

APPENDIX – I

Framework for the Preparation and Presentation of Financial Statements*

The following is the text of the 'Framework for the Preparation and Presentation of Financial Statements' issued by the Accounting Standards Board of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India.

Introduction

Purpose and Status

1. This Framework sets out the concepts that underlie the preparation and presentation of financial statements for external users. The purpose of the Framework is to:

- (a) assist preparers of financial statements in applying Accounting Standards and in dealing with topics that have yet to form the subject of an Accounting Standard;
- (b) assist the Accounting Standards Board in the development of future Accounting Standards and in its review of existing Accounting Standards;
- (c) assist the Accounting Standards Board in promoting harmonisation of regulations, accounting standards and procedures relating to the preparation and presentation of financial statements by providing a basis for reducing the number of alternative accounting treatments permitted by Accounting Standards;
- (d) assist auditors in forming an opinion as to whether financial statements conform with Accounting Standards;
- (e) assist users of financial statements in interpreting the information contained in financial statements prepared in conformity with Accounting Standards; and
- (f) provide those who are interested in the work of the Accounting Standards Board with information about its approach to the formulation of Accounting Standards.

1. This Framework is not an Accounting Standard and hence does not define standards for any particular measurement or disclosure issue. Nothing in this Framework overrides any specific Accounting Standard.
2. The Accounting Standards Board recognises that in a limited number of cases there may be a conflict between the Framework and an Accounting Standard. In those cases where there is a conflict, the requirements of the Accounting Standard prevail over those of the Framework. As, however, the Accounting Standards Board will be guided by the Framework in the development of future Standards and in its review of existing Standards, the number of cases of conflict between the Framework and Accounting Standards will diminish through time.
3. The Framework will be revised from time to time on the basis of the experience of the Accounting Standards Board of working with it.

*Issued in July 2000.

Scope

5. The Framework deals with:

- (a) the objective of financial statements;
- (b) the qualitative characteristics that determine the usefulness of information provided in financial statements;
- (c) definition, recognition and measurement of the elements from which financial statements are constructed; and
- (d) concepts of capital and capital maintenance.

6. The Framework is concerned with general purpose financial statements (hereafter referred to as 'financial statements'). Such financial statements are prepared and presented at least annually and are directed toward the common information needs of a wide range of users. Some of these users may require, and have the power to obtain, information in addition to that contained in the financial statements. Many users, however, have to rely on the financial statements as their major source of financial information and such financial statements should, therefore, be prepared and presented with their needs in view. Special purpose financial reports, for example, prospectuses and computations prepared for taxation purposes, are outside the scope of this Framework. Nevertheless, the Framework may be applied in the preparation of such special purpose reports where their requirements permit.

7. Financial statements form part of the process of financial reporting. A complete set of financial statements normally includes a balance sheet, a statement of profit and loss (also known as 'income statement'), a cash flow statement and those notes and other statements and explanatory material that are an integral part of the financial statements. They may also include supplementary schedules and information based on or derived from, and expected to be read with, such statements. Such schedules and supplementary information may deal, for example, with financial information about business and geographical segments, and disclosures about the effects of changing prices. Financial statements do not, however, include such items as reports by directors, statements by the chairman, discussion and analysis by management and similar items that may be included in a financial or annual report.

8. The Framework applies to the financial statements of all reporting enterprises engaged in commercial, industrial and business activities, whether in the public or in the private sector. A reporting enterprise is an enterprise for which there are users who rely on the financial statements as their major source of financial information about the enterprise.

Users and Their Information Needs

9. The users of financial statements include present and potential investors, employees, lenders, suppliers and other trade creditors, customers, governments and their agencies and the public. They use financial statements in order to satisfy some of their information needs. These needs include the following:

- (a) *Investors.* The providers of risk capital are concerned with the risk inherent in, and return provided by, their investments. They need information to help them determine whether they should buy, hold or sell. They are also interested in information which enables them to assess the ability of the enterprise to pay dividends.
- (b) *Employees.* Employees and their representative groups are interested in information about the stability and profitability of their employers. They are also interested in information which enables them to assess the ability of the enterprise to provide remuneration, retirement benefits and employment opportunities.

(c) *Lenders.* Lenders are interested in information which enables them to determine whether their loans, and the interest attaching to them, will be paid when due.

(d) *Suppliers and other trade creditors.* Suppliers and other creditors are interested in information which enables them to determine whether amounts owing to them will be paid when due. Trade creditors are likely to be interested in an enterprise over a shorter period than lenders unless they are dependent upon the continuance of the enterprise as a major customer.

(e) *Customers.* Customers have an interest in information about the continuance of an enterprise, especially when they have a long-term involvement with, or are dependent on, the enterprise.

(f) *Governments and their agencies.* Governments and their agencies are interested in the allocation of resources and, therefore, the activities of enterprises. They also require information in order to regulate the activities of enterprises and determine taxation policies, and to serve as the basis for determination of national income and similar statistics.

(g) *Public.* Enterprises affect members of the public in a variety of ways. For example, enterprises may make a substantial contribution to the local economy in many ways including the number of people they employ and their patronage of local suppliers. Financial statements may assist the public by providing information about the trends and recent developments in the prosperity of the enterprise and the range of its activities.

10. While all of the information needs of these users cannot be met by financial statements, there are needs which are common to all users. As providers of risk capital to the enterprise, investors need more comprehensive information than other users. The provision of financial statements that meet their needs will also meet most of the needs of other users that financial statements can satisfy.

11. The management of an enterprise has the responsibility for the preparation and presentation of the financial statements of the enterprise. Management is also interested in the information contained in the financial statements even though it has access to additional management and financial information that helps it carry out its planning, decision-making and control responsibilities. Management has the ability to determine the form and content of such additional information in order to meet its own needs. The reporting of such information, however, is beyond the scope of this Framework.

The Objective of Financial Statements

1. The objective of financial statements is to provide information about the financial position, performance and cash flows of an enterprise that is useful to a wide range of users in making economic decisions.
2. Financial statements prepared for this purpose meet the common needs of most users. However, financial statements do not provide all the information that users may need to make economic decisions since (a) they largely portray the financial effects of past events, and (b) do not necessarily provide non-financial information.
3. Financial statements also show the results of the stewardship of management, or the accountability of management for the resources entrusted to it. Those users who wish to assess the stewardship or accountability of management do so in order that they may make economic decisions; these decisions may include, for example, whether to hold or sell their investment in the enterprise or whether to reappoint or replace the management.

Financial Position, Performance and Cash Flows

15. The economic decisions that are taken by users of financial statements require an evaluation of the ability of an enterprise to generate cash and cash equivalents and of the timing and certainty of their generation. This ability ultimately determines, for example, the capacity of an enterprise to pay its employees and suppliers, meet interest payments, repay loans, and make distributions to its owners. Users are better able to evaluate this ability to generate cash and cash equivalents if they are provided with information that focuses on the financial position, performance and cash flows of an enterprise.

16. The financial position of an enterprise is affected by the economic resources it controls, its financial structure, its liquidity and solvency, and its capacity to adapt to changes in the environment in which it operates. Information about the economic resources controlled by the enterprise and its capacity in the past to alter these resources is useful in predicting the ability of the enterprise to generate cash and cash equivalents in the future. Information about financial structure is useful in predicting future borrowing needs and how future profits and cash flows will be distributed among those with an interest in the enterprise; it is also useful in predicting how successful the enterprise is likely to be in raising further finance. Information about liquidity and solvency is useful in predicting the ability of the enterprise to meet its financial commitments as they fall due. Liquidity refers to the availability of cash in the near future to meet financial commitments over this period. Solvency refers to the availability of cash over the longer term to meet financial commitments as they fall due.

17. Information about the performance of an enterprise, in particular its profitability, is required in order to assess potential changes in the economic resources that it is likely to control in the future. Information about variability of performance is important in this respect. Information about performance is useful in predicting the capacity of the enterprise to generate cash flows from its existing resource base. It is also useful in forming judgements about the effectiveness with which the enterprise might employ additional resources.

18. Information concerning cash flows of an enterprise is useful in order to evaluate its investing, financing and operating activities during the reporting period. This information is useful in providing the users 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.

19. Information about financial position is primarily provided in a balance sheet. Information about performance is primarily provided in a statement of profit and loss. Information about cash flows is provided in the financial statements by means of a cash flow statement.

20. The component parts of the financial statements are interrelated because they reflect different aspects of the same transactions or other events. Although each statement provides information that is different from the others, none is likely to serve only a single purpose nor to provide all the information necessary for particular needs of users.

Notes and Supplementary Schedules

21. The financial statements also contain notes and supplementary schedules and other information. For example, they may contain additional information that is relevant to the needs of users about the items in the balance sheet and statement of profit and loss. They may include disclosures about the risks and uncertainties affecting the enterprise and any resources and obligations not recognised in the balance sheet (such as mineral reserves). Information about business and geographical segments and the effect of changing prices on the enterprise may also be provided in the form of supplementary information.

Underlying Assumptions

Accrual Basis

22. In order to meet their objectives, financial statements are prepared on the accrual basis of accounting. Under this basis, the effects of transactions and other events are recognised when they occur (and not as cash or a cash equivalent is received or paid) and they are recorded in the accounting records and reported in the financial statements of the periods to which they relate. Financial statements prepared on the accrual basis inform users not only of past events involving the payment and receipt of cash but also of obligations to pay cash in the future and of resources that represent cash to be received in the future. Hence, they provide the type of information about past transactions and other events that is most useful to users in making economic decisions.

Going Concern

23. The financial statements are normally prepared on the assumption that an enterprise is a going concern and will continue in operation for the foreseeable future. Hence, it is assumed that the enterprise has neither the intention nor the need to liquidate or curtail materially the scale of its operations; if such an intention or need exists, the financial statements may have to be prepared on a different basis and, if so, the basis used is disclosed.

Consistency

24. In order to achieve comparability of the financial statements of an enterprise through time, the accounting policies are followed consistently from one period to another; a change in an accounting policy is made only in certain exceptional circumstances.

Qualitative Characteristics of Financial Statements

25. Qualitative characteristics are the attributes that make the information provided in financial statements useful to users. The four principal qualitative characteristics are understandability, relevance, reliability and comparability.

Understandability

26. An essential quality of the information provided in financial statements is that it must be readily understandable by users. For this purpose, it is assumed that users have a reasonable knowledge of business and economic activities and accounting and study the information with reasonable diligence. Information about complex matters that should be included in the financial statements because of its relevance to the economic decision-making needs of users should not be excluded merely on the ground that it may be too difficult for certain users to understand.

Relevance

27. To be useful, information must be relevant to the decision-making needs of users. Information has the quality of relevance when it influences the economic decisions of users by helping them evaluate past, present or future events or confirming, or correcting, their past evaluations.

28. The predictive and confirmatory roles of information are interrelated. For example, information about the current level and structure of asset holdings has value to users when they endeavour to predict the ability of the enterprise to take advantage of opportunities and its ability to react to adverse situations. The same information plays a confirmatory role in respect of past predictions about, for example, the way in which the enterprise would be structured or the outcome of planned operations.

