraph 76 (for available-for-sale financial assets) to determine the amount of any impairment loss.

65. A financial asset or a group of financial assets is impaired and impairment losses are incurred if, and only if, there is objective evidence of impairment as a result of one or more events that occurred after the initial recognition of the asset (a loss event) and that loss event (or events) has an impact on the estimated future cash flows of the financial asset or group of financial assets that can be reliably estimated. It may not be possible to identify a single, discrete event that caused the impairment. Rather the combined effect of several events may have caused the impairment. Losses expected as a result of future events, no matter how likely, are not recognised. Objective evidence that a financial asset or group of assets is impaired includes observable data that comes to the attention of the holder of the asset about the following loss events:
- A. significant financial difficulty of the issuer or obligor;
 - B. a breach of contract, such as a default or delinquency in interest or principal payments;
 - C. the lender, for economic or legal reasons relating to the borrower's financial difficulty, granting to the borrower a concession that the lender would not otherwise consider;
 - D. it becoming probable that the borrower will enter bankruptcy or other financial reorganisation;
 - E. an active market no longer exists for that financial asset because of financial difficulties; or
 - F. observable data indicating that there is a measurable decrease in the estimated future cash flows from a group of financial assets since the initial recognition of those assets, although the decrease cannot yet be identified with the individual financial assets in the group, including:
 - a. adverse changes in the payment status of borrowers in the group (e.g., an increased number of delayed payments or an increased number of credit card borrowers who have reached their credit limit and are paying the minimum monthly amount); or
 - b. national or local economic conditions that correlate with defaults on the assets in the group (e.g., an increase in the unemployment rate in the geographical area of the borrowers, a decrease in property prices for mortgages in the relevant area, a decrease in oil prices for loan assets to oil producers, or adverse changes in industry conditions that affect the borrowers in the group).
66. In case an active market no longer exists because an entity's financial instruments have ceased to be publicly traded is not evidence of impairment. A downgrade of an entity's credit rating is not, by itself, evidence of impairment, although it may be evidence of impairment when considered with other available information. A decline in the fair value of a financial asset below its cost or amortised cost is not necessarily evidence of impairment (for example, a decline in the fair value of an investment in a debt instrument that results from an increase in the risk-free interest rate).
67. In addition to the types of events in paragraph 65, objective evidence of impairment for an investment in an equity instrument includes information about significant changes with an adverse effect that have taken place in the technological, market, economic or legal environment in which the issuer operates, and indicates that the cost of the investment in the equity instrument may not be recovered. A significant or prolonged decline in the fair value of an investment in an equity instrument below its cost is also objective evidence of impairment.
68. In some cases the observable data required to estimate the amount of an impairment loss on a financial asset may be limited or no longer fully relevant to

current circumstances. For example, this may be the case when a borrower is in financial difficulties and there are few available historical data relating to similar borrowers. In such cases, an entity uses its experienced judgement to estimate the amount of any impairment loss. Similarly an entity uses its experienced judgement to adjust observable data for a group of financial assets to reflect current circumstances. The use of reasonable estimates is an essential part of the preparation of financial statements and does not undermine their reliability.

Financial Assets Carried at Amortised Cost

- 69. *If there is objective evidence that an impairment loss on loans and receivables or held to maturity investments carried at amortised cost has been incurred, the amount of the loss is measured as the difference between the asset's carrying amount and the present value of estimated future cash flows (excluding future credit losses that have not been incurred) discounted at the financial asset's original effective interest rate (i.e., the effective interest rate computed at initial recognition). The carrying amount of the asset should be reduced either directly or through use of an allowance account. The amount of the loss should be recognised in the statement of profit and loss.***
70. An entity first assesses whether objective evidence of impairment exists individually for financial assets that are individually significant, and individually or collectively for financial assets that are not individually significant (see paragraph 65). If an entity determines that no objective evidence of impairment exists for an individually assessed financial asset, whether significant or not, it includes the asset in a group of financial assets with similar credit risk characteristics and collectively assesses them for impairment. Assets that are individually assessed for impairment and for which an impairment loss is or continues to be recognised are not included in a collective assessment of impairment.
- 71. *If, in a subsequent period, the amount of the impairment loss decreases and the decrease can be related objectively to an event occurring after the impairment was recognised (such as an improvement in the debtor's credit rating), the previously recognised impairment loss should be reversed either directly or by adjusting an allowance account. The reversal should not result in a carrying amount of the financial asset that exceeds what the amortised cost would have been had the impairment not been recognised at the date the impairment is reversed. The amount of the reversal should be recognised in the statement of profit and loss.*** **Short-term Receivables Carried at Original Invoice Amount**
- 72. *If there is objective evidence that an impairment loss on short-term receivables carried at original invoice amount has been incurred (i.e., some of the short-term receivables may not be recoverable), the amount of the loss is measured as the difference between the receivables' carrying amount and the undiscounted amount of estimated future cash flows (excluding future credit losses that have not been incurred). The carrying amount of the receivables should be reduced either directly or through use of an allowance account. The amount of the loss should be recognised in the statement of profit and loss.***
73. An entity first assesses whether objective evidence of impairment exists individually for short-term receivables that are individually significant, and individually or collectively for short-term receivables that are not individually significant (see paragraph 65). If an entity determines that no objective evidence of impairment exists for an individually assessed short-term receivable, whether significant or not, it includes the receivable in a group of short-term

receivables with similar credit risk characteristics and collectively assesses them for impairment. Short-term receivables that are individually assessed for impairment and for which an impairment loss is or continues to be recognised are not included in a collective assessment of impairment.

- 74. If, in a subsequent period, the amount of the impairment loss decreases and the decrease can be related objectively to an event occurring after the impairment was recognised (such as an improvement in the debtor's credit rating), the previously recognised impairment loss should be reversed either directly or by adjusting the allowance account. The reversal should not result in a carrying amount of the short-term receivable that exceeds what the amount would have been had the impairment not been recognised at the date the impairment is reversed. The amount of the reversal should be recognised in the statement of profit and loss.**

Financial Assets Carried at Cost

- 75. If there is objective evidence that an impairment loss has been incurred on an unquoted equity instrument that is not carried at fair value because its fair value cannot be reliably measured, or on a derivative asset that is linked to and must be settled by delivery of such an unquoted equity instrument, the amount of the impairment loss is measured as the difference between the carrying amount of the financial asset and the present value of estimated future cash flows discounted at the current market rate of return for a similar financial asset (see paragraph 51 C.). The amount of the loss should be recognised in the statement of profit and loss. Such impairment losses should not be reversed.**

Available-for-Sale Financial Assets

- 76. When a decline in the fair value of an available-for-sale financial asset has been recognised directly in the appropriate equity account and there is objective evidence that the asset is impaired (see paragraph 65), the cumulative loss that had been recognised directly in the equity account should be removed from the equity account and recognised in the statement of profit and loss even though the financial asset has not been derecognised.**
- 77. The amount of the cumulative loss that is removed from the equity account and recognised in the statement of profit and loss under paragraph 76 should be the difference between the acquisition cost (net of any principal repayment and amortisation) and current fair value, less any impairment loss on that financial asset previously recognised in the statement of profit and loss.**
- 78. Impairment losses recognised in the statement of profit and loss for an investment in an equity instrument classified as available for sale should not be reversed through the statement of profit and loss. This is because in case of equity instruments classified as available for sale, reversals of impairment losses cannot be distinguished from other increases in fair value.**
- 79. If, in a subsequent period, the fair value of a debt instrument classified as available for sale increases and the increase can be objectively related to an event occurring after the impairment loss was recognised in the statement of profit and loss, the impairment loss should be reversed, with the amount of the reversal recognised in the statement of profit and loss.**

Hedging

- 80. *If there is a designated hedging relationship between a hedging instrument and a hedged item as described in paragraphs 95-98, accounting for the gain or loss on the hedging instrument and the hedged item should follow paragraphs 99-113.***

Hedging Instruments

Qualifying Instruments

81. This Standard does not restrict the circumstances in which a derivative may be designated as a hedging instrument provided the conditions in paragraph 98 are met, except for some written options. However, a non-derivative financial asset or non-derivative financial liability may be designated as a hedging instrument only for a hedge of a foreign currency risk.
82. For hedge accounting purposes, only instruments that involve a party external to the reporting entity (i.e., external to the group, segment or individual entity that is being reported on) can be designated as hedging instruments. Although individual entities within a consolidated group or divisions within an entity may enter into hedging transactions with other entities within the group or divisions within the entity, any such intra-group transactions are eliminated on consolidation. Therefore, such hedging transactions do not qualify for hedge accounting in the consolidated financial statements of the group. However, they may qualify for hedge accounting in the individual or separate financial statements of individual entities within the group or in segment reporting provided that they are external to the individual entity or segment that is being reported on.

Designation of Hedging Instruments

83. There is normally a single fair value measure for a hedging instrument in its entirety, and the factors that cause changes in fair value are co-dependent. Thus, a hedging relationship is designated by an entity for a hedging instrument in its entirety. The only exceptions permitted are:
- A. separating the intrinsic value and time value of an option contract and designating as the hedging instrument only the change in intrinsic value of an option and excluding change in its time value; and
 - B. separating the interest element and the spot price of a forward contract.
- These exceptions are permitted because the intrinsic value of the option and the premium on the forward can generally be measured separately. A dynamic hedging strategy that assesses both the intrinsic value and time value of an option contract can qualify for hedge accounting.
84. A proportion of the entire hedging instrument, such as 50 per cent of the notional amount, may be designated as the hedging instrument in a hedging relationship. However, a hedging relationship may not be designated for only a portion of the time period during which a hedging instrument remains outstanding.
85. A single hedging instrument may be designated as a hedge of more than one type of risk provided that A. the risks hedged can be identified clearly; B. the effectiveness of the hedge can be demonstrated; and C. it is possible to ensure that there is specific designation of the hedging instrument and different risk positions.
86. Two or more derivatives, or proportions of them (or, in the case of a hedge of currency risk, two or more non-derivatives or proportions of them, or a combination of derivatives and non-derivatives or proportions of them), may be viewed in combination and jointly designated as the hedging instrument, including when the risk(s) arising from some derivatives offset(s) those arising

from others. However, an interest rate collar or other derivative instrument that combines a written option and a purchased option does not qualify as a hedging instrument if it is, in effect, a net written option (for which a net premium is received). Similarly, two or more instruments (or proportions of them) may be designated as the hedging instrument only if none of them is a written option or a net written option.