29. Information about financial position and past performance is frequently used as the basis for predicting future financial position and performance and other matters in which users are directly

interested, such as dividend and wage payments, share price movements and the ability of the enterprise to meet its commitments as they fall due. To have predictive value, information need not be in the form of an explicit forecast. The ability to make predictions from financial statements is enhanced, however, by the manner in which information on past transactions and events is displayed. For example, the predictive value of the statement of profit and loss is enhanced if unusual, abnormal and infrequent items of income and expense are separately disclosed.

Materiality

30. The relevance of information is affected by its materiality. 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. Materiality depends on the size and nature of the item or error, judged in the particular circumstances of its misstatement. Materiality provides a threshold or cut-off point rather than being a primary qualitative characteristic which the information must have if it is to be useful.

Reliability

31. To be useful, information must also be reliable. Information has the quality of reliability when it is free from material error and bias and can be depended upon by users to represent faithfully that which it either purports to represent or could reasonably be expected to represent.

32. Information may be relevant but so unreliable in nature or representation that its recognition may be potentially misleading. For example, if the validity and amount of a claim for damages under a legal action against the enterprise are highly uncertain, it may be inappropriate for the enterprise to recognise the amount of the claim in the balance sheet, although it may be appropriate to disclose the amount and circumstances of the claim.

Faithful Representation

33. To be reliable, information must represent faithfully the transactions and other events it either purports to represent or could reasonably be expected to represent. Thus, for example, a balance sheet should represent faithfully the transactions and other events that result in assets, liabilities and equity of the enterprise at the reporting date which meet the recognition criteria.

34. Most financial information is subject to some risk of being less than a faithful representation of that which it purports to portray. This is not due to bias, but rather to inherent difficulties either in identifying the transactions and other events to be measured or in devising and applying measurement and presentation techniques that can convey messages that correspond with those transactions and events. In certain cases, the measurement of the financial effects of items could be so uncertain that enterprises generally would not recognise them in the financial statements; for example, although most enterprises generate goodwill internally over time, it is usually difficult to identify or measure that goodwill reliably. In other cases, however, it may be relevant to recognise items and to disclose the risk of error surrounding their recognition and measurement.

Substance Over Form

35. If information is to represent faithfully the transactions and other events that it purports to represent, it is necessary that they are accounted for and presented in accordance with their substance and economic reality and not merely their legal form. The substance of transactions or other events is not always consistent with that which is apparent from their legal or contrived form. For example, where

rights and beneficial interest in an immovable property are transferred but the documentation and legal formalities are pending, the recording of acquisition/disposal (by the transferee and transferor respectively) would in substance represent the transaction entered into.

Neutrality

36. To be reliable, the information contained in financial statements must be neutral, that is, free from bias. Financial statements are not neutral if, by the selection or presentation of information, they influence the making of a decision or judgement in order to achieve a predetermined result or outcome.

Prudence

37. The preparers of financial statements have to contend with the uncertainties that inevitably surround many events and circumstances, such as the collectability of receivables, the probable useful life of plant and machinery, and the warranty claims that may occur. Such uncertainties are recognised by the disclosure of their nature and extent and by the exercise of prudence in the preparation of the financial statements. Prudence is the inclusion of a degree of caution in the exercise of the judgements needed in making the estimates required under conditions of uncertainty, such that assets or income are not overstated and liabilities or expenses are not understated. However, the exercise of prudence does not allow, for example, the creation of hidden reserves or excessive provisions, the deliberate understatement of assets or income, or the deliberate overstatement of liabilities or expenses, because the financial statements would then not be neutral and, therefore, not have the quality of reliability.

Completeness

38. To be reliable, the information in financial statements must be complete within the bounds of materiality and cost. An omission can cause information to be false or misleading and thus unreliable and deficient in terms of its relevance.

Comparability

39. Users must be able to compare the financial statements of an enterprise through time in order to identify trends in its financial position, performance and cash flows. Users must also be able to compare the financial statements of different enterprises in order to evaluate their relative financial position, performance and cash flows. Hence, the measurement and display of the financial effects of like transactions and other events must be carried out in a consistent way throughout an enterprise and over time for that enterprise and in a consistent way for different enterprises.

40. An important implication of the qualitative characteristic of comparability is that users be informed of the accounting policies employed in the preparation of the financial statements, any changes in those policies and the effects of such changes. Users need to be able to identify differences between the accounting policies for like transactions and other events used by the same enterprise from period to period and by different enterprises. Compliance with Accounting Standards, including the disclosure of the accounting policies used by the enterprise, helps to achieve comparability.

41. The need for comparability should not be confused with mere uniformity and should not be allowed to become an impediment to the introduction of improved accounting standards. It is not appropriate for an enterprise to continue accounting in the same manner for a transaction or other event if the policy adopted is not in keeping with the qualitative characteristics of relevance and reliability. It is also inappropriate for an enterprise to leave its accounting policies unchanged when more relevant and reliable alternatives exist.

42. Users wish to compare the financial position, performance and cash flows of an enterprise over time. Hence, it is important that the financial statements show corresponding information for the preceding period(s).

Constraints on Relevant and Reliable Information

Timeliness

43. If there is undue delay in the reporting of information it may lose its relevance. Management may need to balance the relative merits of timely reporting and the provision of reliable information. To provide information on a timely basis it may often be necessary to report before all aspects of a transaction or other event are known, thus impairing reliability. Conversely, if reporting is delayed until all aspects are known, the information may be highly reliable but of little use to users who have had to make decisions in the interim. In achieving a balance between relevance and reliability, the overriding consideration is how best to satisfy the information needs of users.

Balance between Benefit and Cost

44. The balance between benefit and cost is a pervasive constraint rather than a qualitative characteristic. The benefits derived from information should exceed the cost of providing it. The evaluation of benefits and costs is, however, substantially a judgmental process. Furthermore, the costs do not necessarily fall on those users who enjoy the benefits. Benefits may also be enjoyed by users other than those for whom the information is prepared. For these reasons, it is difficult to apply a cost-benefit test in any particular case. Nevertheless, standard-setters in particular, as well as the preparers and users of financial statements, should be aware of this constraint.

Balance between Qualitative Characteristics

45. In practice, a balancing, or trade-off, between qualitative characteristics is often necessary. Generally the aim is to achieve an appropriate balance among the characteristics in order to meet the objective of financial statements. The relative importance of the characteristics in different cases is a matter of professional judgment.

True and Fair View

46. Financial statements are frequently described as showing a true and fair view of the financial position, performance and cash flows of an enterprise. Although this Framework does not deal directly with such concepts, the application of the principal qualitative characteristics and of appropriate accounting standards normally results in financial statements that convey what is generally understood as a true and fair view of such information.

The Elements of Financial Statements

47. Financial statements portray the financial effects of transactions and other events by grouping them into broad classes according to their economic characteristics. These broad classes are termed the elements of financial statements. The elements directly related to the measurement of financial position in the balance sheet are assets, liabilities and equity. The elements directly related to the measurement of performance in the statement of profit and loss are income and expenses. The cash flow statement usually reflects elements of statement of profit and loss and changes in balance sheet elements; accordingly, this Framework identifies no elements that are unique to this statement.

48. The presentation of these elements in the balance sheet and the statement of profit and loss involves a process of sub-classification. For example, assets and liabilities may be classified by their nature or function in the business of the enterprise in order to display information in the manner most useful to users for purposes of making economic decisions.

Financial Position

49. The elements directly related to the measurement of financial position are assets, liabilities and equity. These are defined as follows:

- (a) An *asset* is a resource controlled by the enterprise as a result of past events from which future economic benefits are expected to flow to the enterprise.
- (b) 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.
- (c) *Equity* is the residual interest in the assets of the enterprise after deducting all its liabilities.

50. The definitions of an asset and a liability identify their essential features but do not attempt to specify the criteria that need to be met before they are recognised in the balance sheet. Thus, the definitions embrace items that are not recognised as assets or liabilities in the balance sheet because they do not satisfy the criteria for recognition discussed in paragraphs 81 to 97. In particular, the expectation that future economic benefits will flow to or from an enterprise must be sufficiently certain to meet the probability criterion in paragraph 82 before an asset or liability is recognised.

51. In assessing whether an item meets the definition of an asset, liability or equity, consideration needs to be given to its underlying substance and economic reality and not merely its legal form. Thus, for example, in the case of hire purchase, the substance and economic reality are that the hire purchaser acquires the economic benefits of the use of the asset 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. Hence, the hire purchase gives rise to items that satisfy the definition of an asset and a liability and are recognised as such in the hire purchaser's balance sheet.

Assets

52. The future economic benefit embodied in an asset is the potential to contribute, directly or indirectly, to the flow of cash and cash equivalents to the enterprise. The potential may be a productive one that is part of the operating activities of the enterprise. It may also take the form of convertibility into cash or cash equivalents or a capability to reduce cash outflows, such as when an alternative manufacturing process lowers the costs of production.

53. An enterprise usually employs its assets to produce goods or services capable of satisfying the wants or needs of customers; because these goods or services can satisfy these wants or needs, customers are prepared to pay for them and hence contribute to the cash flows of the enterprise. Cash itself renders a service to the enterprise because of its command over other resources.

54. The future economic benefits embodied in an asset may flow to the enterprise in a number of ways. For example, an asset may be:

- (a) used singly or in combination with other assets in the production of goods or services to be sold by the enterprise;
- (b) exchanged for other assets;
- (c) used to settle a liability; or
- (d) distributed to the owners of the enterprise.

55. Many assets, for example, plant and machinery, have a physical form. However, physical form is not essential to the existence of an asset; hence patents and copyrights, for example, are assets if future economic benefits are expected to flow from them and if they are controlled by the enterprise.

56. Many assets, for example, receivables and property, are associated with legal rights, including the right of ownership. In determining the existence of an asset, the right of ownership is not essential; thus, for example, an item held under a hire purchase is an asset of the hire purchaser since the hire purchaser controls the benefits which are expected to flow from the item. Although the capacity of an enterprise to control benefits is usually the result of legal rights, an item may nonetheless satisfy the definition of an asset even when there is no legal control. For example, know-how obtained from a development activity may meet the definition of an asset when, by keeping that know-how secret, an enterprise controls the benefits that are expected to flow from it.

57. The assets of an enterprise result from past transactions or other past events. Enterprises normally obtain assets by purchasing or producing them, but other transactions or events may also generate assets; examples include land received by an enterprise from government as part of a programme to encourage economic growth in an area and the discovery of mineral deposits. Transactions or other events expected to occur in the future do not in themselves give rise to assets; hence, for example, an intention to purchase inventory does not, of itself, meet the definition of an asset.

58. There is a close association between incurring expenditure and obtaining assets but the two do not necessarily coincide. Hence, when an enterprise incurs expenditure, this may provide evidence that future economic benefits were sought but is not conclusive proof that an item satisfying the definition of an asset has been obtained. Similarly, the absence of a related expenditure does not preclude an item from satisfying the definition of an asset and thus becoming a candidate for recognition in the balance sheet.