Hedged Items

Qualifying Items

87. A hedged item can be a recognised asset or liability, an unrecognised firm commitment, a highly probable forecast transaction or a net investment in a foreign operation. The hedged item can be A. a single asset, liability, firm commitment, highly probable forecast transaction or net investment in a foreign operation, B. a group of assets, liabilities, firm commitments, highly probable forecast transactions or net investments in foreign operations with similar risk characteristics or C. in a portfolio hedge of interest rate risk only, a portion of the portfolio of financial assets or financial liabilities that share the risk being hedged.
88. Unlike loans and receivables, a held to maturity investment cannot be a hedged item with respect to interest-rate risk or prepayment risk because designation of an investment as held to maturity requires an intention to hold the investment until maturity without regard to changes in the fair value or cash flows of such an investment attributable to changes in interest rates. However, a held to maturity investment can be a hedged item with respect to risks from changes in foreign currency exchange rates and credit risk.
89. For hedge accounting purposes, only assets, liabilities, firm commitments or highly probable forecast transactions that involve a party external to the entity can be designated as hedged items. It follows that hedge accounting can be applied to transactions between entities or segments in the same group only in the individual or separate financial statements of those entities or segments and not in the consolidated financial statements of the group. As an exception, the foreign currency risk of an intra-group monetary item (e.g., a payable/receivable between two subsidiaries) may qualify as a hedged item in the consolidated financial statements if it results in an exposure to foreign exchange rate gains or losses that are not fully eliminated on consolidation in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 11, The Effects of Changes in Foreign Exchange Rates. In accordance with AS 11, foreign exchange rate gains and losses on intra-group monetary item are not fully eliminated on consolidation when the intra-group monetary item is transacted between two group entities that have different functional currencies. In addition, the foreign currency risk of a highly probable forecast intra-group transaction may qualify as a hedged item in consolidated financial statements provided that the transaction is denominated in a currency other than the functional currency of the entity entering into that transaction and the foreign currency risk will affect consolidated profit or loss.

Designation of Financial Items as Hedged Items

90. If the hedged item is a financial asset or financial liability, it may be a hedged item with respect to the risks associated with only a portion of its cash flows or fair value (such as one or more selected contractual cash flows or portions of them or a percentage of the fair value) provided that effectiveness can be measured. For example, an identifiable and separately measurable portion of the interest rate exposure of an interest-bearing asset or interest-bearing liability may be designated as the hedged risk (such as a risk-free interest rate or benchmark interest rate component of the total interest rate exposure of a hedged financial instrument).

91. In a fair value hedge of the interest rate exposure of a portfolio of financial assets or financial liabilities (and only in such a hedge), the portion hedged may be designated in terms of an amount of a currency (e.g. an amount of rupees, dollars, euro, pounds or rand) rather than as individual assets (or liabilities). Although the portfolio may, for risk management purposes, include assets and liabilities, the amount designated is an amount of assets or an amount of liabilities. Designation of a net amount including assets and liabilities is not permitted. The entity may hedge a portion of the interest rate risk associated with this designated amount. For example, in the case of a hedge of a portfolio containing prepayable assets, the entity may hedge the change in fair value that is attributable to a change in the hedged interest rate on the basis of expected, rather than contractual, repricing dates. When the portion hedged is based on expected repricing dates, the effect that changes in the hedged interest rate have on those expected repricing dates should be included when determining the change in the fair value of the hedged item. Consequently, if a portfolio that contains prepayable items is hedged with a non-prepayable derivative, ineffectiveness arises if the dates on which items in the hedged portfolio are expected to prepay are revised, or actual prepayment dates differ from those expected.

Designation of Non-Financial Items as Hedged Items

92. *If the hedged item is a non-financial asset or non-financial liability, it should be designated as a hedged item A. for foreign currency risks, or B. in its entirety for all risks, because of the difficulty of isolating and measuring the appropriate portion of the cash flows or fair value changes attributable to specific risks other than foreign currency risks.*

Designation of groups of items as hedged items

93. Similar assets or similar liabilities are aggregated and hedged as a group only if the individual assets or individual liabilities in the group share the risk exposure that is designated as being hedged. Furthermore, the change in fair value attributable to the hedged risk for each individual item in the group is expected to be approximately proportional to the overall change in fair value attributable to the hedged risk of the group of items.
94. Because an entity assesses hedge effectiveness by comparing the change in the fair value or cash flow of a hedging instrument (or group of similar hedging instruments) and a hedged item (or group of similar hedged items), comparing a hedging instrument with an overall net position (e.g., the net of all fixed rate assets and fixed rate liabilities with similar maturities), rather than with a specific hedged item, does not qualify for hedge accounting.

Hedge Accounting

95. Hedge accounting recognises the offsetting effects on profit or loss of changes in the fair values of the hedging instrument and the hedged item.
96. **Hedging relationships are of three types:**
- A. **fair value hedge: a hedge of the exposure to changes in fair value of a recognised asset or liability or an unrecognised firm commitment, or an identified portion of such an asset, liability or firm commitment, that is attributable to a particular risk and could affect profit or loss.**
 - B. **cash flow hedge: a hedge of the exposure to variability in cash flows that a. is attributable to a particular risk associated with a recognised asset or liability (such as all or some future interest**

payments on variable rate debt) or a highly probable forecast transaction and b. could affect profit or loss.

C. hedge of a net investment in a foreign operation as defined in AS 11.

97. A hedge of the foreign currency risk of a firm commitment may be accounted for as a fair value hedge or as a cash flow hedge.
98. **A hedging relationship qualifies for hedge accounting under paragraphs 99-113 if, and only if, all of the following conditions are met.**
- A. At the inception of the hedge there is formal designation and documentation of the hedging relationship and the entity's risk management objective and strategy for undertaking the hedge. That documentation should include identification of the hedging instrument, the hedged item or transaction, the nature of the risk being hedged and how the entity will assess the hedging instrument's effectiveness in offsetting the exposure to changes in the hedged item's fair value or cash flows attributable to the hedged risk.**
 - B. The hedge is expected to be highly effective in achieving offsetting changes in fair value or cash flows attributable to the hedged risk, consistently with the originally documented risk management strategy for that particular hedging relationship.**
 - C. For cash flow hedges, a forecast transaction that is the subject of the hedge must be highly probable and must present an exposure to variations in cash flows that could ultimately affect profit or loss.**
 - D. The effectiveness of the hedge can be reliably measured, i.e., the fair value or cash flows of the hedged item that are attributable to the hedged risk and the fair value of the hedging instrument can be reliably measured (see paragraphs 51 and 52).**
 - E. The hedge is assessed on an ongoing basis and determined actually to have been highly effective throughout the financial reporting periods for which the hedge was designated.**

Fair Value Hedges

99. **If a fair value hedge meets the conditions in paragraph 98 during the period, it should be accounted for as follows:**
- A. the gain or loss from remeasuring the hedging instrument at fair value (for a derivative hedging instrument) or the foreign currency component of its carrying amount measured in accordance with AS 11 (for a non-derivative hedging instrument) should be recognised in the statement of profit and loss; and**
 - B. the gain or loss on the hedged item attributable to the hedged risk should adjust the carrying amount of the hedged item and be recognised in the statement of profit and loss. This applies if the hedged item is otherwise measured at cost. Recognition of the gain or loss attributable to the hedged risk in the statement of profit and loss applies even if the hedged item is an available-for-sale financial asset.**
100. For a fair value hedge of the interest rate exposure of a portion of a portfolio of financial assets or financial liabilities (and only in such a hedge), the requirement in paragraph 99 B. may be met by presenting the gain or loss attributable to the hedged item either:
- A. in a single separate line item within assets, for those repricing time periods for which the hedged item is an asset; or

- B. in a single separate line item within liabilities, for those repricing time periods for which the hedged item is a liability.
- The separate line items referred to in A. and B. above are presented next to financial assets or financial liabilities. Amounts included in these line items are removed from the balance sheet when the assets or liabilities to which they relate are derecognised.
101. If only particular risks attributable to a hedged item are hedged, recognised changes in the fair value of the hedged item unrelated to the hedged risk are recognised as set out in paragraph 61.
- 102. An entity should discontinue prospectively the hedge accounting specified in paragraph 99 if:**
- A. the hedging instrument expires or is sold, terminated or exercised (for this purpose, the replacement or rollover of a hedging instrument into another hedging instrument is not an expiration or termination if such replacement or rollover is part of the entity's documented hedging strategy);**
 - B. the hedge no longer meets the criteria for hedge accounting in paragraph 98; or**
 - C. the entity revokes the designation.**
- 103. Any adjustment arising from paragraph 99 B. to the carrying amount of a hedged financial instrument for which the effective interest method is used (or, in the case of a portfolio hedge of interest rate risk, to the separate balance sheet line item described in paragraph 100) should be amortised to the statement of profit and loss. Amortisation may begin as soon as an adjustment exists and should begin no later than when the hedged item ceases to be adjusted for changes in its fair value attributable to the risk being hedged. The adjustment is based on a recalculated effective interest rate at the date amortisation begins. However, if, in the case of a fair value hedge of the interest rate exposure of a portfolio of financial assets or financial liabilities (and only in such a hedge), amortising using a recalculated effective interest rate is not practicable, the adjustment should be amortised using a straight-line method. The adjustment should be amortised fully by maturity of the financial instrument or, in the case of a portfolio hedge of interest rate risk, by expiry of the relevant repricing time period.**
104. When an unrecognised firm commitment is designated as a hedged item, the subsequent cumulative change in the fair value of the firm commitment attributable to the hedged risk is recognised as an asset or liability with a corresponding gain or loss recognised in the statement of profit and loss (see paragraph 99 B.). The changes in the fair value of the hedging instrument are also recognised in the statement of profit and loss.
105. When an entity enters into a firm commitment to acquire an asset or assume a liability that is a hedged item in a fair value hedge, the initial carrying amount of the asset or liability that results from the entity meeting the firm commitment is adjusted to include the cumulative change in the fair value of the firm commitment attributable to the hedged risk that was recognised in the balance sheet.

Cash Flow Hedges

- 106. If a cash flow hedge meets the conditions in paragraph 98 during the period, it should be accounted for as follows:**
- A. the portion of the gain or loss on the hedging instrument that is determined to be an effective hedge (see paragraph 98) should be recognised directly in an appropriate equity account, say, Hedging Reserve Account; and**

- B. the portion of the gain or loss on the hedging instrument that is determined to be an ineffective hedge should be recognised in the statement of profit and loss.**

107. More specifically, a cash flow hedge is accounted for as follows:

- A. the appropriate equity account (Hedging Reserve Account) associated with the hedged item is adjusted to the lesser of the following (in absolute amounts):
 - a. the cumulative gain or loss on the hedging instrument from inception of the hedge; and
 - b. the cumulative change in fair value (present value) of the expected future cash flows on the hedged item from inception of the hedge;
- B. any remaining gain or loss on the hedging instrument or designated component of it (that is not an effective hedge) is recognised in the statement of profit and loss; and
- C. if an entity's documented risk management strategy for a particular hedging relationship excludes from the assessment of hedge effectiveness a specific component of the gain or loss or related cash flows on the hedging instrument (see paragraphs 83, 84 and 98 A.), that excluded component of gain or loss is recognised in accordance with paragraph 61.

108. If a hedge of a forecast transaction subsequently results in the recognition of a financial asset or a financial liability, the associated gains or losses that were recognised directly in the appropriate equity account in accordance with paragraph 106 should be reclassified into, i.e., recognised in, the statement of profit and loss in the same period or periods during which the asset acquired or liability assumed affects profit or loss (such as in the periods that interest income or interest expense is recognised). However, if an entity expects that all or a portion of a loss recognised directly in the equity account will not be recovered in one or more future periods, it should reclassify into, i.e., recognise in, the statement of profit and loss the amount that is not expected to be recovered.

109. If a hedge of a forecast transaction subsequently results in the recognition of a nonfinancial asset or a non-financial liability, or a forecast transaction for a non-financial asset or non-financial liability becomes a firm commitment for which fair value hedge accounting is applied, then the entity should adopt A. or B. below:

- A. **It reclassifies, i.e., recognises, the associated gains and losses that were recognised directly in the appropriate equity account in accordance with paragraph 106 into the statement of profit and loss in the same period or periods during which the asset acquired or liability assumed affects profit or loss (such as in the periods that depreciation expense or cost of sales is recognised). However, if an entity expects that all or a portion of a loss recognised directly in the equity account will not be recovered in one or more future periods, it should reclassify into, i.e., recognise in, the statement of profit and loss the amount that is not expected to be recovered.**
- B. **It removes the associated gains and losses that were recognised directly in the equity account in accordance with paragraph 106, and includes them in the initial cost or other carrying amount of the asset or liability.**

110. An entity should adopt either A. or B. in paragraph 109 as its accounting policy and should apply it consistently to all hedges to which paragraph 109 relates.

- 111. For cash flow hedges other than those covered by paragraphs 108 and 109, amounts that had been recognised directly in the equity account should be reclassified into, i.e., recognised in, the statement of profit and loss in the same period or periods during which the hedged forecast transaction affects profit or loss (for example, when a forecast sale occurs).**
- 112. In any of the following circumstances an entity should discontinue prospectively the hedge accounting specified in paragraphs 106-111:**
- A. The hedging instrument expires or is sold, terminated or exercised (for this purpose, the replacement or rollover of a hedging instrument into another hedging instrument is not an expiration or termination if such replacement or rollover is part of the entity's documented hedging strategy). In this case, the cumulative gain or loss on the hedging instrument that remains recognised directly in the appropriate equity account from the period when the hedge was effective (see paragraph 106 A.) should remain separately recognised in the equity account until the forecast transaction occurs. When the transaction occurs, paragraph 108, 109 or 111 applies, as the case may be.**
 - B. The hedge no longer meets the criteria for hedge accounting in paragraph 98. In this case, the cumulative gain or loss on the hedging instrument that remains recognised directly in the equity account from the period when the hedge was effective (see paragraph 106 A.) should remain so separately recognised in the equity account until the forecast transaction occurs. When the transaction occurs, paragraph 108, 109 or 111 applies, as the case may be.**
 - C. The forecast transaction is no longer expected to occur, in which case any related cumulative gain or loss on the hedging instrument that remains recognised directly in the equity account from the period when the hedge was effective (see paragraph 106 A.) should be recognised in the statement of profit and loss. A forecast transaction that is no longer highly probable (see paragraph 98 C.) may still be expected to occur.**
 - D. The entity revokes the designation. For hedges of a forecast transaction, the cumulative gain or loss on the hedging instrument that remains recognised directly in the equity account from the period when the hedge was effective (see paragraph 106 A.) should remain separately recognised in the equity account until the forecast transaction occurs or is no longer expected to occur. When the transaction occurs, paragraph 108, 109 or 111 applies, as the case may be. If the transaction is no longer expected to occur, the cumulative gain or loss that had been recognised directly in the equity account should be recognised in the statement of profit and loss.**

Hedges of a Net Investment

- 113. Hedges of a net investment in a foreign operation (see AS 11), including a hedge of a monetary item that is accounted for as part of the net investment (see AS 11), should be accounted for similarly to cash flow hedges:**
- A. the portion of the gain or loss on the hedging instrument that is determined to be an effective hedge (see paragraph 98) should be recognised directly in the appropriate equity account; and**

- B. the portion of the gain or loss on the hedging instrument that is determined to be an ineffective hedge should be recognised in the statement of profit and loss.**

The gain or loss on the hedging instrument relating to the effective portion of the hedge that has been recognised directly in the equity account should be recognised in the statement of profit and loss on disposal of the foreign operation.

Transitional Provisions

Designation and Measurement of Financial Assets and Financial Liabilities

- 114. On the date of this Standard becoming mandatory, an entity should change the designation and measurement of all its financial assets and financial liabilities existing on that date as per the requirements of this Standard. Any resulting gain or loss (as adjusted by any related tax expense/ benefit) should be adjusted against opening balance of revenue reserves and surplus except gains and/or losses relating to the financial instruments which as per the requirements of this Standard are recognised in an appropriate equity account, say, Investment Revaluation Reserve Account. Such gains and/or losses should be recognised in the said equity account.**

Derecognition of Financial Assets and Financial Liabilities

- 115. The derecognition requirements in the Standard should be applied prospectively for transactions occurring on or after the date of this Standard becoming mandatory. An entity may, however, apply the derecognition requirements in the Standard retrospectively from a date of the entity's choosing, provided that the information needed to apply this Standard to financial assets and financial liabilities derecognised as a result of past transactions was obtained at the time of initially accounting for those transactions.**

- 116. The derecognition requirements in the Standard apply prospectively for transactions occurring on or after the date of this Standard becoming mandatory. This implies that if an entity has derecognised non-derivative financial assets or non-derivative financial liabilities under its previous accounting policy as a result of a transaction that occurred before the date of this Standard becoming mandatory, it should not recognise those assets and liabilities under Accounting Standards (unless they qualify for recognition as a result of a later transaction or event). This, however, does not prohibit an entity from applying the derecognition requirements in the Standard retrospectively from a date of the entity's choosing, provided that the information needed to apply this Standard to financial assets and financial liabilities derecognised as a result of past transactions was obtained at the time of initially accounting for those transactions.**

Hedge Accounting

- 117. As required by the Standard, on the date of this Standard becoming mandatory, an entity should:**

- A. measure all derivatives at fair value; and**
B. eliminate all deferred losses and gains, if any, arising on derivatives that under the previous accounting policy of the entity were reported as assets or liabilities. Any resulting gain or loss (as adjusted by any related tax expense/ benefit) should be adjusted against opening balance of revenue reserves and surplus.

- 118. On the date of this Standard becoming mandatory, an entity should not reflect in its financial statements a hedging relationship of a type that does not qualify for hedge accounting under this Standard (for example, hedging relationships where the hedging instrument is a cash instrument or written option; where the hedged item is a net position; or where the hedge covers interest risk in a held-to-maturity investment). However, if an entity designated a net position as a hedged item under its previous accounting policy, it may designate an individual item within that net position as a hedged item under Accounting Standards, provided that it does so on the date of this Standard becoming mandatory.**
- 119. If, before the date of this Standard becoming mandatory, an entity had designated a transaction as a hedge but the hedge does not meet the conditions for hedge accounting in this Standard, the entity should apply paragraphs 102 and 112 to discontinue hedge accounting. Transactions entered into before the date of this Standard becoming mandatory should not be retrospectively designated as hedges.**

Embedded Derivatives

- 120. An entity that applies this Standard for the first time should assess whether an embedded derivative is required to be separated from the host contract and accounted for as a derivative on the basis of the conditions that existed on the date it first became a party to the contract or on the date on which a reassessment is required, whichever is the later date.**

Accounting Standard – 31, Financial Instruments: Presentation (effecting from 2009, mandatory from 2011)

(This Accounting Standard includes paragraphs set in bold italic type and plain type, which have equal authority. Paragraphs in bold italic type indicate the main principles. This Accounting Standard should be read in the context of its objective and the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards.)

Accounting Standard (AS) 31, Financial Instruments: Presentation, issued by the Council of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, comes into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2009 and will be recommendatory in nature for an initial period of two years. This Accounting Standard will become mandatory in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2011 for all commercial, industrial and business entities except to a Small and Medium-sized Entity, as defined below:

- A. Whose equity or debt securities are not listed or are not in the process of listing on any stock exchange, whether in India or outside India;
- B. which is not a bank (including co-operative bank), financial institution or any entity carrying on insurance business;
- C. whose turnover (excluding other income) does not exceed rupees fifty crore in the immediately preceding accounting year;
- D. which does not have borrowings (including public deposits) in excess of rupees ten crore at any time during the immediately preceding accounting year; and
- E. which is not a holding or subsidiary entity of an entity which is not a small and medium-sized entity.

For the above purpose, an entity would qualify as a Small and Medium-sized Entity, if the conditions mentioned therein are satisfied as at the end of the relevant accounting period. Where, in respect of an entity there is a statutory requirement for presenting any financial instrument in a particular manner as liability or equity and/ or for presenting interest, dividend, losses and gains relating to a financial instrument in a particular manner as income/ expense or as distribution of profits, the entity should present that instrument and/ or interest, dividend, losses and gains relating to the instrument in accordance with the requirements of the statute governing the entity. Until the relevant statute is amended, the entity presenting that instrument and/ or interest, dividend, losses and gains relating to the instrument in accordance with the requirements thereof will be considered to be complying with this Accounting Standard, in view of paragraph 4 of the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards which recognises that where a requirement of an Accounting Standard is different from the applicable law, the law prevails. The following is the text of the Accounting Standard.