Liabilities

59. An essential characteristic of a liability is that the enterprise has a present obligation. 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. This is normally the case, for example, with amounts payable for goods and services received. Obligations also arise, however, from normal business practice, custom and a desire to maintain good business relations or act in an equitable manner. If, for example, an enterprise decides as a matter of policy to rectify faults in its products even when these become apparent after the warranty period has expired, the amounts that are expected to be expended in respect of goods already sold are liabilities.

60. A distinction needs to be drawn between a present obligation and a future commitment. A decision by the management of an enterprise to acquire assets in the future does not, of itself, give rise to a present obligation. An obligation normally arises only when the asset is delivered or the enterprise enters into an irrevocable agreement to acquire the asset. In the latter case, the irrevocable nature of the agreement means that the economic consequences of failing to honour the obligation, for example, because of the existence of a substantial penalty, leave the enterprise with little, if any, discretion to avoid the outflow of resources to another party.

61. The settlement of a present obligation usually involves the enterprise giving up resources embodying economic benefits in order to satisfy the claim of the other party. Settlement of a present obligation may occur in a number of ways, for example, by:

- (a) payment of cash;
- (b) transfer of other assets;
- (c) provision of services;
- (d) replacement of that obligation with another obligation; or

- (e) conversion of the obligation to equity.

An obligation may also be extinguished by other means, such as a creditor waiving or forfeiting its rights.

62. Liabilities result from past transactions or other past events. Thus, for example, the acquisition of goods and the use of services give rise to trade creditors (unless paid for in advance or on delivery) and the receipt of a bank loan results in an obligation to repay the loan. An enterprise may also recognise future rebates based on annual purchases by customers as liabilities; in this case, the sale of the goods in the past is the transaction that gives rise to the liability.

63. Some liabilities can be measured only by using a substantial degree of estimation. Such liabilities are commonly described as 'provisions'. Examples include provisions for payments to be made under existing warranties and provisions to cover pension obligations.

Equity

64. Although equity is defined in paragraph 49 as a residual, it may be subclassified in the balance sheet. For example, funds contributed by owners, reserves representing appropriations of retained earnings, unappropriated retained earnings and reserves representing capital maintenance adjustments may be shown separately. Such classifications can be relevant to the decision-making needs of the users of financial statements when they indicate legal or other restrictions on the ability of the enterprise to distribute or otherwise apply its equity. They may also reflect the fact that parties with ownership interests in an enterprise have differing rights in relation to the receipt of dividends or the repayment of capital.

65. The creation of reserves is sometimes required by law in order to give the enterprise and its creditors an added measure of protection from the effects of losses. Reserves may also be created when tax laws grant exemptions from, or reductions in, taxation liabilities if transfers to such reserves are made. The existence and size of such reserves is information that can be relevant to the decision-making needs of users. Transfers to such reserves are appropriations of retained earnings rather than expenses.

66. The amount at which equity is shown in the balance sheet is dependent on the measurement of assets and liabilities. Normally, the aggregate amount of equity only by coincidence corresponds with the aggregate market value of the shares of the enterprise or the sum that could be raised by disposing of either the net assets on a piecemeal basis or the enterprise as a whole on a going concern basis.

67. Commercial, industrial and business activities are often undertaken by means of enterprises such as sole proprietorships, partnerships and trusts and various types of government business undertakings. The legal and regulatory framework for such enterprises is often different from that applicable to corporate enterprises. For example, unlike corporate enterprises, in the case of such enterprises, there may be few, if any, restrictions on the distribution to owners or other beneficiaries of amounts included in equity. Nevertheless, the definition of equity and the other aspects of this Framework that deal with equity are appropriate for such enterprises.

Performance

68. Profit is frequently used as a measure of performance or as the basis for other measures, such as return on investment or earnings per share. The elements directly related to the measurement of profit are income and expenses. The recognition and measurement of income and expenses, and hence profit, depends in part on the concepts of capital and capital maintenance used by the enterprise in preparing its financial statements. These concepts are discussed in paragraphs 101 to 109.

69. Income and expenses are defined as follows:

(a) *Income* is increase in economic benefits during the accounting period in the form of inflows or enhancements of assets or decreases of liabilities that result in increases in equity, other than those relating to contributions from equity participants.

(b) *Expenses* are decreases in economic benefits during the accounting period in the form of outflows or depletions of assets or incurrences of liabilities that result in decreases in equity, other than those relating to distributions to equity participants.

70. The definitions of income and expenses identify their essential features but do not attempt to specify the criteria that need to be met before they are recognised in the statement of profit and loss. Criteria for recognition of income and expenses are discussed in paragraphs 81 to 97.

71. Income and expenses may be presented in the statement of profit and loss in different ways so as to provide information that is relevant for economic decision-making. For example, it is a common practice to distinguish between those items of income and expenses that arise in the course of the ordinary activities of the enterprise and those that do not. This distinction is made on the basis that the source of an item is relevant in evaluating the ability of the enterprise to generate cash and cash equivalents in the future. When distinguishing between items in this way, consideration needs to be given to the nature of the enterprise and its operations. Items that arise from the ordinary activities of one enterprise may be extraordinary in respect of another.

72. Distinguishing between items of income and expense and combining them in different ways also permits several measures of enterprise performance to be displayed. These have differing degrees of inclusiveness.

For example, the statement of profit and loss could display gross margin, profit from ordinary activities before taxation, profit from ordinary activities after taxation, and net profit.

Income

73. The definition of income encompasses both revenue and gains. Revenue arises in the course of the ordinary activities of an enterprise and is referred to by a variety of different names including sales, fees, interest, dividends, royalties and rent.

74. Gains represent other items that meet the definition of income and may, or may not, arise in the course of the ordinary activities of an enterprise. Gains represent increases in economic benefits and as such are no different in nature from revenue. Hence, they are not regarded as a separate element in this Framework.

75. The definition of income includes unrealised gains. Gains also include, for example, those arising on the disposal of fixed assets. When gains are recognised in the statement of profit and loss, they are usually displayed separately because knowledge of them is useful for the purpose of making economic decisions.

76. Various kinds of assets may be received or enhanced by income; examples include cash, receivables and goods and services received in exchange for goods and services supplied. Income may also result in the settlement of liabilities. For example, an enterprise may provide goods and services to a lender in settlement of an obligation to repay an outstanding loan.

Expenses

77. The definition of expenses encompasses those expenses that arise in the course of the ordinary activities of the enterprise, as well as losses. Expenses that arise in the course of the ordinary activities of the enterprise include, for example, cost of goods sold, wages, and depreciation. They take the form of an outflow or depletion of assets or enhancement of liabilities.

78. Losses represent other items that meet the definition of expenses and may, or may not, arise in the course of the ordinary activities of the enterprise. Losses represent decreases in economic benefits and as such they are no different in nature from other expenses. Hence, they are not regarded as a separate element in this Framework.

79. Losses include, for example, those resulting from disasters such as fire and flood, as well as those arising on the disposal of fixed assets. The definition of expenses also includes unrealised losses. When losses are recognised in the statement of profit and loss, they are usually displayed separately because knowledge of them is useful for the purpose of making economic decisions.

Capital Maintenance Adjustments

80. The revaluation or restatement of assets and liabilities gives rise to increases or decreases in equity. While these increases or decreases meet the definition of income and expenses, they are not included in the statement of profit and loss under certain concepts of capital maintenance. Instead, these items are included in equity as capital maintenance adjustments or revaluation reserves. These concepts of capital maintenance are discussed in paragraphs 101 to 109 of this Framework.

Recognition of the Elements of Financial Statements

81. 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 set out in paragraph 82. It involves the depiction of the item in words and by a monetary amount and the inclusion of that amount in the totals of balance sheet or statement of profit and loss. Items that satisfy the recognition criteria should be recognised in the balance sheet or statement of profit and loss. The failure to recognise such items is not rectified by disclosure of the accounting policies used nor by notes or explanatory material.

82. An item that meets the definition of an element should be recognised if:

- (a) it is probable that any future economic benefit associated with the item will flow to or from the enterprise; and
- (b) the item has a cost or value that can be measured with reliability.

83. In assessing whether an item meets these criteria and therefore qualifies for recognition in the financial statements, regard needs to be given to the materiality considerations discussed in paragraph 30. The interrelationship between the elements means that an item that meets the definition and recognition criteria for a particular element, for example, an asset, automatically requires the recognition of another element, for example, income or a liability.

The Probability of Future Economic Benefits

84. The concept of probability is used in the recognition criteria to refer to the degree of uncertainty that the future economic benefits associated with the item will flow to or from the enterprise. The concept is in keeping with the uncertainty that characterises the environment in which an enterprise operates. Assessments of the degree of uncertainty attaching to the flow of future economic benefits are made on the basis of the evidence available when the financial statements are prepared. For example, when it is probable that a receivable will be realised, it is then justifiable, in the absence of any evidence to the contrary, to recognise the receivable as an asset. For a large population of receivables, however, some degree of non-payment is normally considered probable; hence, an expense representing the expected reduction in economic benefits is recognised.

Reliability of Measurement

85. The second criterion for the recognition of an item is that it possesses a cost or value that can be measured with reliability as discussed in paragraphs 31 to 38 of this Framework. In many cases, cost or value must be estimated; the use of reasonable estimates is an essential part of the preparation of financial statements and does not undermine their reliability. When, however, a reasonable estimate cannot be made, the item is not recognised in the balance sheet or statement of profit and loss. For example, the damages payable in a lawsuit may meet the definitions of both a liability and an expense as well as the probability criterion for recognition; however, if it is not possible to measure the claim reliably, it should not be recognised as a liability or as an expense.

86. An item that, at a particular point in time, fails to meet the recognition criteria in paragraph 82 may qualify for recognition at a later date as a result of subsequent circumstances or events.

87. An item that possesses the essential characteristics of an element but fails to meet the criteria for recognition may nonetheless warrant disclosure in the notes, explanatory material or supplementary schedules. This is appropriate when knowledge of the item is considered to be relevant to the evaluation of the financial position, performance and cash flows of an enterprise by the users of financial statements. Thus, in the example given in paragraph 85, the existence of the claim would need to be disclosed in the notes, explanatory material or supplementary schedules.

Recognition of Assets

88. An asset is recognised in the balance sheet when it is probable that the future economic benefits associated with it will flow to the enterprise and the asset has a cost or value that can be measured reliably.

89. An asset is not recognised in the balance sheet when expenditure has been incurred for which it is considered improbable that economic benefits will flow to the enterprise beyond the current accounting period. Instead, such a transaction results in the recognition of an expense in the statement of profit and loss. This treatment does not imply either that the intention of management in incurring expenditure was other than to generate future economic benefits for the enterprise or that management was misguided. The only implication is that the degree of certainty that economic benefits will flow to the enterprise beyond the current accounting period is insufficient to warrant the recognition of an asset.

Recognition of Liabilities

90. A liability is recognised in the balance sheet when it is probable that an outflow of resources embodying economic benefits will result from the settlement of a present obligation and the amount at which the settlement will take place can be measured reliably. In practice, obligations under contracts that are equally proportionately unperformed (for example, liabilities for inventory ordered but not yet received) are generally not recognised as liabilities in the financial statements. However, such obligations may meet the definition of liabilities and, provided the recognition criteria are met in the particular circumstances, may qualify for recognition. In such circumstances, recognition of liabilities entails recognition of related assets or expenses.