Objective

1. The objective of this Standard is to establish principles for presenting financial instruments as liabilities or equity and for offsetting financial assets and financial liabilities. It applies to the classification of financial instruments, from the perspective of the issuer, into financial assets, financial liabilities and equity instruments; the classification of related interest, dividends, losses and gains; and the circumstances in which financial assets and financial liabilities should be offset.
2. The principles in this Standard complement the principles for recognising and measuring financial assets and financial liabilities in Accounting Standard (AS) 30, Financial Instruments: Recognition and Measurement and for disclosing

information about them in Accounting Standard (AS) 32, Financial Instruments: Disclosures.

Scope

3. ***This Standard should be applied by all entities to all types of financial instruments except:***
 - A. ***those interests in subsidiaries, associates and joint ventures that are accounted for in accordance with AS 21, Consolidated Financial Statements and Accounting for Investments in Subsidiaries in Separate Financial Statements, AS 23, Accounting for Investments in Associates, or AS 27, Financial Reporting of Interests in Joint Ventures. However, in some cases, AS 21, AS 23 or AS 27 permits or requires an entity to account for an interest in a subsidiary, associate or joint venture using Accounting Standard (AS) 30, Financial Instruments: Recognition and Measurement; in those cases, entities should apply the disclosure requirements in AS 21, AS 23 or AS 27 in addition to those in this Standard. Entities should also apply this Standard to all derivatives linked to interests in subsidiaries, associates or joint ventures.***
 - B. ***employers' rights and obligations under employee benefit plans, to which AS 15, Employee Benefits, applies.***
 - C. ***contracts for contingent consideration in a business combination. This exemption applies only to the acquirer.***
 - D. ***insurance contracts as defined in the Accounting Standard on Insurance Contracts. However, this Standard applies to derivatives that are embedded in insurance contracts if Accounting Standard (AS) 30, Financial Instruments: Recognition and Measurement requires the entity to account for them separately. Moreover, an issuer should apply this Standard to financial guarantee contracts if the issuer applies AS 30 in recognising and measuring the contracts, but should apply the Accounting Standard on Insurance Contracts if the issuer elects, in accordance with the Accounting Standard on Insurance Contracts, to apply that Standard in recognising and measuring them.***
 - E. ***financial instruments that are within the scope of the Accounting Standard on Insurance Contracts because they contain a discretionary participation feature. The issuer of these instruments is exempt from applying to these features paragraphs 32-67 of this Standard regarding the distinction between financial liabilities and equity instruments. However, these instruments are subject to all other requirements of this Standard. Furthermore, this Standard applies to derivatives that are embedded in these instruments (see Accounting Standard (AS) 30, Financial Instruments: Recognition and Measurement).***
 - F. ***financial instruments, contracts and obligations under share-based payment transactions except for***
 - a. ***contracts within the scope of paragraphs 4-6 of this Standard, to which this Standard applies.***
 - b. ***paragraphs 67 to 69 of this Standard, which should be applied to treasury shares, purchased, sold, issued or cancelled in connection with employee share option plans, employees share purchase plans, and all other share-based payment arrangements.***

4. ***This Standard should be applied to those contracts to buy or sell a non-financial item that can be settled net in cash or another financial instrument, or by exchanging financial instruments, as if the contracts were financial instruments, with the exception of contracts that were entered into and continue to be held for the purpose of the receipt or delivery of a non-financial item in accordance with the entity's expected purchase, sale or usage requirements.***
5. There are various ways in which a contract to buy or sell a non-financial item can be settled net in cash or another financial instrument or by exchanging financial instruments. These include:
- A. when the terms of the contract permit either party to settle it net in cash or another financial instrument or by exchanging financial instruments;
 - B. when the ability to settle net in cash or another financial instrument, or by exchanging financial instruments, is not explicit in the terms of the contract, but the entity has a practice of settling similar contracts net in cash or another financial instrument, or by exchanging financial instruments (whether with the counterparty, by entering into offsetting contracts or by selling the contract before its exercise or lapse);
 - C. when, for similar contracts, the entity has a practice of taking delivery of the underlying and selling it within a short period after delivery for the purpose of generating a profit from short-term fluctuations in price or dealer's margin; and
 - D. when the non-financial item that is the subject of the contract is readily convertible to cash.
- A contract to which B. or C. applies is not entered into for the purpose of the receipt or delivery of the non-financial item in accordance with the entity's expected purchase, sale or usage requirements, and, accordingly, is within the scope of this Standard. Other contracts to which paragraph 4 applies are evaluated to determine whether they were entered into and continue to be held for the purpose of the receipt or delivery of the non-financial item in accordance with the entity's expected purchase, sale or usage requirement, and accordingly, whether they are within the scope of this Standard.
6. A written option to buy or sell a non-financial item that can be settled net in cash or another financial instrument, or by exchanging financial instruments, in accordance with paragraph 5 A. or B. is within the scope of this Standard. Such a contract cannot be entered into for the purpose of the receipt or delivery of the non-financial item in accordance with the entity's expected purchase, sale or usage requirements.

Definitions

7. ***The following terms are used in this Standard with the meanings specified:***

A financial instrument is any contract that gives rise to a financial asset of one entity and a financial liability or equity instrument of another entity.

A financial asset is any asset that is:

- A. ***cash;***
- B. ***an equity instrument of another entity;***
- C. ***a contractual right:***
 - a. ***to receive cash or another financial asset from another entity; or***

- b. to exchange financial assets or financial liabilities with another entity under conditions that are potentially favourable to the entity; or*
- D. a contract that will or may be settled in the entity's own equity instruments and is:*
 - a. a non-derivative for which the entity is or may be obliged to receive a variable number of the entity's own equity instruments; or*
 - b. a derivative that will or may be settled other than by the exchange of a fixed amount of cash or another financial asset for a fixed number of the entity's own equity instruments. For this purpose the entity's own equity instruments do not include instruments that are themselves contracts for the future receipt or delivery of the entity's own equity instruments.*

A financial liability is any liability that is:

- A. a contractual obligation:**
- a. to deliver cash or another financial asset to another entity; or**
 - b. to exchange financial assets or financial liabilities with another entity under conditions that are potentially unfavourable to the entity; or**
- B. a contract that will or may be settled in the entity's own equity instruments and is**
- a. a non-derivative for which the entity is or may be obliged to deliver a variable number of the entity's own equity instruments; or**
 - b. a derivative that will or may be settled other than by the exchange of a fixed amount of cash or another financial asset for a fixed number of the entity's own equity instruments. For this purpose the entity's own equity instruments do not include instruments that are themselves contracts for the future receipt or delivery of the entity's own equity instruments.**

An equity instrument is any contract that evidences a residual interest in the assets of an entity after deducting all of its liabilities.

Fair value is the amount for which an asset could be exchanged, or a liability settled, between knowledgeable, willing parties in an arm's length transaction.

8. The following terms are defined in paragraph 8 of Accounting Standard (AS) 30, Financial Instruments: Recognition and Measurement and are used in this Standard with the meaning specified in AS 30.
- ~~/~~ amortised cost of a financial asset or financial liability
 - ~~/~~ available-for-sale financial assets
 - ~~/~~ derecognition
 - ~~/~~ derivative
 - ~~/~~ effective interest method
 - ~~/~~ financial asset or financial liability at fair value through profit or loss
 - ~~/~~ financial guarantee contract
 - ~~/~~ firm commitment
 - ~~/~~ forecast transaction

- ✍ hedge effectiveness
- ✍ hedged item
- ✍ hedging instrument
- ✍ held to maturity investments
- ✍ loans and receivables
- ✍ regular way purchase or sale
- ✍ transaction costs.

9. In this Standard, 'contract' and 'contractual' refer to an agreement between two or more parties that has clear economic consequences that the parties have little, if any, discretion to avoid, usually because the agreement is enforceable by law. Contracts, and thus financial instruments, may take a variety of forms and need not be in writing.
10. In this Standard, 'entity' includes individuals, partnerships, incorporated bodies, trusts and government agencies.

Financial Assets and Financial Liabilities

11. Currency (cash) is a financial asset because it represents the medium of exchange and is therefore the basis on which all transactions are measured and recognised in financial statements. A deposit of cash with a bank or similar financial institution is a financial asset because it represents the contractual right of the depositor to obtain cash from the institution or to draw a cheque or similar instrument against the balance in favour of a creditor in payment of a financial liability.
12. Common examples of financial assets representing a contractual right to receive cash in the future and corresponding financial liabilities representing a contractual obligation to deliver cash in the future are:
 - A. trade accounts receivable and payable;
 - B. bills receivable and payable;
 - C. loans receivable and payable;
 - D. bonds receivable and payable; and
 - E. deposits and advances.

In each case, one party's contractual right to receive (or obligation to pay) cash is matched by the other party's corresponding obligation to pay (or right to receive).
13. Another type of financial instrument is one for which the economic benefit to be received or given up is a financial asset other than cash. For example, a promissory note payable in government bonds gives the holder the contractual right to receive and the issuer the contractual obligation to deliver government bonds, not cash. The bonds are financial assets because they represent obligations of the issuing government to pay cash. The promissory note is, therefore, a financial asset of the promissory note holder and a financial liability of the promissory note issuer.
14. 'Perpetual' debt instruments normally provide the holder with the contractual right to receive payments on account of interest at fixed dates extending into the indefinite future, either with no right to receive a return of principal or a right to a return of principal under terms that make it very unlikely or very far in the future. For example, an entity may issue a financial instrument requiring it to make annual payments in perpetuity equal to a stated interest rate of 8 per cent applied to a stated par or principal amount of Rs. 1,000. Assuming 8 per cent to be the market rate of interest for the instrument when issued, the issuer assumes a contractual obligation to make a stream of future interest payments having a fair value (present value) of Rs. 1,000 on initial recognition. The holder and issuer of the instrument have a financial asset and a financial liability, respectively.

15. A contractual right or contractual obligation to receive, deliver or exchange financial instruments is itself a financial instrument. A chain of contractual rights or contractual obligations meets the definition of a financial instrument if it will ultimately lead to the receipt or payment of cash or to the acquisition or issue of an equity instrument.
16. The ability to exercise a contractual right or the requirement to satisfy a contractual obligation may be absolute, or it may be contingent on the occurrence of a future event. For example, a financial guarantee is a contractual right of the lender to receive cash from the guarantor, and a corresponding contractual obligation of the guarantor to pay the lender, if the borrower defaults. The contractual right and obligation exist because of a past transaction or event (assumption of the guarantee), even though the lender's ability to exercise its right and the requirement for the guarantor to perform under its obligation are both contingent on a future act of default by the borrower. A contingent right and obligation meet the definition of a financial asset and a financial liability, even though such assets and liabilities are not always recognised in the financial statements. Some of the contingents rights and obligations may be insurance contracts within the scope of the Accounting Standard on Insurance Contracts.
17. Under AS 19, Leases, a finance lease is regarded as primarily an entitlement of the lessor to receive, and an obligation of the lessee to pay, a stream of payments that are substantially the same as blended payments of principal and interest under a loan agreement. The lessor accounts for its investment in the amount receivable under the lease contract rather than the leased asset itself. An operating lease, on the other hand, is regarded as primarily an uncompleted contract committing the lessor to provide the use of an asset in future periods in exchange for consideration similar to a fee for a service. The lessor continues to account for the leased asset itself rather than any amount receivable in the future under the contract. Accordingly, a finance lease is regarded as a financial instrument and an operating lease is not regarded as a financial instrument (except as regards individual payments currently due and payable).
18. Physical assets (such as inventories, property, plant and equipment), leased assets and intangible assets (such as patents and trademarks) are not financial assets. Control of such physical and intangible assets creates an opportunity to generate an inflow of cash or another financial asset, but it does not give rise to a present right to receive cash or another financial asset.
19. Assets (such as prepaid expenses) for which the future economic benefit is the receipt of goods or services, rather than the right to receive cash or another financial asset, are not financial assets. Similarly, items such as deferred revenue and most warranty obligations are not financial liabilities because the outflow of economic benefits associated with them is the delivery of goods and services rather than a contractual obligation to pay cash or another financial asset.
20. Liabilities or assets that are not contractual (such as income taxes that are created as a result of statutory requirements imposed by governments) are not financial liabilities or financial assets. Accounting for income taxes is dealt with in AS 22, Accounting for Taxes on Income.

Equity Instruments

21. Examples of equity instruments include non-puttable equity shares, some types of preference shares (see paragraphs 38 and 39) and warrants or written call options that allow the holder to subscribe for or purchase a fixed number of non-puttable equity shares in the issuing entity in exchange for a fixed amount of cash or another financial asset. An obligation of an entity to issue or purchase a fixed number of its own equity instruments in exchange for a fixed amount of

cash or another financial asset is an equity instrument of the entity. However, if such a contract contains an obligation for the entity to pay cash or another financial asset, it also gives rise to a liability for the present value of the redemption amount (see paragraph 51 A.). An issuer of non-puttable equity shares assumes a liability when it formally acts to make a distribution and becomes legally obligated to the shareholders to do so. This may be the case following the declaration of a dividend or when the entity is being wound up and any assets remaining after the satisfaction of liabilities become distributable to shareholders.

22. A purchased call option or other similar contract acquired by an entity that gives it the right to reacquire a fixed number of its own equity instruments in exchange for delivering a fixed amount of cash or another financial asset is not a financial asset of the entity. Instead, any consideration paid for such a contract is deducted from equity.

Derivative Financial Instruments

23. Financial instruments include primary instruments (such as receivables, payables and equity instruments) and derivative financial instruments (such as financial options, futures and forwards, interest rate swaps and currency swaps). Derivative financial instruments meet the definition of a financial instrument and, accordingly, are within the scope of this Standard.
24. Derivative financial instruments create rights and obligations that have the effect of transferring between the parties to the instrument one or more of the financial risks inherent in an underlying primary financial instrument. On inception, derivative financial instruments give one party a contractual right to exchange financial assets or financial liabilities with another party under conditions that are potentially favourable, or a contractual obligation to exchange financial assets or financial liabilities with another party under conditions that are potentially unfavourable. However, they generally do not result in a transfer of the underlying primary financial instrument on inception of the contract, nor does such a transfer necessarily take place on maturity of the contract. Some instruments embody both a right and an obligation to make an exchange. Because the terms of the exchange are determined on inception of the derivative instrument, as prices in financial markets change those terms may become either favourable or unfavourable.
25. A put or call option to exchange financial assets or financial liabilities (i.e. financial instruments other than an entity's own equity instruments) gives the holder a right to obtain potential future economic benefits associated with changes in the fair value of the financial instrument underlying the contract. Conversely, the writer of an option assumes an obligation to forgo potential future economic benefits or bear potential losses of economic benefits associated with changes in the fair value of the underlying financial instrument. The contractual right of the holder and obligation of the writer meet the definition of a financial asset and a financial liability, respectively. The financial instrument underlying an option contract may be any financial asset, including shares in other entities and interest-bearing instruments. An option may require the writer to issue a debt instrument, rather than transfer a financial asset, but the instrument underlying the option would constitute a financial asset of the holder if the option were exercised. The option-holder's right to exchange the financial asset under potentially favourable conditions and the writer's obligation to exchange the financial asset under potentially unfavourable conditions are distinct from the underlying financial asset to be exchanged upon exercise of the option. The nature of the holder's right and of the writer's obligation are not affected by the likelihood that the option will be exercised.

26. Another example of a derivative financial instrument is a forward contract to be settled in six months' time in which one party (the purchaser) promises to deliver Rs. 10,00,000 cash in exchange for Rs. 10,00,000 face amount of fixed rate government bonds, and the other party (the seller) promises to deliver Rs. 10,00,000 face amount of fixed rate government bonds in exchange for Rs. 10,00,000 cash. During the six months, both parties have a contractual right and a contractual obligation to exchange financial instruments. If the market price of the government bonds rises above Rs. 10,00,000, the conditions will be favourable to the purchaser and unfavourable to the seller; if the market price falls below Rs. 10,00,000, the effect will be the opposite. The purchaser has a contractual right (a financial asset) similar to the right under a call option held and a contractual obligation (a financial liability) similar to the obligation under a put option written; the seller has a contractual right (a financial asset) similar to the right under a put option held and a contractual obligation (a financial liability) similar to the obligation under a call option written. As with options, these contractual rights and obligations constitute financial assets and financial liabilities separate and distinct from the underlying financial instruments (the bonds and cash to be exchanged). Both parties to a forward contract have an obligation to perform at the agreed time, whereas performance under an option contract occurs only if and when the holder of the option chooses to exercise it.
27. Many other types of derivative instruments embody a right or obligation to make a future exchange, including interest rate and currency swaps, interest rate caps, collars and floors, loan commitments, and letters of credit. An interest rate swap contract may be viewed as a variation of a forward contract in which the parties agree to make a series of future exchanges of cash amounts, one amount calculated with reference to a floating interest rate and the other with reference to a fixed interest rate. Futures contracts are another variation of forward contracts, differing primarily in that the contracts are standardised and traded on an exchange.

Contracts to Buy or Sell Non-Financial Items

28. Contracts to buy or sell non-financial items do not meet the definition of a financial instrument because the contractual right of one party to receive a non-financial asset or service and the corresponding obligation of the other party do not establish a present right or obligation of either party to receive, deliver or exchange a financial asset. For example, contracts that provide for settlement only by the receipt or delivery of a non-financial item (e.g. an option, futures or forward contract on silver) are not financial instruments. Many commodity contracts are of this type. Some are standardised in form and traded on organised markets in much the same fashion as some derivative financial instruments. For example, a commodity futures contract may be bought and sold readily for cash because it is listed for trading on an exchange and may change hands many times. However, the parties buying and selling the contract are, in effect, trading the underlying commodity. The ability to buy or sell a commodity contract for cash, the ease with which it may be bought or sold and the possibility of negotiating a cash settlement of the obligation to receive or deliver the commodity do not alter the fundamental character of the contract in a way that creates a financial instrument. Nevertheless, some contracts to buy or sell non-financial items that can be settled net or by exchanging financial instruments, or in which the non-financial item is readily convertible to cash, are within the scope of the Standard as if they were financial instruments (see paragraph 4).
29. A contract that involves the receipt or delivery of physical assets does not give rise to a financial asset of one party and a financial liability of the other party unless any corresponding payment is deferred past the date on which the

physical assets are transferred. Such is the case with the purchase or sale of goods on trade credit.

30. Some contracts are commodity-linked, but do not involve settlement through the physical receipt or delivery of a commodity. They specify settlement through cash payments that are determined according to a formula in the contract, rather than through payment of fixed amounts. For example, the principal amount of a bond may be calculated by applying the market price of oil prevailing at the maturity of the bond to a fixed quantity of oil. The principal is indexed by reference to a commodity price, but is settled only in cash. Such a contract constitutes a financial instrument.
31. The definition of a financial instrument also encompasses a contract that gives rise to a non-financial asset or non-financial liability in addition to a financial asset or financial liability. Such financial instruments often give one party an option to exchange a financial asset for a non-financial asset. For example, an oil-linked bond may give the holder the right to receive a stream of fixed periodic interest payments and a fixed amount of cash on maturity, with the option to exchange the principal amount for a fixed quantity of oil. The desirability of exercising this option will vary from time to time depending on the fair value of oil relative to the exchange ratio of cash for oil (the exchange price) inherent in the bond. The intentions of the bondholder concerning the exercise of the option do not affect the substance of the component assets. The financial asset of the holder and the financial liability of the issuer make the bond a financial instrument, regardless of the other types of assets and liabilities also created.

Presentation

Liabilities and Equity

32. ***The issuer of a financial instrument should classify the instrument, or its component parts, on initial recognition as a financial liability, a financial asset or an equity instrument in accordance with the substance of the contractual arrangement and the definitions of a financial liability, a financial asset and an equity instrument.***
33. When an issuer applies the definitions in paragraph 7 to determine whether a financial instrument is an equity instrument rather than a financial liability, the instrument is an equity instrument if, and only if, both conditions A. and B. below are met.
 - A. The instrument includes no contractual obligation:
 - a. to deliver cash or another financial asset to another entity; or
 - b. to exchange financial assets or financial liabilities with another entity under conditions that are potentially unfavourable to the issuer.
 - B. If the instrument will or may be settled in the issuer's own equity instruments, it is
 - a. a non-derivative that includes no contractual obligation for the issuer to deliver a variable number of its own equity instruments; or
 - b. a derivative that will be settled only by the issuer exchanging a fixed amount of cash or another financial asset for a fixed number of its own equity instruments. For this purpose the issuer's own equity instruments do not include instruments that are themselves contracts for the future receipt or delivery of the issuer's own equity instruments.

A contractual obligation, including one arising from a derivative financial instrument that will or may result in the future receipt or delivery of the

issuer's own equity instruments, but does not meet conditions A. and B. above, is not an equity instrument.