Recognition of Income

91. 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. This means, in effect, that recognition of income occurs simultaneously with the recognition of increases in assets or decreases in liabilities (for example, the net increase in assets arising on a sale of goods or services or the decrease in liabilities arising from the waiver of a debt payable).

92. The procedures normally adopted in practice for recognising income, for example, the requirement that revenue should be earned, are applications of the recognition criteria in this Framework. Such procedures are generally directed at restricting the recognition as income to those items that can be measured reliably and have a sufficient degree of certainty.

Recognition of Expenses

93. 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. This means, in effect, that recognition of expenses occurs simultaneously with the recognition of an increase of liabilities or a decrease in assets (for example, the accrual of employees' salaries or the depreciation of plant and machinery).

94. Many expenses are recognised in the statement of profit and loss on the basis of a direct association between the costs incurred and the earning of specific items of income. This process, commonly referred to as the matching of costs with revenues, involves the simultaneous or combined recognition of revenues and expenses that result directly and jointly from the same transactions or other events; for example, the various components of expense making up the cost of goods sold are recognised at the same time as the income derived from the sale of the goods. However, the application of the matching concept under this Framework does not allow the recognition of items in the balance sheet which do not meet the definition of assets or liabilities.

95. When economic benefits are expected to arise over several accounting periods and the association with income can only be broadly or indirectly determined, expenses are recognised in the statement of profit and loss on the basis of systematic and rational allocation procedures. This is often necessary in recognising the expenses associated with the using up of assets such as plant and machinery, goodwill, patents and trademarks; in such cases, the expense is referred to as depreciation or amortisation. These allocation procedures are intended to recognise expenses in the accounting periods in which the economic benefits associated with these items are consumed or expire.

96. An expense is recognised immediately in the statement of profit and loss when an expenditure produces no future economic benefits. An expense is also recognised to the extent that future economic benefits from an expenditure do not qualify, or cease to qualify, for recognition in the balance sheet as an asset.

97. An expense is recognised in the statement of profit and loss in those cases also where a liability is incurred without the recognition of an asset, for example, in the case of a liability under a product warranty.

Measurement of the Elements of Financial Statements

98. Measurement is the process of determining the monetary amounts at which the elements of financial statements are to be recognised and carried in the balance sheet and statement of profit and loss. This involves the selection of the particular basis of measurement.

99. A number of different measurement bases are employed to different degrees and in varying combinations in financial statements. They include the following:

- (a) *Historical cost.* Assets are recorded at the amount of cash or cash equivalents paid or the fair value of the other consideration given to acquire them at the time of their acquisition. Liabilities are recorded at the amount of proceeds received in exchange for the obligation, or in some circumstances (for example, income taxes), at the amounts of cash or cash equivalents expected to be paid to satisfy the liability in the normal course of business.

- (b) *Current cost.* Assets are carried at the amount of cash or cash equivalents that would have to be paid if the same or an equivalent asset were acquired currently. Liabilities are carried at the undiscounted amount of cash or cash equivalents that would be required to settle the obligation currently.
- (c) *Realisable (settlement) value.* Assets are carried at the amount of cash or cash equivalents that could currently be obtained by selling the asset in an orderly disposal. Liabilities are carried at their settlement values, that is, the undiscounted amounts of cash or cash equivalents expected to be required to settle the liabilities in the normal course of business.
- (d) *Present value.* Assets are carried at the present value of the future net cash inflows that the item is expected to generate in the normal course of business. Liabilities are carried at the present value of the future net cash outflows that are expected to be required to settle the liabilities in the normal course of business.

100. The measurement basis most commonly adopted by enterprises in preparing their financial statements is historical cost. This is usually combined with other measurement bases. For example, inventories are usually carried at the lower of cost and net realisable value and pension liabilities are carried at their present value. Furthermore, the current cost basis may be used as a response to the inability of the historical cost accounting model to deal with the effects of changing prices of non-monetary assets.

Concepts of Capital and Capital Maintenance

Concepts of Capital

101. Under a financial concept of capital, such as invested money or invested purchasing power, capital is synonymous with the net assets or equity of the enterprise. Under a physical concept of capital, such as operating capability, capital is regarded as the productive capacity of the enterprise based on, for example, units of output per day.

102. The selection of the appropriate concept of capital by an enterprise should be based on the needs of the users of its financial statements. Thus, a financial concept of capital should be adopted if the users of financial statements are primarily concerned with the maintenance of nominal invested capital or the purchasing power of invested capital. If, however, the main concern of users is with the operating capability of the enterprise, a physical concept of capital should be used. The concept chosen indicates the goal to be attained in determining profit, even though there may be some measurement difficulties in making the concept operational.

Concepts of Capital Maintenance and the Determination of Profit

103. The concepts of capital described in paragraph 101 give rise to the following concepts of capital maintenance:

- (a) *Financial capital maintenance.* Under this concept, a profit is earned only if the financial (or money) amount of the net assets at the end of the period exceeds the financial (or money) amount of net assets at the beginning of the period, after excluding any distributions to, and contributions from, owners during the period. Financial capital maintenance can be measured in either nominal monetary units or units of constant purchasing power.
- (b) *Physical capital maintenance.* Under this concept, a profit is earned only if the physical productive capacity (or operating capability) of the enterprise at the end of the period exceeds the physical productive capacity at the beginning of the period, after excluding any distributions to, and contributions from, owners during the period.

104. The concept of capital maintenance is concerned with how an enterprise defines the capital that it seeks to maintain. It provides the linkage between the concepts of capital and the concepts of profit because it provides the point of reference by which profit is measured; it is a prerequisite for distinguishing between an enterprise's return *on* capital and its return *of* capital; only inflows of assets in excess of amounts needed to maintain capital can be regarded as profit and therefore as a return on capital. Hence, profit is the residual amount that remains after expenses (including capital maintenance adjustments, where appropriate) have been deducted from income. If expenses exceed income, the residual amount is a net loss.

105. The physical capital maintenance concept requires the adoption of the current cost basis of measurement. The financial capital maintenance concept, however, does not require the use of a particular basis of measurement. Selection of the basis under this concept is dependent on the type of financial capital that the enterprise is seeking to maintain.

106. The principal difference between the two concepts of capital maintenance is the treatment of the effects of changes in the prices of assets and liabilities of the enterprise. In general terms, an enterprise has maintained its capital if it has as much capital at the end of the period as it had at the beginning of the period. Any amount over and above that required to maintain the capital at the beginning of the period is profit.

107. Under the concept of financial capital maintenance where capital is defined in terms of nominal monetary units, profit represents the increase in nominal money capital over the period. Thus, increases in the prices of assets held over the period, conventionally referred to as holding gains, are, conceptually, profits. They may not be recognised as such, however, until the assets are disposed of in an exchange transaction. When the concept of financial capital maintenance is defined in terms of constant purchasing power units, profit represents the increase in invested purchasing power over the period. Thus, only that part of the increase in the prices of assets that exceeds the increase in the general level of prices is regarded as profit. The rest of the increase is treated as a capital maintenance adjustment and, hence, as part of equity.

108. Under the concept of physical capital maintenance when capital is defined in terms of the physical productive capacity, profit represents the increase in that capital over the period. All price changes affecting the assets and liabilities of the enterprise are viewed as changes in the measurement of the physical productive capacity of the enterprise; hence, they are treated as capital maintenance adjustments that are part of equity and not as profit.

109. The selection of the measurement bases and concept of capital maintenance will determine the accounting model used in the preparation of the financial statements. Different accounting models exhibit different degrees of relevance and reliability and, as in other areas, management must seek a balance between relevance and reliability. This Framework is applicable to a range of accounting models and provides guidance on preparing and presenting the financial statements under the chosen model.

APPENDIX – II

Applicability of Accounting Standards to Various Entities (including criteria for classification of entities)

Applicability of Accounting Standards to Companies

(I) Accounting Standards applicable to all companies in their entirety

AS 1	Disclosures of Accounting Policies
AS 2	Valuation of Inventories
AS 4	Contingencies and Events Occurring After the Balance Sheet Date
AS 5	Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period Items and Changes in Accounting Policies
AS 6	Depreciation Accounting
AS 7	Construction Contracts (revised 2002)
AS 9	Revenue Recognition
AS 10	Accounting for Fixed Assets
AS 11	The Effects of Changes in Foreign Exchange Rates (revised 2003)
AS 12	Accounting for Government Grants
AS 13	Accounting for Investments
AS 14	Accounting for Amalgamations
AS 16	Borrowing Costs
AS 18	Related Party Disclosures
AS 22	Accounting for Taxes on Income
AS 24	Discontinuing Operations
AS 26	Intangible Assets

(II) Exemptions or Relaxations for SMCs as defined in the Notification

(A) *Accounting Standards not applicable to SMCs in their entirety:*

AS 3 Cash Flow Statements.

AS 17 Segment Reporting

(B) *Accounting Standards not applicable to SMCs since the relevant Regulations require compliance with them only by certain Non-SMCs¹:*

¹ AS 21, AS 23 and AS 27 (relating to consolidated financial statements) are required to be complied with by a company if the company, pursuant to the requirements of a statute/regulator or voluntarily, prepares and presents consolidated financial statements.

- (i) AS 21 Consolidated Financial Statements
- (ii) AS 23, Accounting for Investments in Associates in Consolidated Financial Statements
- (iii) AS 27, Financial Reporting of Interests in Joint Ventures (to the extent of requirements relating to Consolidated Financial Statements)
- (C) *Accounting Standards in respect of which relaxations from certain requirements have been given to SMCs:*
 - (i) Accounting Standard (AS) 15, Employee Benefits (revised 2005)
 - (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 139 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 117 to 123 of the Standard in respect of accounting for defined benefit plans. However, such companies should actuarially determine and provide for the accrued liability in respect of defined benefit plans by using the Projected Unit Credit Method and the discount rate used should be determined by reference to market yields at the balance sheet date on government bonds as per paragraph 78 of the Standard. Such companies should disclose actuarial assumptions as per paragraph 120(l) of the Standard; and
 - (d) recognition and measurement principles laid down in paragraphs 129 to 131 of the Standard in respect of accounting for other long-term employee benefits. However, such companies should actuarially determine and provide for the accrued liability in respect of other long-term employee benefits by using the Projected Unit Credit Method and the discount rate used should be determined by reference to market yields at the balance sheet date on government bonds as per paragraph 78 of the Standard.
 - (ii) AS 19, Leases
Paragraphs 22 (c), (e) and (f); 25 (a), (b) and (e); 37 (a) and (f); and 46 (b) and (d) relating to disclosures are not applicable to SMCs.
 - (iii) AS 20, Earnings Per Share
Disclosure of diluted earnings per share (both including and excluding extraordinary items) is exempted for SMCs.
 - (iv) AS 28, Impairment of Assets
SMCs are allowed to measure the 'value in use' on the basis of reasonable estimate thereof instead of computing the value in use by present value technique. Consequently, if an SMC chooses to measure the 'value in use' by not using the present value technique, the relevant provisions of AS 28, such as discount rate etc., would not be applicable to such an SMC. Further, such an SMC need not disclose the information required by paragraph 121(g) of the Standard.
 - (v) AS 29, Provisions, Contingent Liabilities and Contingent Assets
Paragraphs 66 and 67 relating to disclosures are not applicable to SMCs.