No Contractual Obligation to Deliver Cash or Another Financial Asset (paragraph 33 A.)

34. A critical feature in differentiating a financial liability from an equity instrument is the existence of a contractual obligation of one party to the financial instrument (the issuer) either to deliver cash or another financial asset to the other party (the holder) or to exchange financial assets or financial liabilities with the holder under conditions that are potentially unfavourable to the issuer. Although the holder of an equity instrument may be entitled to receive a pro rata share of any dividends or other distributions of equity, the issuer does not have a contractual obligation to make such distributions because it cannot be required to deliver cash or another financial asset to another party.
35. The substance of a financial instrument, rather than its legal form, governs its classification on the entity's balance sheet. Substance and legal form are commonly consistent, but not always. Some financial instruments take the legal form of equity but are liabilities in substance and others may combine features associated with equity instruments and features associated with financial liabilities. For example:
 - A. a preference share that provides for mandatory redemption by the issuer for a fixed or determinable amount at a fixed or determinable future date, or gives the holder the right to require the issuer to redeem the instrument at or after a particular date for a fixed or determinable amount, is a financial liability.
 - B. a financial instrument that gives the holder the right to put it back to the issuer for cash or another financial asset (a puttable instrument) is a financial liability. This is so even when the amount of cash or other financial assets is determined on the basis of an index or other item that has the potential to increase or decrease, or when the legal form of the puttable instrument gives the holder a right to a residual interest in the assets of an issuer. The existence of an option for the holder to put the instrument back to the issuer for cash or another financial asset means that the puttable instrument meets the definition of a financial liability. For example, open-ended mutual funds, unit trusts and some co-operative entities may provide their unit holders or members with a right to redeem their interests in the issuer at any time for cash equal to their proportionate share of the asset value of the issuer. However, classification as a financial liability does not preclude the use of descriptors such as 'net asset value attributable to unit holders' and 'change in net asset value attributable to unit holders' on the face of the financial statements of an entity that has no equity capital or the use of additional disclosure to show that total members' interests comprise items such as reserves that meet the definition of equity and puttable instruments that do not.
36. If an entity does not have an unconditional right to avoid delivering cash or another financial asset to settle a contractual obligation, the obligation meets the definition of a financial liability. For example:
 - A. a restriction on the ability of an entity to satisfy a contractual obligation, such as lack of access to foreign currency or the need to obtain approval for payment from a regulatory authority, does not negate the entity's contractual obligation or the holder's contractual right under the instrument.

- B. a contractual obligation that is conditional on a counterparty exercising its right to redeem is a financial liability because the entity does not have the unconditional right to avoid delivering cash or another financial asset.
37. A financial instrument that does not explicitly establish a contractual obligation to deliver cash or another financial asset may establish an obligation indirectly through its terms and conditions. For example:
- A. a financial instrument may contain a non-financial obligation that must be settled if, and only if, the entity fails to make distributions or to redeem the instrument. If the entity can avoid a transfer of cash or another financial asset only by settling the non-financial obligation, the financial instrument is a financial liability.
- B. a financial instrument is a financial liability if it provides that on settlement the entity will deliver either:
- cash or another financial asset; or
 - its own shares whose value is determined to exceed substantially the value of the cash or other financial asset.
- Although the entity does not have an explicit contractual obligation to deliver cash or another financial asset, the value of the share settlement alternative is such that the entity will settle in cash. In any event, the holder has in substance been guaranteed receipt of an amount that is at least equal to the cash settlement option (see paragraph 52).
38. Preference shares may be issued with various rights. In determining whether a preference share is a financial liability or an equity instrument, an issuer assesses the particular rights attaching to the share to determine whether it exhibits the fundamental characteristic of a financial liability. For example, a preference share that provides for redemption on a specific date or at the option of the holder contains a financial liability because the issuer has an obligation to transfer financial assets to the holder of the share. The potential inability of an issuer to satisfy an obligation to redeem a preference share when contractually required to do so, whether because of a lack of funds, a statutory restriction or insufficient profits or reserves, does not negate the obligation. An option of the issuer to redeem the shares for cash does not satisfy the definition of a financial liability because the issuer does not have a present obligation to transfer financial assets to the shareholders. In this case, redemption of the shares is solely at the discretion of the issuer. An obligation may arise, however, when the issuer of the shares exercises its option, usually by formally notifying the shareholders of an intention to redeem the shares.
39. When preference shares are non-redeemable, the appropriate classification is determined by the other rights that attach to them. Classification is based on an assessment of the substance of the contractual arrangements and the definitions of a financial liability and an equity instrument. When distributions to holders of the preference shares, whether cumulative or non-cumulative, are at the discretion of the issuer, the shares are equity instruments. The classification of a preference share as an equity instrument or a financial liability is not affected by, for example:
- a history of making distributions;
 - an intention to make distributions in the future;
 - a possible negative impact on the price of equity shares of the issuer if distributions are not made (because of restrictions on paying dividends on the equity shares if dividends are not paid on the preference shares);
 - the amount of the issuer's reserves;
 - an issuer's expectation of a profit or loss for a period; or
 - an ability or inability of the issuer to influence the amount of its profit or loss for the period.

40. The contractual right of the holder of a financial instrument (including members' shares in co-operative entities) to request redemption does not, in itself, require that financial instrument to be classified as a financial liability. Rather, the entity must consider all of the terms and conditions of the financial instrument in determining its classification as a financial liability or equity. Those terms and conditions include relevant laws, regulations and the governing rules or bye-laws of the entity in effect at the date of classification, but not expected future amendments to those laws, regulations or bye-laws.
41. Members' shares in co-operative entities that would be classified as equity if the members did not have a right to request redemption are equity if either of the conditions described in paragraphs 42 and 43 is present. Demand deposits, including current accounts, deposit accounts and similar contracts that arise when members act as customers are financial liabilities of the entity.
42. Members' shares are equity if the entity has an unconditional right to refuse redemption of the members' shares.
43. Law, regulation or the governing rules or bye-laws of the entity can impose various types of prohibitions on the redemption of members' shares, e.g., unconditional prohibitions or prohibitions based on liquidity criteria. If redemption is unconditionally prohibited by law, regulation or the governing rules or bye-laws of the entity, members' shares are equity. However, provisions in law, regulation or the governing rules or bye-laws of the entity that prohibit redemption only if conditions — such as liquidity constraints — are met (or are not met) do not result in members' shares being equity.
44. An unconditional prohibition may be absolute, in that all redemptions are prohibited. An unconditional prohibition may be partial, in that it prohibits redemption of members' shares if redemption would cause the number of members' shares or amount of paid-up capital from members' shares to fall below a specified level. Members' shares in excess of the prohibition against redemption are liabilities, unless the entity has the unconditional right to refuse redemption as described in paragraph 42. In some cases, the number of shares or the amount of paid-up capital subject to a redemption prohibition may change from time to time. Such a change in the redemption prohibition leads to a transfer between financial liabilities and equity. In such a case, the entity should disclose separately the amount, timing and reason for the transfer.
45. Equity is the residual interest in the assets after deducting all liabilities. Therefore, at initial recognition, the entity should measure the equity component in the member's shares at the residual amount after deducting from the total amount of the shares as a whole the value separately determined for its financial liabilities for redemption. The entity measures its financial liability for redemption at fair value. In the case of members' shares with a redemption feature, the fair value of the financial liability for redemption is measured at no less than the maximum amount payable under the redemption provisions of its governing bye-laws or applicable law discounted from the first date that the amount could be required to be paid.
46. As required by paragraph 70, distributions to holders of equity instruments (net of any income tax benefits) are recognised directly in the revenue reserves and surplus. Interest, dividends and other returns relating to financial instruments classified as financial liabilities are expenses, regardless of whether those amounts paid are legally characterised as dividends, interest or otherwise.

Settlement in the Entity's Own Equity Instruments (paragraph 33 B.)

47. A contract is not an equity instrument solely because it may result in the receipt or delivery of the entity's own equity instruments. An entity may have a contractual right or obligation to receive or deliver a number of its own shares or other equity instruments that varies so that the fair value of the entity's own

equity instruments to be received or delivered equals the amount of the contractual right or obligation. Such a contractual right or obligation may be for a fixed amount or an amount that fluctuates in part or in full in response to changes in a variable other than the market price of the entity's own equity instruments (e.g. an interest rate, a commodity price or a financial instrument price). Two examples are A. a contract to deliver as many of the entity's own equity instruments as are equal in value to Rs.100, and B. a contract to deliver as many of the entity's own equity instruments as are equal in value to the value of 100 grams of gold. Such a contract is a financial liability of the entity even though the entity must or can settle it by delivering its own equity instruments. It is not an equity instrument because the entity uses a variable number of its own equity instruments as a means to settle the contract. Accordingly, the contract does not evidence a residual interest in the entity's assets after deducting all of its liabilities.

48. A contract that will be settled by the entity (receiving or) delivering a fixed number of its own equity instruments in exchange for a fixed amount of cash or another financial asset is an equity instrument. For example, an issued share option that gives the counterparty a right to buy a fixed number of the entity's shares for a fixed price or for a fixed stated principal amount of a bond is an equity instrument. Changes in the fair value of a contract arising from variations in market interest rates that do not affect the amount of cash or other financial assets to be paid or received, or the number of equity instruments to be received or delivered, on settlement of the contract do not preclude the contract from being an equity instrument. Any consideration received (such as the premium received for a written option or warrant on the entity's own shares) is added directly to equity in an appropriate account. Any consideration paid (such as the premium paid for a purchased option) is deducted directly from an appropriate equity account. Changes in the fair value of an equity instrument are not recognised in the financial statements.
49. A contract that contains an obligation for an entity to purchase its own equity instruments for cash or another financial asset gives rise to a financial liability for the present value of the redemption amount (for example, for the present value of the forward repurchase price, option exercise price or other redemption amount). This is the case even if the contract itself is an equity instrument. One example is an entity's obligation under a forward contract to purchase its own equity instruments for cash. When the financial liability is recognised initially under AS 30, its fair value (the present value of the redemption amount) is reclassified from equity. Subsequently, the financial liability is measured in accordance with AS 30. If the contract expires without delivery, the carrying amount of the financial liability is reclassified to equity. An entity's contractual obligation to purchase its own equity instruments gives rise to a financial liability for the present value of the redemption amount even if the obligation to purchase is conditional on the counterparty exercising a right to redeem (e.g. a written put option that gives the counterparty the right to sell an entity's own equity instruments to the entity for a fixed price).
50. A contract that will be settled by the entity delivering or receiving a fixed number of its own equity instruments in exchange for a variable amount of cash or another financial asset is a financial asset or financial liability. An example is a contract for the entity to deliver 100 of its own equity instruments in return for an amount of cash calculated to equal the value of 100 grams of gold.
51. The following examples illustrate how to classify different types of contracts on an entity's own equity instruments:
 - A. A contract that will be settled by the entity receiving or delivering a fixed number of its own shares for no future consideration, or exchanging a fixed number of its own shares for a fixed amount of cash or another

financial asset, is an equity instrument. Accordingly, any consideration received or paid for such a contract is added directly to or deducted directly from equity. One example is an issued share option that gives the counterparty a right to buy a fixed number of the entity's shares for a fixed amount of cash. However, if the contract requires the entity to purchase (redeem) its own shares for cash or another financial asset at a fixed or determinable date or on demand, the entity also recognises a financial liability for the present value of the redemption amount. One example is an entity's obligation under a forward contract to repurchase a fixed number of its own shares for a fixed amount of cash.