II.3 Advanced Accounting

(D) AS 25, Interim Financial Reporting, does not require a company to present interim financial report. It is applicable only if a company is required or elects to prepare and present an interim financial report. Only certain Non-SMCs are required by the concerned regulators to present interim financial results, e.g, quarterly financial results required by the SEBI. Therefore, the recognition and measurement requirements contained in this Standard are applicable to those Non-SMCs for preparation of interim financial results.

Applicability of Accounting Standards to Non-corporate Entities

(I) Accounting Standards applicable to all Non- corporate Entities in their entirety (Level I, Level II and Level III)

- AS 1 Disclosures of Accounting Policies
- AS 2 Valuation of Inventories
- AS 4 Contingencies and Events Occurring After the Balance Sheet Date
- AS 5 Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period Items and Changes in Accounting Policies
- AS 6 Depreciation Accounting
- AS 7 Construction Contracts (revised 2002)
- AS 9 Revenue Recognition
- AS 10 Accounting for Fixed Assets
- AS 11 The Effects of Changes in Foreign Exchange Rates (revised 2003)
- AS 12 Accounting for Government Grants
- AS 13 Accounting for Investments
- AS 14 Accounting for Amalgamations
- AS 16 Borrowing Costs
- AS 22 Accounting for Taxes on Income
- AS 26 Intangible Assets

(II) Exemptions or Relaxations for Non-corporate Entities falling in Level II and Level III (SMEs)

(A) Accounting Standards not applicable to Non-corporate Entities falling in Level II in their entirety:

- AS 3 Cash Flow Statements
- AS 17 Segment Reporting

(B) Accounting Standards not applicable to Non-corporate Entities falling in Level III in their entirety:

- AS 3 Cash Flow Statements
- AS 17 Segment Reporting
- AS 18 Related Party Disclosures
- AS 24 Discontinuing Operations

(C) *Accounting Standards not applicable to all Non-corporate Entities since the relevant Regulators require compliance with them only by certain Level I entities:*²

- (i) AS 21, Consolidated Financial Statements
- (ii) AS 23, Accounting for Investments in Associates in Consolidated Financial Statements
- (iii) AS 27, Financial Reporting of Interests in Joint Ventures (to the extent of requirements relating to Consolidated Financial Statements)

(D) *Accounting Standards in respect of which relaxations from certain requirements have been given to Non-corporate Entities falling in Level II and Level III (SMEs):*

- (i) Accounting Standard (AS) 15, Employee Benefits (revised 2005)
- (1) Level II and Level III Non-corporate entities whose average number of persons employed during the year is 50 or more are exempted from the applicability of the following paragraphs:
 - (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 139 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 117 to 123 of the Standard in respect of accounting for defined benefit plans. However, such entities should actuarially determine and provide for the accrued liability in respect of defined benefit plans by using the Projected Unit Credit Method and the discount rate used should be determined by reference to market yields at the balance sheet date on government bonds as per paragraph 78 of the Standard. Such entities should disclose actuarial assumptions as per paragraph 120(l) of the Standard; and
 - (d) recognition and measurement principles laid down in paragraphs 129 to 131 of the Standard in respect of accounting for other long-term employee benefits. However, such entities should actuarially determine and provide for the accrued liability in respect of other long-term employee benefits by using the Projected Unit Credit Method and the discount rate used should be determined by reference to market yields at the balance sheet date on government bonds as per paragraph 78 of the Standard.
- (2) Level II and Level III Non-corporate entities whose average number of persons employed during the year is less than 50 are exempted from the applicability of the following paragraphs:
 - (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);

² AS 21, AS 23 and AS 27 (to the extent these standards relate to preparation of consolidated financial statements) are required to be complied with by a non-corporate entity if the non-corporate entity, pursuant to the requirements of a statute/regulator or voluntarily, prepares and presents consolidated financial statements.

II.5 Advanced Accounting

- (b) paragraphs 46 and 139 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 117 to 123 of the Standard in respect of accounting for defined benefit plans. However, such entities 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 129 to 131 of the Standard in respect of accounting for other long-term employee benefits. Such entities 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.

(ii) AS 19, Leases

Paragraphs 22 (c),(e) and (f); 25 (a), (b) and (e); 37 (a) and (f); and 46 (b) and (d) relating to disclosures are not applicable to non- corporate entities falling in Level II and 46 (b), (d) and (e) relating to disclosures are not applicable to Level III entities.

(iii) AS 20, Earnings Per Share

Diluted earnings per share (both including and excluding extraordinary items) is not required to be disclosed by non-corporate entities falling in Level II and Level III and information required by paragraph 48(ii) of AS 20 is not required to be disclosed by Level III entities if this standard is applicable to these entities.

(iv) AS 28, Impairment of Assets

Non-corporate entities falling in Level II and Level III are allowed to measure the 'value in use' on the basis of reasonable estimate thereof instead of computing the value in use by present value technique. Consequently, if a non-corporate entity falling in Level II or Level III chooses to measure the 'value in use' by not using the present value technique, the relevant provisions of AS 28, such as discount rate etc., would not be applicable to such an entity. Further, such an entity need not disclose the information required by paragraph 121(g) of the Standard.

(v) AS 29, Provisions, Contingent Liabilities and Contingent Assets

Paragraphs 66 and 67 relating to disclosures are not applicable to non-corporate entities falling in Level II and Level III.

(E) AS 25, Interim Financial Reporting, does not require a non-corporate entity to present interim financial report. It is applicable only if a non- corporate entity is required or elects to prepare and present an interim financial report. Only certain Level I non-corporate entities are required by the concerned regulators to present interim financial results, e.g., quarterly financial results required by the SEBI. Therefore, the recognition and measurement requirements contained in this Standard are applicable to those Level I non-corporate entities for preparation of interim financial results.

Criteria for classification of entities

Criteria for classification of companies under the Companies (Accounting Standards) Rules, 2006

Small and Medium-Sized Company (SMC) as defined in Clause 2(f) of the Companies (Accounting Standards) Rules, 2006:

“Small and Medium Sized Company” (SMC) means, a company-

- (i) 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;
- (ii) which is not a bank, financial institution or an insurance company;
- (iii) whose turnover (excluding other income) does not exceed rupees fifty crore in the immediately preceding accounting year;
- (iv) which does not have borrowings (including public deposits) in excess of rupees ten crore at any time during the immediately preceding accounting year; and
- (v) which is not a holding or subsidiary company of a company which is not a small and medium-sized company.

Explanation: For the purposes of clause (f), a company shall qualify as a Small and Medium Sized Company, if the conditions mentioned therein are satisfied as at the end of the relevant accounting period.

Non-SMCs

Companies not falling within the definition of SMC are considered as Non- SMCs.

Instructions

A. General Instructions

1. SMCs shall follow the following instructions while complying with Accounting Standards under these Rules:- the exemptions or relaxations given to it shall disclose (by way of a note to its financial statements) the fact that it is an SMC and has complied with the Accounting Standards insofar as they are applicable to an SMC on the following lines:

“The Company is a Small and Medium Sized Company (SMC) as defined in the General Instructions in respect of Accounting Standards notified under the Companies Act, 1956. Accordingly, the Company has complied with the Accounting Standards as applicable to a Small and Medium Sized Company.”

1.2 Where a company, being an SMC, has qualified for any exemption or relaxation previously but no longer qualifies for the relevant exemption or relaxation in the current accounting period, the relevant standards or requirements become applicable from the current period and the figures for the corresponding period of the previous accounting period need not be revised merely by reason of its having ceased to be an SMC. The fact that the company was an SMC in the previous period and it had availed of the exemptions or relaxations available to SMCs shall be disclosed in the notes to the financial statements.

1.3 If an SMC opts not to avail of the exemptions or relaxations available to an SMC in respect of any but not all of the Accounting Standards, it shall disclose the standard(s) in respect of which it has availed the exemption or relaxation.

II.7 Advanced Accounting

1.4 If an SMC desires to disclose the information not required to be disclosed pursuant to the exemptions or relaxations available to the SMCs, it shall disclose that information in compliance with the relevant accounting standard.

1.5 The SMC may opt for availing certain exemptions or relaxations from compliance with the requirements prescribed in an Accounting Standard:

Provided that such a partial exemption or relaxation and disclosure shall not be permitted to mislead any person or public.

B. Other Instructions

Rule 5 of the Companies (Accounting Standards) Rules, 2006, provides as below:

“5. An existing company, which was previously not a Small and Medium Sized Company (SMC) and subsequently becomes an SMC, shall not be qualified for exemption or relaxation in respect of Accounting Standards available to an SMC until the company remains an SMC for two consecutive accounting periods.”

Criteria for classification of non-corporate entities as decided by the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India

Level I Entities

Non-corporate Entities which fall in any one or more of the following categories, at the end of the relevant accounting period, are classified as Level I entities:

- (i) Entities whose equity or debt securities are listed or are in the process of listing on any stock exchange, whether in India or outside India.
- (ii) Banks (including co-operative banks), financial institutions or entities carrying on insurance business.
- (iii) All commercial, industrial and business reporting entities, whose turnover (excluding other income) exceeds rupees fifty crore in the immediately preceding accounting year.
- (iv) All commercial, industrial and business reporting entities having borrowings (including public deposits) in excess of rupees ten crore at any time during the immediately preceding accounting year.
- (v) Holding and subsidiary entities of any one of the above.

Level II Entities (SMEs)

Non-corporate Entities which are not Level I entities but fall in any one or more of the following categories are classified as Level II entities:

- (i) All commercial, industrial and business reporting entities, whose turnover (excluding other income) exceeds rupees **one crore*** but does not exceed rupees fifty crore in the immediately preceding accounting year.

* Earlier this limit was Rupees 40 lakhs which has been raised to Rupees One Crore as as per the announcement “Revision in the Criteria for classifying Level II Non-Corporate Entities” issued by ICAI on 7th March, 2013. This revision is applicable with effect from the accounting year commencing on or after April 1, 2012.

- (ii) All commercial, industrial and business reporting entities having borrowings (including public deposits) in excess of rupees one crore but not in excess of rupees ten crore at any time during the immediately preceding accounting year.
- (iii) Holding and subsidiary entities of any one of the above.

Level III Entities (SMEs)

Non-corporate Entities which are not covered under Level I and Level II are considered as Level III entities.