- B. An entity's obligation to purchase its own shares for cash gives rise to a financial liability for the present value of the redemption amount even if the number of shares that the entity is obliged to repurchase is not fixed or if the obligation is conditional on the counterparty exercising a right to redeem. One example of a conditional obligation is an issued option that requires the entity to repurchase its own shares for cash if the counterparty exercises the option.
- C. A contract that will be settled in cash or another financial asset is a financial asset or financial liability even if the amount of cash or another financial asset that will be received or delivered is based on changes in the market price of the entity's own equity. One example is a net cash-settled share option.
- D. A contract that will be settled in a variable number of the entity's own shares whose value equals a fixed amount or an amount based on changes in an underlying variable (e.g. a commodity price) is a financial asset or a financial liability. An example is a written option to buy gold that, if exercised, is settled net in the entity's own instruments by the entity delivering as many of those instruments as are equal to the value of the option contract. Such a contract is a financial asset or financial liability even if the underlying variable is the entity's own share price rather than gold. Similarly, a contract that will be settled in a fixed number of the entity's own shares, but the rights attaching to those shares will be varied so that the settlement value equals a fixed amount or an amount based on changes in an underlying variable, is a financial asset or a financial liability.

Contingent Settlement Provisions

- 52. A financial instrument may require the entity to deliver cash or another financial asset, or otherwise to settle it in such a way that it would be a financial liability, in the event of the occurrence or non-occurrence of uncertain future events (or on the outcome of uncertain circumstances) that are beyond the control of both the issuer and the holder of the instrument, such as a change in a stock market index, consumer price index, interest rate or taxation requirements, or the issuer's future revenues, net income or debt to equity ratio). The issuer of such an instrument does not have the unconditional right to avoid delivering cash or another financial asset (or otherwise to settle it in such a way that it would be a financial liability). Therefore, it is a financial liability of the issuer unless:
 - A. the part of the contingent settlement provision that could require settlement in cash or another financial asset (or otherwise in such a way that it would be a financial liability) is not genuine; or
 - B. the issuer can be required to settle the obligation in cash or another financial asset (or otherwise to settle it in such a way that it would be a financial liability) only in the event of liquidation of the issuer.
- 53. Paragraph 52 requires that if a part of a contingent settlement provision that could require settlement in cash or another financial asset (or in another way

that would result in the instrument being a financial liability) is not genuine, the settlement provision does not affect the classification of a financial instrument. Thus, a contract that requires settlement in cash or a variable number of the entity's own shares only on the occurrence of an event that is extremely rare, highly abnormal and very unlikely to occur is an equity instrument. Similarly, settlement in a fixed number of an entity's own shares may be contractually precluded in circumstances that are outside the control of the entity, but if these circumstances have no genuine possibility of occurring, classification as an equity instrument is appropriate.

Settlement Options

- 54. When a derivative financial instrument gives one party a choice over how it is settled (e.g. the issuer or the holder can choose settlement net in cash or by exchanging shares for cash), it is a financial asset or a financial liability unless all of the settlement alternatives would result in it being an equity instrument.**
55. An example of a derivative financial instrument with a settlement option that is a financial liability is a share option that the issuer can decide to settle net in cash or by exchanging its own shares for cash. Similarly, some contracts to buy or sell a non-financial item in exchange for the entity's own equity instruments are within the scope of this Standard because they can be settled either by delivery of the non-financial item or net in cash or another financial instrument (see paragraphs 4-6). Such contracts are financial assets or financial liabilities and not equity instruments.

Treatment in Consolidated Financial Statements

56. In consolidated financial statements, an entity presents minority interests - i.e. the interests of other parties in the equity and income of its subsidiaries in accordance with AS 1 (revised), Presentation of Financial Statements, and AS 21, Consolidated Financial Statements and Accounting for Investments in Subsidiaries in Separate Financial Statements. When classifying a financial instrument (or a component of it) in consolidated financial statements, an entity considers all terms and conditions agreed between members of the group and the holders of the instrument in determining whether the group as a whole has an obligation to deliver cash or another financial asset in respect of the instrument or to settle it in a manner that results in liability classification. When a subsidiary in a group issues a financial instrument and a parent or other group entity agrees additional terms directly with the holders of the instrument (e.g. a guarantee), the group may not have discretion over distributions or redemption. Although the subsidiary may appropriately classify the instrument without regard to these additional terms in its individual financial statements, the effect of other agreements between members of the group and the holders of the instrument is considered in order to ensure that consolidated financial statements reflect the contracts and transactions entered into by the group as a whole. To the extent that there is such an obligation or settlement provision, the instrument (or the component of it that is subject to the obligation) is classified as a financial liability in consolidated financial statements.

Compound Financial Instruments

- 57. The issuer of a non-derivative financial instrument should evaluate the terms of the financial instrument to determine whether it contains both a liability and an equity component. Such components should be classified separately as financial liabilities or equity instruments in accordance with paragraph 32.**

58. Paragraph 57 applies only to issuers of non-derivative compound financial instruments. Paragraph 57 does not deal with compound financial instruments from the perspective of holders. Accounting Standard (AS) 30, Financial Instruments: Recognition and Measurement deals with the separation of embedded derivatives from the perspective of holders of compound financial instruments that contain debt and equity features.
59. An entity recognises separately the components of a financial instrument that A. creates a financial liability of the entity and B. grants an option to the holder of the instrument to convert it into an equity instrument of the entity. For example, a debenture or similar instrument convertible by the holder into a fixed number of equity shares of the entity is a compound financial instrument. From the perspective of the entity, such an instrument comprises two components: a financial liability (a contractual arrangement to deliver cash or another financial asset) and an equity instrument (a call option granting the holder the right, for a specified period of time, to convert it into a fixed number of equity shares of the entity). The economic effect of issuing such an instrument is substantially the same as issuing simultaneously a debt instrument with an early settlement provision and warrants to purchase equity shares, or issuing a debt instrument with detachable share purchase warrants. Accordingly, in all cases, the entity presents the liability and equity components separately on its balance sheet.
60. Classification of the liability and equity components of a convertible instrument is not revised as a result of a change in the likelihood that a conversion option will be exercised, even when exercise of the option may appear to have become economically advantageous to some holders. Holders may not always act in the way that might be expected because, for example, the tax consequences resulting from conversion may differ among holders. Furthermore, the likelihood of conversion will change from time to time. The entity's contractual obligation to make future payments remains outstanding until it is extinguished through conversion, maturity of the instrument or some other transaction.
61. Accounting Standard (AS) 30, Financial Instruments: Recognition and Measurement deals with the measurement of financial assets and financial liabilities. Equity instruments are instruments that evidence a residual interest in the assets of an entity after deducting all of its liabilities. Therefore, when the initial carrying amount of a compound financial instrument is allocated to its equity and liability components, the equity component is assigned the residual amount after deducting from the fair value of the instrument as a whole the amount separately determined for the liability component. The value of any derivative features (such as a call option) embedded in the compound financial instrument other than the equity component (such as an equity conversion option) is included in the liability component. The sum of the carrying amounts assigned to the liability and equity components on initial recognition is always equal to the fair value that would be ascribed to the instrument as a whole. No gain or loss arises from initially recognising the components of the instrument separately.
62. A common form of compound financial instrument is a debt instrument with an embedded conversion option, such as a debenture convertible into equity shares of the issuer, and without any other embedded derivative features. Paragraph 57 requires the issuer of such a financial instrument to present the liability component and the equity component separately on the balance sheet, as follows:
 - A. The issuer's obligation to make scheduled payments of interest and principal is a financial liability that exists as long as the instrument is not converted. Accordingly, the issuer of a debenture convertible into equity shares first determines the carrying amount of the liability component by measuring the fair value of a similar liability (including any embedded

non-equity derivative features) that does not have an associated equity component. Thus, on initial recognition, the fair value of the liability component is the present value of the contractually determined stream of future cash flows discounted at the rate of interest applied at that time by the market to instruments of comparable credit status and providing substantially the same cash flows, on the same terms, but without the conversion option.

- B. The equity instrument is an embedded option to convert the liability into equity of the issuer. The fair value of the option comprises its time value and its intrinsic value, if any. This option has value on initial recognition even when it is out of the money. The carrying amount of the equity instrument represented by such option is determined by deducting the fair value of the financial liability from the fair value of the compound financial instrument as a whole.
63. On conversion of a convertible instrument at maturity, the entity derecognises the liability component and recognises it as equity. The original equity component remains as equity (although it may be transferred from one line item within equity to another). There is no gain or loss on conversion at maturity.
64. When an entity extinguishes a convertible instrument before maturity through an early redemption or repurchase in which the original conversion privileges are unchanged, the entity allocates the consideration paid and any transaction costs for the repurchase or redemption to the liability and equity components of the instrument at the date of the transaction. The method used in allocating the consideration paid and transaction costs to the separate components is consistent with that used in the original allocation to the separate components of the proceeds received by the entity when the convertible instrument was issued, in accordance with paragraphs 57-62.
65. Once the allocation of the consideration is made, any resulting gain or loss is treated in accordance with accounting principles applicable to the related component, as follows:
 - A. the amount of gain or loss relating to the liability component is recognised in the statement of profit and loss; and
 - B. the amount of consideration relating to the equity component is adjusted in equity against the original equity component and the balance, if any, against the reserves and surplus.
66. An entity may amend the terms of a convertible instrument to induce early conversion, for example by offering a more favourable conversion ratio or paying other additional consideration in the event of conversion before a specified date. The difference, at the date the terms are amended, between the fair value of the consideration the holder receives on conversion of the instrument under the revised terms and the fair value of the consideration the holder would have received under the original terms is recognised as a loss in the statement of profit and loss.

Treasury shares

67. ***If an entity reacquires its own equity instruments, those instruments (treasury shares) should be deducted from equity. No gain or loss should be recognised in statement of profit and loss on the purchase, sale, issue or cancellation of an entity's own equity instruments. Such treasury shares may be acquired and held by the entity or by other members of the consolidated group. Consideration paid or received should be recognised directly in equity.***
68. The amount of treasury shares held is disclosed separately either on the face of the balance sheet or in the notes, in accordance with AS 1 (Revised), Presentation of Financial Statements. An entity provides disclosure in accordance

with AS 18, Related Party Disclosures, if the entity reacquires its own equity instruments from related parties.

69. An entity's own equity instruments are not recognised as a financial asset regardless of the reason for which they are reacquired. Paragraph 67 requires an entity that reacquires its own equity instruments to deduct those equity instruments from equity. However, when an entity holds its own equity on behalf of others, e.g., a financial institution holding its own equity on behalf of a client, there is an agency relationship and as a result those holdings are not included in the entity's balance sheet.

Interest, Dividends, Losses and Gains

70. ***Interest, dividends, losses and gains relating to a financial instrument or a component of financial instrument that is a financial liability should be recognised as income or expense in the statement of profit and loss. Distributions to holders of an equity instrument should be debited by the entity directly to an appropriate equity account, net of any related income tax benefit. Transaction costs of an equity transaction should be accounted for as a deduction from equity net of any related income tax benefit.***
71. The classification of a financial instrument as a financial liability or an equity instrument determines whether interest, dividends, losses and gains relating to that instrument are recognised as expense or income in the statement of profit and loss or are recognised directly in the revenue reserves and surplus. Thus, dividend payments on shares wholly recognised as liabilities are recognised as expenses in the same way as interest on a bond/ debenture. Similarly, gains and losses associated with redemptions or refinancings of financial liabilities are recognised in the statement of profit and loss, whereas redemptions or refinancings of equity instruments are recognised as changes in equity. Changes in the fair value of an equity instrument are not recognised in the financial statements.
72. An entity typically incurs various costs in issuing or acquiring its own equity instruments. Those costs might include regulatory fees, amounts paid to legal, accounting and other professional advisers, printing costs and stamp duties. The transaction costs (net of any related income tax benefit) of an equity transaction are recognised directly in the appropriate equity account to the extent they are incremental costs directly attributable to the equity transaction that otherwise would have been avoided. The costs of an equity transaction that is abandoned are recognised as an expense.
73. Transaction costs that relate to the issue of a compound financial instrument are allocated to the liability and equity components of the instrument in proportion to the allocation of proceeds. Transaction costs that relate jointly to more than one transaction are allocated to those transactions using a basis of allocation that is rational and consistent with similar transactions.
74. The amount of transaction costs recognised in the revenue reserves and surplus is disclosed separately under AS 1 (revised).
75. The following example illustrates the application of paragraph 70 to a compound financial instrument. Assume that a non-cumulative preference share is mandatorily redeemable for cash in five years, but that dividends are payable at the discretion of the entity before the redemption date. Such an instrument is a compound financial instrument, with the liability component being the present value of the redemption amount. The unwinding of the discount on this component is recognised in statement of profit and loss and classified as interest expense. Any dividends paid relate to the equity component and, accordingly, are recognised directly in the revenue reserves and surplus. A similar treatment would apply if the redemption was not mandatory but at the option of the

holder, or if the share was mandatorily convertible into a variable number of equity shares calculated to equal a fixed amount or an amount based on changes in an underlying variable (e.g., commodity). However, if any unpaid dividends are added to the redemption amount, the entire instrument is a liability. In such a case, any dividends are classified as interest expense.

76. Dividends classified as an expense are presented in the statement of profit and loss as a separate item. In addition to the requirements of this Standard, disclosure of interest and dividends is subject to the requirements of AS 1 (revised) and Accounting Standard (AS) 32, Financial Instruments: Disclosures.
77. Gains and losses related to changes in the carrying amount of a financial liability are recognised as income or expense in the statement of profit and loss even when they relate to an instrument that includes a right to the residual interest in the assets of the entity in exchange for cash or another financial asset (see paragraph 35 B.). Under AS 1 (revised), the entity presents any gain or loss arising from remeasurement of such an instrument separately on the face of the statement of profit and loss when it is relevant in explaining the entity's performance.

Offsetting a Financial Asset and a Financial Liability

78. ***A financial asset and a financial liability should be offset and the net amount presented in the balance sheet when, and only when, an entity:***
 - A. currently has a legally enforceable right to set off the recognised amounts; and***
 - B. intends either to settle on a net basis, or to realise the asset and settle the liability simultaneously.***

In accounting for a transfer of a financial asset that does not qualify for derecognition, the entity should not offset the transferred asset and the associated liability (see Accounting Standard (AS) 30, Financial Instruments: Recognition and Measurement).

79. This Standard requires the presentation of financial assets and financial liabilities on a net basis when doing so reflects an entity's expected future cash flows from settling two or more separate financial instruments. When an entity has the right to receive or pay a single net amount and intends to do so, it has, in effect, only a single financial asset or financial liability. In other circumstances, financial assets and financial liabilities are presented separately from each other consistently with their characteristics as resources or obligations of the entity.
80. Offsetting a recognised financial asset and a recognised financial liability and presenting the net amount differs from the derecognition of a financial asset or a financial liability. Although offsetting does not give rise to recognition of a gain or loss, the derecognition of a financial instrument not only results in the removal of the previously recognised item from the balance sheet but also may result in recognition of a gain or loss.
81. A right of set-off is a debtor's legal right, by contract or otherwise, to settle or otherwise eliminate all or a portion of an amount due to a creditor by applying against that amount an amount due from the creditor. In unusual circumstances, a debtor may have a legal right to apply an amount due from a third party against the amount due to a creditor provided that there is an agreement between the three parties that clearly establishes the debtor's right of set-off. Because the right of set-off is a legal right, the conditions supporting the right may vary from one legal jurisdiction to another and the laws applicable to the relationships between the parties need to be considered.
82. The existence of an enforceable right to set off a financial asset and a financial liability affects the rights and obligations associated with a financial asset and a financial liability and may affect an entity's exposure to credit and liquidity risk. However, the existence of the right, by itself, is not a sufficient basis for

offsetting. In the absence of an intention to exercise the right or to settle simultaneously, the amount and timing of an entity's future cash flows are not affected. When an entity intends to exercise the right or to settle simultaneously, presentation of the asset and liability on a net basis reflects more appropriately the amounts and timing of the expected future cash flows, as well as the risks to which those cash flows are exposed. An intention by one or both parties to settle on a net basis without the legal right to do so is not sufficient to justify offsetting because the rights and obligations associated with the individual financial asset and financial liability remain unaltered.

83. An entity's intentions with respect to settlement of particular assets and liabilities may be influenced by its normal business practices, the requirements of the financial markets and other circumstances that may limit the ability to settle net or to settle simultaneously. When an entity has a right of set-off, but does not intend to settle net or to realise the asset and settle the liability simultaneously, the effect of the right on the entity's credit risk exposure is disclosed in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 32, Financial Instruments: Disclosures.
84. Simultaneous settlement of two financial instruments may occur through, for example, the operation of a clearing house in an organised financial market or a face-to-face exchange. In these circumstances the cash flows are, in effect, equivalent to a single net amount and there is no exposure to credit or liquidity risk. In other circumstances, an entity may settle two instruments by receiving and paying separate amounts, becoming exposed to credit risk for the full amount of the asset or liquidity risk for the full amount of the liability. Such risk exposures may be significant even though relatively brief. Accordingly, realisation of a financial asset and settlement of a financial liability are treated as simultaneous only when the transactions occur at the same moment.
85. The conditions set out in paragraph 78 are generally not satisfied and offsetting is usually inappropriate when:
 - A. several different financial instruments are used to emulate the features of a single financial instrument (a synthetic instrument);
 - B. financial assets and financial liabilities arise from financial instruments having the same primary risk exposure (for example, assets and liabilities within a portfolio of forward contracts or other derivative instruments) but involve different counterparties;
 - C. financial or other assets are pledged as collateral for non-recourse financial liabilities;
 - D. financial assets are set aside in trust by a debtor for the purpose of discharging an obligation without those assets having been accepted by the creditor in settlement of the obligation (for example, a sinking fund arrangement); or
 - E. obligations incurred as a result of events giving rise to losses are expected to be recovered from a third party by virtue of a claim made under an insurance contract.
86. To offset a financial asset and a financial liability, an entity must have a currently enforceable legal right to set off the recognised amounts. An entity may have a conditional right to set off recognised amounts. An entity that undertakes a number of financial instrument transactions with a single counterparty may enter into a 'master netting arrangement' with that counterparty. Such an agreement provides for a single net settlement of all financial instruments covered by the agreement in the event of default on, or termination of, any one contract. These arrangements are commonly used by financial institutions to provide protection against loss in the event of bankruptcy or other circumstances that result in a counterparty being unable to meet its obligations. A master netting arrangement commonly creates a right of set-off

that becomes enforceable and affects the realisation or settlement of individual financial assets and financial liabilities only following a specified event of default or in other circumstances not expected to arise in the normal course of business. A master netting arrangement does not provide a basis for offsetting unless both of the criteria in paragraph 78 are satisfied. When financial assets and financial liabilities subject to a master netting arrangement are not offset, the effect of the arrangement on an entity's exposure to credit risk is disclosed in accordance with Accounting Standard (AS) 32, Financial Instruments: Disclosures.

87. The Standard does not provide special treatment for so called 'synthetic instruments', which are groups of separate financial instruments acquired and held to emulate the characteristics of another instrument. For example, a floating rate long-term debt combined with an interest rate swap that involves receiving floating payments and making fixed payments synthesises a fixed rate long-term debt. Each of the individual financial instruments that together constitute a 'synthetic instrument' represents a contractual right or obligation with its own terms and conditions and each may be transferred or settled separately. Each financial instrument is exposed to risks that may differ from the risks to which other financial instruments are exposed. Accordingly, when one financial instrument in a 'synthetic instrument' is an asset and another is a liability, they are not offset and presented on an entity's balance sheet on a net basis unless they meet the criteria for offsetting in paragraph 78.