Additional requirements

- (1) An SME which does not disclose certain information pursuant to the exemptions or relaxations given to it should disclose (by way of a note to its financial statements) the fact that it is an SME and has complied with the Accounting Standards insofar as they are applicable to entities falling in Level II or Level III, as the case may be.
- (2) Where an entity, being covered in Level II or Level III, had qualified for any exemption or relaxation previously but no longer qualifies for the relevant exemption or relaxation in the current accounting period, the relevant standards or requirements become applicable from the current period and the figures for the corresponding period of the previous accounting period need not be revised merely by reason of its having ceased to be covered in Level II or Level III, as the case may be. The fact that the entity was covered in Level II or Level III, as the case may be, in the previous period and it had availed of the exemptions or relaxations available to that Level of entities should be disclosed in the notes to the financial statements.
- (3) Where an entity has been covered in Level I and subsequently, ceases to be so covered, the entity will not qualify for exemption/relaxation available to Level II entities, until the entity ceases to be covered in Level I for two consecutive years. Similar is the case in respect of an entity, which has been covered in Level I or Level II and subsequently, gets covered under Level III.
- (4) If an entity covered in Level II or Level III opts not to avail of the exemptions or relaxations available to that Level of entities in respect of any but not all of the Accounting Standards, it should disclose the Standard(s) in respect of which it has availed the exemption or relaxation.
- (5) If an entity covered in Level II or Level III desires to disclose the information not required to be disclosed pursuant to the exemptions or relaxations available to that Level of entities, it should disclose that information in compliance with the relevant Accounting Standard.
- (6) An entity covered in Level II or Level III may opt for availing certain exemptions or relaxations from compliance with the requirements prescribed in an Accounting Standard:
Provided that such a partial exemption or relaxation and disclosure should not be permitted to mislead any person or public.
- (7) In respect of Accounting Standard (AS) 15, Employee Benefits, exemptions/ relaxations are available to Level II and Level III entities, under two sub-classifications, viz., (i) entities whose average number of persons employed during the year is 50 or more, and (ii) entities whose average number of persons employed during the year is less than 50. The requirements stated in paragraphs (1) to (6) above, mutatis mutandis, apply to these sub-classifications.

APPENDIX – III

AS 4* : Contingencies¹ and Events Occurring After the Balance Sheet Date

*[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 the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards² and the 'Applicability of Accounting Standards to Various Entities'.]*

Introduction

1. This Standard deals with the treatment in financial statements of
 - (a) contingencies³, 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 Standard 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 Standard with the meanings specified:

3.1 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.

3.2 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.

* Revised in 1995.

¹ Pursuant to AS 29, Provisions, Contingent Liabilities and Contingent Assets becoming mandatory in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1-4-2004, all paragraphs of this Standard that deal with contingencies (viz. paragraphs 1(a), 2, 3.1, 4 (4.1 to 4.4), 5 (5.1 to 5.6), 6, 7 (7.1 to 7.3), 9.1 (relevant portion), 9.2, 10, 11, 12 and 16) stand withdrawn except to the extent they deal with impairment of assets not covered by other Indian Accounting Standards. For example, impairment of receivables (commonly referred to as the provision for bad and doubtful debts), would continue to be covered by AS 4.

² Attention is specifically drawn to paragraph 4.3 of the Preface, according to which Accounting Standards are intended to apply only to items which are material.

³ See footnote 1

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 Standard 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.

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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.

Main Principles

Contingencies⁴

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*

⁴ See also footnote 1

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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 Standard, 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 Standard, 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.**

The ICAI has recently issued an Exposure Draft on Limited revision to Accounting Standard 4 "Events Occuring after the Balance Sheet Date". This Limited Revision has been issued due to the following reasons:

(i) To harmonise the requirements of AS 4, Contingencies and Events Occuring after the Balance Sheet Date, with the requirements of the revised Schedule VI to the Companies Act, 1956. As the disclosure of provision for proposed dividends is not required in the revised Schedule VI to the Companies Act, 1956 (Now Schedule III to the Companies Act, 2013) , paragraphs 8.5 and 14 have been modified.

(ii) Since the paragraphs dealing with contingencies were already substantially withdrawn by the ICAI when AS 29 became mandatory the provisions dealing with contingencies are deleted from AS 4.

(iii) To disclose the non-adjusting events occurring after the balance sheet date in the financial statements instead of in the report of the approving authority with a view to promote transparency in financial statements.

However, it is pertinent to note that this Limited Revision has not yet been notified by the Govt. This Limited Revision will come into effect as and when it will be notified by the Govt.

AS 5* : Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period Items and Changes in Accounting Policies

*[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, the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards¹ and the 'Applicability of Accounting Standards to Various Entities']*

Objective

The objective of this Standard 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 Standard 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 Standard 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 Standard 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 Standard 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 Standard with the meanings specified:***
 - 4.1. ***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.
 - 4.2. ***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.
 - 4.3. ***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.

* Revised in 1997. A limited revision was made in 2001, pursuant to which paragraph 33 has been added in this standard (see footnote 2).

¹ Attention is specifically drawn to paragraph 4.3 of the Preface, according to which Accounting Standards are intended to apply only to items which are material.

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4.4. *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 their respective 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:

- attachment of property of the enterprise; or
- 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 Standard, 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 recognised 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.

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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 Standard should be made unless the transitional provisions of any other Accounting Standard require alternative disclosures in this regard.²

AS 11*: The Effects of Changes in Foreign Exchange Rates

[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, the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards¹ and the 'Applicability of Accounting Standards to Various Entities'.]

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 Standard should be applied:
 - (a) in accounting for transactions in foreign currencies; and

² As a limited revision to AS 5, the Council of the Institute decided to add this paragraph in AS 5 in 2001. This revision came into effect in respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 1.4.2001 (see 'The Chartered Accountant', September 2001, pp. 342).

* Originally issued in 1989 and revised in 1994. The standard was revised again in 2003 and came 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.

¹ Attention is specifically drawn to paragraph 4.3 of the Preface, according to which Accounting Standards are intended to apply only to items which are material.

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- (b) in translating the financial statements of foreign operations.
2. This Standard also deals with accounting for foreign currency transactions in the nature of forward exchange contracts.²
 3. This Standard 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 Standard requires disclosure of the reason for using that currency. This Standard also requires disclosure of the reason for any change in the reporting currency.
 4. This Standard 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 Standard 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 Standard 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 Standard with the meanings specified:***
 - 7.1 ***Average rate is the mean of the exchange rates in force during a period.***
 - 7.2 ***Closing rate is the exchange rate at the balance sheet date.***
 - 7.3 ***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.***
 - 7.4 ***Exchange rate is the ratio for exchange of two currencies.***
 - 7.5 ***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.***
 - 7.6 ***Foreign currency is a currency other than the reporting currency of an enterprise.***
 - 7.7 ***Foreign operation is a subsidiary³, associate⁴, joint venture⁵ 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.***
 - 7.8 ***Forward exchange contract means an agreement to exchange different currencies at a forward rate.***

² This Standard is applicable to exchange differences on all forward exchange contracts including those entered into to hedge the foreign currency risk of existing assets and liabilities and is not applicable to exchange difference arising on forward exchange contracts entered into to hedge the foreign currency risk of future transactions in respect of which a firm commitments are made or which are highly probable forecast transactions. 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 and a 'forecast transaction' is an uncommitted but anticipated future transaction.

³ As defined in AS 21, Consolidated Financial Statements.

⁴ As defined in AS 23, Accounting for Investments in Associates in Consolidated Financial Statements.

⁵ As defined in AS 27, Financial Reporting of Interests in Joint Ventures.

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

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

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

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

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

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

7.15 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;**

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- (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 Standard. 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 recognised 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 realisable 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 Contracts⁶

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 recognised 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.

⁶ See footnote 2.

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

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46⁷ In respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 7th December, 2006 and ending on or before 31st March, 2011,⁸ at the option of the enterprise (such option to be irrevocable and to be exercised retrospectively for such accounting period, from the date this transitional provision comes into force or the first date on which the concerned foreign currency monetary item is acquired, whichever is later, and applied to all such foreign currency monetary items), exchange differences arising on reporting of long-term foreign currency monetary items at rates different from those at which they were initially recorded during the period, or reported in previous financial statements, in so far as they relate to the acquisition of a depreciable capital asset, can be added to or deducted from the cost of the asset and shall be depreciated over the balance life of the asset, and in other cases, can be accumulated in a "Foreign Currency Monetary Item Translation Difference Account" in the enterprise's financial statements and amortized over the balance period of such long-term asset/ liability but not beyond 31st March, 2011, by recognition as income or expense in each of such periods, with the exception of exchange differences dealt with in accordance with paragraph 15. For the purposes of exercise of this option, an asset or liability shall be designated as a long-term foreign currency monetary item, if the asset or liability is expressed in a foreign currency and has a term of 12 months or more at the date of origination of the asset or liability. Any difference pertaining to accounting periods which commenced on or after 7th December, 2006, previously recognized in the profit and loss account before the exercise of the option shall be reversed in so far as it relates to the acquisition of a depreciable capital asset by addition or deduction from the cost of the asset and in other cases by transfer to "Foreign Currency Monetary Item Translation Difference Account" in both cases, by debit or credit, as the case may be, to the general reserve. If the option stated in this paragraph is exercised, disclosure shall be made of the fact of such exercise of such option and of the amount remaining to be amortized in the financial statements of the period in which such option is exercised and in every subsequent period so long as any exchange difference remains unamortized."

46A.⁹ (1) In respect of accounting periods commencing on or after the 1st April, 2011, for an enterprise which had earlier exercised the option under paragraph 46 and at the option of any other enterprise (such option to be irrevocable and to be applied to all such foreign currency monetary items), the exchange differences arising on reporting of long- term foreign currency monetary items at rates different from those at which they were initially recorded during the period, or reported in previous financial statements, in so far as they relate to the acquisition of a depreciable capital asset, can be added to or deducted from the cost of the asset and shall be depreciated over the balance life of the asset, and in other cases, can be accumulated in a "Foreign Currency Monetary Item Translation Difference Account" in the enterprise's financial statements and amortized over the balance period of such long term asset or liability, by recognition as income or expense in each of such periods, with the exception of exchange differences dealt with in accordance with the provisions of paragraph 15 of the said rules.

⁷ Ministry of Corporate Affairs, Government of India, inserted this paragraph by Notification dated 31st March, 2009, which is relevant for companies. Necessary process is being followed to make this paragraph with subsequent modifications indicated in footnote 8 below applicable to non-corporate entities also.

⁸ 31st March, 2011" was substituted by "31st March, 2012" by Notification dated 11th May, 2011, published by Ministry of Corporate Affairs, Government of India. Thereafter, "31st March, 2012" was substituted by "31st March, 2020" by Notification dated 29th December, 2011, published by Ministry of Corporate Affairs, Government of India.

⁹ Ministry of Corporate Affairs, Government of India, inserted this paragraph by Notification dated 29th December, 2011, which is relevant for companies. Necessary process is being followed to make this paragraph applicable to non-corporate entities also.

(2) To exercise the option referred to in sub-paragraph (1), an asset or liability shall be designated as a long-term foreign currency monetary item, if the asset or liability is expressed in a foreign currency and has a term of twelve months or more at the date of origination of the asset or the liability:

Provided that the option exercised by the enterprise shall disclose the fact of such option and of the amount remaining to be amortized in the financial statements of the period in which such option is exercised and in every subsequent period so long as any exchange difference remains unamortized.”

Paragraphs 46 for entities other than Companies

46 (1) *In respect of accounting periods commencing on or after 7th December, 2006 (such option to be irrevocable and to be applied to all such foreign currency monetary items), the exchange differences arising on reporting of long-term foreign currency monetary items at rates different from those at which they were initially recorded during the period, or reported in previous financial statements, in so far as they relate to the acquisition of a depreciable capital asset, can be added to or deducted from the cost of the asset and should be depreciated over the balance life of the asset, and in other cases, can be accumulated in a “Foreign Currency Monetary Item Translation Difference Account” in the enterprise’s financial statements and amortized over the balance period of such long-term asset or liability, by recognition as income or expense in each of such periods, with the exception of exchange differences dealt with in accordance with the provisions of paragraph 15.*

(2) *To exercise the option referred to in sub-paragraph (1), an asset or liability shall be designated as a long-term foreign currency monetary item, if the asset or liability is expressed in a foreign currency and has a term of twelve months or more at the date of origination of the asset or the liability:*

Provided that the option exercised by the enterprise should disclose the fact of such option and of the amount remaining to be amortized in the financial statements of the period in which such option is exercised and in every subsequent period so long as any exchange difference remains unamortized.”

Clarification on Para 46A of notification number G.S.R. 914(E) dated 29.12.2011 on Accounting Standard 11 relating to "The effects of Changes in Foreign Exchange Rates"

The Ministry has received several representations from industry associations that Para 6 of AS 11 and Para 4(e) of AS 16 are posing problems in proper implementation of Para 46A of AS 11 inserted vide notification 914(E) dated 29.12.2011. In order to resolve the problems faced by industry, MCA had further clarified vide Circular No. 25/2012 dated 09.08.2012 that Para 6 of AS 11 and Para 4(e) of the AS 16 shall not apply to a company which is applying clause Para 46A of AS 11.

Announcement

Presentation of Foreign Currency Monetary Item Translation Difference Account

In the Revised Schedule VI format, no line item has been specified for the presentation of “Foreign Currency Monetary Item Translation Difference Account (FCMITDA)” (See ‘NOTE’ below). Therefore, the Council of the Institute at its 324th meeting held on March 24-26, 2013 at New Delhi, considered the issue regarding the presentation of the FCMITDA in the balance sheet. The Council considered the

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definition of an asset given in the Framework on Preparation and Presentation of Financial Statements issued by ICAI which states as follows:

“An asset is a resource controlled by the enterprise as a result of past events from which future economic benefits are expected to flow to the enterprise.”

Since the balance in FCMITDA represents foreign currency translation loss, it does not meet the above definition of ‘asset’ as it is neither a resource nor any future economic benefit would flow to the entity therefrom. Therefore, such balance cannot be reflected as an asset. Accordingly, the Council decided that debit or credit balance in FCMITDA should be shown on the “Equity and Liabilities” side of the balance sheet under the head ‘Reserves and Surplus’ as a separate line item.

AS 12* – Accounting for Government Grants

*[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 the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards¹ and the ‘Applicability of Accounting Standards to Various Entities’.]*

Introduction

1. This Standard deals with accounting for government grants. Government grants are sometimes called by other names such as subsidies, cash incentives, duty drawbacks, etc.
2. This Standard does not deal with:
 - (i) 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;
 - (ii) government assistance other than in the form of government grants;
 - (iii) government participation in the ownership of the enterprise.

Definitions

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

3.1 Government refers to government, government agencies and similar bodies whether local, national or international.

3.2 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 therefor is necessary. Secondly, it is desirable to give an indication of the extent to which

* issued in 1991

¹ Attention is specifically drawn to paragraph 4.3 of the Preface, according to which Accounting Standards are intended to apply only to items which are material.

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:

- (i) 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.
- (ii) 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:

- (i) 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.
- (ii) 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.
- (iii) 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:

- (i) where there is reasonable assurance that the enterprise will comply with the conditions attached to them; and

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- (ii) 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.²

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, Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period 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, Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period Items and Changes in Accounting Policies).

7. *Non-monetary Government Grants*

7.1 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

² Pursuant to AS 29, Provisions, Contingent Liabilities and Contingent Assets, becoming mandatory, all paragraphs of AS 4 that deal with contingencies stand withdrawn except to the extent they deal with impairment of assets not covered by other Accounting Standards.

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

10.1 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, Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period 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.

12. Disclosure

12.1 The following disclosures are appropriate:

- (i) the accounting policy adopted for government grants, including the methods of presentation in the financial statements;
- (ii) 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.

Main Principles

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, Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period 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.*³

20. *Government grants that become refundable should be accounted for as an extraordinary item (see Accounting Standard (AS) 5, Net Profit or Loss for the Period, Prior Period 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:*

- (i) *the accounting policy adopted for government grants, including the methods of presentation in the financial statements;*
- (ii) *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.*

Exposure Draft on Limited Revision of AS 12 has recently been issued by ICAI to synchronize the presentation requirements of AS 12, Accounting for Government Grants, with the presentation requirements prescribed under revised Schedule VI to the Companies Act, 1956 (Now Schedule III to the Companies Act, 2013). The additional disclosure requirement for deferred grant has been proposed by this Exposure Draft. As the amounts deferred bear the characteristics of unearned income and should be classified as liability, it is also proposed to amend paragraphs 12.1 and 23 of existing AS 12 to prescribe presentation of deferred government grants. It is pertinent to note that this Limited Revision has not yet been notified by the Govt. The Limited Revision will come into effect as and when it will be notified by the Govt.

AS 16* : Borrowing Costs

*[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*

³ See footnote 2.

* Issued in 2000.

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be read in the context of its objective, the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards¹ and the 'Applicability of Accounting Standards to Various Entities'.]

Objective

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

Scope

1. ***This Standard should be applied in accounting for borrowing costs.***
2. This Standard 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 Standard with the meanings specified:***
 - 3.1 ***Borrowing costs are interest and other costs incurred by an enterprise in connection with the borrowing of funds.***
 - 3.2 ***A qualifying asset is an asset that necessarily takes a substantial period of time to get ready for its intended use or sale.***

Explanation:

What constitutes a substantial period of time primarily depends on the facts and circumstances of each case. However, ordinarily, a period of twelve months is considered as substantial period of time unless a shorter or longer period can be justified on the basis of facts and circumstances of the case. In estimating the period, time which an asset takes, technologically and commercially, to get it ready for its intended use or sale is considered.

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.

Explanation:

Exchange differences arising from foreign currency borrowing and considered as borrowing costs are those exchange differences which arise on the amount of principal of the foreign currency borrowings to the extent of the difference between interest on local currency borrowings and interest on foreign currency borrowings. Thus, the amount of exchange difference not exceeding the difference between interest on local currency borrowings and interest on foreign currency borrowings is considered as borrowings cost to be accounted for under this Standard and the remaining exchange difference, if any,

¹ Attention is specifically drawn to paragraph 4.3 of the Preface, according to which Accounting Standards are intended to apply only to items which are material.

is accounted for under AS 11, The Effect of Changes in Foreign Exchange Rates. For this purpose, the interest rate for the local currency borrowings is considered as that rate at which the enterprise would have raised the borrowings locally had the enterprise not decided to raise the foreign currency borrowings.

The application of this explanation is illustrated in the Illustration attached to the Standard.

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 capitalised as part of the cost of that asset. The amount of borrowing costs eligible for capitalisation should be determined in accordance with this Standard. 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 capitalisation 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.*

Illustration

Note: This illustration does not form part of the Accounting Standard. Its purpose is to assist in clarifying the meaning of paragraph 4(e) of the Standard.

Facts:

XYZ Ltd. has taken a loan of USD 10,000 on April 1, 20X3, for a specific project at an interest rate of 5% p.a., payable annually. On April 1, 20X3, the exchange rate between the currencies was ₹ 45 per USD. The exchange rate, as at March 31, 20X4, is ₹ 48 per USD. The corresponding amount could have been borrowed by XYZ Ltd. in local currency at an interest rate of 11 per cent annum as on April 1, 20X3.

The following computation would be made to determine the amount of borrowing costs for the purposes of paragraph 4(e) of AS 16:

- (i) Interest for the period = USD 10,000 × 5% × ₹ 48/USD = ₹ 24,000.
- (ii) Increase in the liability towards the principal amount = USD 10,000 × (48–45) = ₹ 30,000.
- (iii) Interest that would have resulted if the loan was taken in Indian currency = USD 10,000 × 45 × 11% = ₹ 49,500.
- (iv) Difference between interest on local currency borrowing and foreign currency borrowing = ₹ 49,500 – ₹ 24,000 = ₹ 25,500.

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Therefore, out of ₹ 30,000 increase in the liability towards principal amount, only ₹ 25,500 will be considered as the borrowing cost. Thus, total borrowing cost would be ₹ 49,500 being the aggregate of interest of ₹ 24,000 on foreign currency borrowings [covered by paragraph 4(a) of AS 16] plus the exchange difference to the extent of difference between interest on local currency borrowing and interest on foreign currency borrowing of ₹ 25,500. Thus, ₹ 49,500 would be considered as the borrowing cost to be accounted for as per AS 16 and the remaining ₹ 4,500 would be considered as the exchange difference to be accounted for as per Accounting Standard (AS) 11, The Effects of Changes in Foreign Exchange Rates.

In the above example, if the interest rate on local currency borrowings is assumed to be 13% instead of 11%, the entire exchange difference of ₹ 30,000 would be considered as borrowing costs, since in that case the difference between the interest on local currency borrowings and foreign currency borrowings [i.e. ₹ 34,500 (₹ 58,500 – ₹ 24,000)] is more than the exchange difference of ₹ 30,000. Therefore, in such a case, the total borrowing cost would be ₹ 54,000 (₹ 24,000 + ₹ 30,000) which would be accounted for under AS 16 and there would be no exchange difference to be accounted for under AS 11, The Effects of Changes in Foreign Exchange Rates.

AS 19¹: Leases

*[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, the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards¹ and the 'Applicability of Accounting Standards to Various Entities'.]*

Objective

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

Scope

1. ***This Standard 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 Standard 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 Standard 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 Standard with the meanings specified:***

¹ Issued in 2001

¹ Attention is specifically drawn to paragraph 4.3 of the Preface, according to which Accounting Standards are intended to apply only to items which are material.

3.1 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.

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

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

3.4 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.

3.5 **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.

3.6 **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.

3.7 **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:
 - (i) by or on behalf of the lessee; or
 - (ii) 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.

3.8 **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.

3.9 **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.

3.10 **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

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- (b) *the number of production or similar units expected to be obtained from the use of the asset by the lessee.*

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

3.12 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.*

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

3.14 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.

3.15 Unearned finance income is the difference between:

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

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

3.17 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.*

3.18 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.

3.19 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 Standard 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.

Example

- (a) An enterprise (the lessee) acquires a machinery on lease from a leasing company (the lessor) on January 1, 20X0. The lease term covers the entire economic life of the machinery, i.e., 3 years. The fair value of the machinery on January 1, 20X0 is Rs.2,35,500. The lease agreement requires the lessee to pay an amount of Rs.1,00,000 per year beginning December 31, 20X0. The lessee has guaranteed a residual value of Rs.17,000 on December 31, 20X2 to the lessor. The lessor, however, estimates that the machinery would have a salvage value of only Rs.3,500 on December 31, 20X2.

The interest rate implicit in the lease is 16 per cent (approx.). This is calculated using the following formula:

$$\text{Fair value} = \frac{\text{ALR}}{(1+r)^1} + \frac{\text{ALR}}{(1+r)^2} + \dots + \frac{\text{ALR}}{(1+r)^n} + \frac{\text{RV}}{(1+r)^n}$$

where ALR is annual lease rental,

RV is residual value (both guaranteed and unguaranteed),

n is the lease term,

r is interest rate implicit in the lease.

The present value of minimum lease payments from the stand point of the lessee is ₹ 2,35,500.

The lessee would record the machinery as an asset at ₹ 2,35,500 with a corresponding liability representing the present value of lease payments over the lease term (including the guaranteed residual value).

- (b) In the above example, suppose the lessor estimates that the machinery would have a salvage value of ₹ 17,000 on December 31, 20X2. The lessee, however, guarantees a residual value of ₹ 5,000 only.

The interest rate implicit in the lease in this case would remain unchanged at 16% (approx.).

The present value of the minimum lease payments from the standpoint of the lessee, using this interest rate implicit in the lease, would be ₹ 2,27,805. As this amount is lower than the

fair value of the leased asset (₹ 2,35,500), the lessee would recognise the asset and the liability arising from the lease at ₹ 2,27,805.

In case the interest rate implicit in the lease is not known to the lessee, the present value of the minimum lease payments from the standpoint of the lessee would be computed using the lessee's incremental borrowing rate.

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.

Example

In the example (a) illustrating paragraph 11, the lease payments would be apportioned by the lessee between the finance charge and the reduction of the outstanding liability as follows:

	Year	Finance charge (₹)	Payment (₹)	Reduction in outstanding liability (₹)	Outstanding liability (₹)
Year 1	(January 1)				2,35,500
	(December 31)	37,680	1,00,000	62,320	1,73,180
Year 2	(December 31)	27,709	1,00,000	72,291	1,00,889
Year 3	(December 31)	16,142	1,00,000	83,858	17,031*

* The difference between this figure and guaranteed residual value (Rs.17,000) is due to approximation in computing the interest rate implicit in the lease.

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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 recognised 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 assets⁴, 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:**
 - (i) not later than one year;**
 - (ii) later than one year and not later than five years; (iii) 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**

⁴ Accounting Standard (AS) 28, 'Impairment of Assets,' specifies the requirements relating to impairment of assets.

- (f) *a general description of the lessee's significant leasing arrangements including, but not limited to, the following:*
 - (i) *the basis on which contingent rent payments are determined;*
 - (ii) *the existence and terms of renewal or purchase options and escalation clauses; and*
 - (iii) *restrictions imposed by lease arrangements, such as those concerning dividends, additional debt, and further leasing.*

Provided that a Small and Medium Sized Company and a Small and Medium Sized Enterprise (Levels II and III non-corporate entities), may not comply with sub- paragraphs (c), (e) and (f).

Operating Leases

23. Lease payments under an operating lease should be recognised 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:*
 - (i) *not later than one year;*
 - (ii) *later than one year and not later than five years;*
 - (iii) *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:*
 - (i) *the basis on which contingent rent payments are determined;*
 - (ii) *the existence and terms of renewal or purchase options and escalation clauses; and*
 - (iii) *restrictions imposed by lease arrangements, such as those concerning dividends, additional debt, and further leasing.*

Provided that a Small and Medium Sized Company and a Small and Medium Sized Enterprise (Levels II and III non-corporate entities), may not comply with sub- paragraphs (a), (b) and (e).

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:

(i) not later than one year;

(ii) later than one year and not later than five years;

(iii) 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.

Provided that a Small and Medium Sized Company and a non-corporate Small and Medium Sized Enterprise falling in Level II and Level III, as defined in Appendix 1 to this Compendium, may not comply with sub- paragraphs (a) and (f). Further, a non-corporate Small and Medium Sized Enterprise falling in Level III, may not comply with sub-paragraph (g) also.

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

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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 assets⁵ 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**
 - (i) the depreciation recognised in the statement of profit and loss for the period;**
 - (ii) impairment losses recognised in the statement of profit and loss for the period;**
 - (iii) 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:**
 - (i) not later than one year;**
 - (ii) later than one year and not later than five years;**
 - (iii) 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.**

Provided that a Small and Medium Sized Company and a non-corporate Small and Medium Sized Enterprise falling in Level II and Level III, may not comply with sub- paragraphs (b) and (d). Further, a non-corporate Small and Medium Sized Enterprise falling in Level III, as defined in Appendix 1 to this Compendium, may not comply with sub-paragraph (e) also.

⁵ Accounting Standard (AS) 28, 'Impairment of Assets', specifies the requirements relating to impairment of assets.

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.

Illustration

Sale and Leaseback Transactions that Result in Operating Leases

The illustration does not form part of the accounting standard. Its purpose is to illustrate the application of the accounting standard.

A sale and leaseback transaction that results in an operating lease may give rise to profit or a loss, the determination and treatment of which depends on the leased asset's carrying amount, fair value and selling price. The following table shows the requirements of the accounting standard in various circumstances.

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Sale price established at fair value (paragraph 50)	Carrying amount equal to fair value	Carrying amount less than fair value	Carrying amount above fair value
Profit	No profit	Recognise profit immediately	Not applicable
Loss	No loss	Not applicable	Recognise loss immediately

Sale price below fair value			
Profit	No profit	Recognise profit immediately	No profit (note 1)
Loss not compensated by future lease payments at below	Recognise loss immediately	Recognise loss immediately	(note 1)
Loss compensated by future lease payments at below market price	Defer and amortise loss	Defer and amortise loss	(note 1)

Sale price above fair value (paragraph 50)			
Profit	Defer and amortise profit	Defer and amortise profit	Defer and amortise profit (note 2)
Loss	No loss	No loss	(note 1)

Note 1 These parts of the table represent circumstances that would have been dealt with under paragraph 52 of the Standard. Paragraph 52 requires the carrying amount of an asset to be written down to fair value where it is subject to a sale and leaseback.

Note 2 The profit would be the difference between fair value and sale price as the carrying amount would have been written down to fair value in accordance with paragraph 52.

AS 20* - Earnings Per Share

*[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*

* Issued in 2001. A limited revision to this Standard was made in 2004, pursuant to which paragraphs 48 and 51 of this Standard were revised.

be read in the context of its objective, the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards¹ and the 'Applicability of Accounting Standards to Various Entities'.]

Objective

The objective of this Standard 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 Standard 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 Standard should be applied by all the entities. However, a Small and Medium Sized Company and a Small and Medium Sized non-corporate entity falling in Level II or Level III, as defined in Appendix 1 to this Compendium, 'Applicability of Accounting Standards to Various Entities', may not disclose diluted earning per share (both including and excluding extraordinary items). Further, a non-corporate Small and Medium Sized Entity falling in level III as defined in Appendix 1 to this Compendium, may not disclose the information required by paragraph 48(ii) of the standard.

2. In consolidated financial statements, the information required by this Standard should be presented on the basis of consolidated information²

3. 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 Standard 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 Standard, the following terms are used with the meanings specified:

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

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

4.3 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.

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

¹ Attention is specifically drawn to paragraph 4.3 of the Preface, according to which Accounting Standards are intended to apply only to items which are material.

² Accounting Standard (AS) 21, 'Consolidated Financial Statements', specifies the requirements relating to consolidated financial statements.

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

4.6 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 Standard 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.

Illustration I attached to the Standard illustrates the computation of weighted average number of shares.

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;

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- (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 were entitled to participate in dividends relative to a fully paid equity share during the reporting period.

Illustration II attached to the Standard illustrates the computations in respect of partly paid equity shares.

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.

Illustration III attached to the Standard illustrates the computation of weighted average number of equity shares in case of a bonus issue during the period.

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.

Illustration IV attached to the Standard illustrates the computation of weighted average number of equity shares in case of a rights issue during the period.

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:
 - (i) 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;
 - (ii) 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
 - (iii) 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.

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28. For the purpose of this Standard, 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.

Illustration V attached to the standard illustrates the computation of diluted earnings in case of convertible debentures.

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.

Illustration VI attached to the Standard illustrates the effects of share options on 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

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preference dividends and any attributable tax thereto and after excluding items relating to discontinued operations³.

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.

Illustration VII attached to the Standard illustrates the manner of determining the order in which dilutive securities should be included in the computation of weighted average number of shares.

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;

³ Accounting Standard (AS) 24, 'Discontinuing Operations', specifies the requirements in respect of discontinued operations.

- (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 Standard, an enterprise should disclose the following:

- (i) **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**
- (ii) **(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.**

Provided that a non-corporate Small and Medium Sized Entity Falling in Level III, 'Applicability of Accounting Standards to Various Entities', may not comply with sub-paragraph (ii).

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 Standard.

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 Standard. 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 Standard requires. Such information may help the users to evaluate the performance of the enterprise and may take the form of

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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 Standard in order to ensure the comparability of the per share amounts disclosed.

Illustrations

Note: These illustrations do not form part of the Accounting Standard. Their purpose is to illustrate the application of the Accounting Standard.

Illustration I

Example - Weighted Average Number of Shares

(Accounting year 01-01-20X1 to 31-12-20X1)

		No. of Shares Issued	No. of Shares Bought Back	No. of Shares Outstanding
1 st January, 20X1	Balance at beginning of year	1,800	-	1,800
31 st May, 20X1	Issue of shares for cash	600	-	2,400
1 st Nov., 20X1	Buy Back of shares	-	300	2,100
31 st Dec., 20X1	Balance at end of year	2,400	300	2,100

Computation of Weighted Average:
 $(1,800 \times 5/12) + (2,400 \times 5/12) + (2,100 \times 2/12) = 2,100$ shares.
The weighted average number of shares can alternatively be computed as follows:
 $(1,800 \times 12/12) + (600 \times 7/12) - (300 \times 2/12) = 2,100$ shares

Example – Partly paid shares

(Accounting year 01-01-20X1 to 31-12-20X1)

		No. of shares issued	Nominal value of shares	Amount paid
1 st January, 20X1	Balance at beginning of year	1,800	₹ 10	₹ 10
31 st October, 20X1	Issue of Shares	600	₹ 10	₹ 5

Assuming that partly paid shares are entitled to participate in the dividend to the extent of amount paid, number of partly paid equity shares would be taken as 300 for the purpose of calculation of earnings per share.
Computation of weighted average would be as follows:
 $(1,800 \times 12/12) + (300 \times 2/12) = 1,850$ shares.

Illustration III

Example - Bonus Issue

(Accounting year 01-01-20XX to 31-12-20XX)

Net profit for the year 20X0	₹ 18,00,000
Net profit for the year 20X1	₹ 60,00,000
No. of equity shares outstanding until 30 th September 20X1	20,00,000
Bonus issue 1 st October 20X1	2 equity shares for each equity share outstanding at 30 th September, 20X1 20,00,000 x 2 = 40,00,000
Earnings per share for the year 20X1	₹ 60,00,000 = ₹ 1.00 (20,00,000 + 40,00,000)
Adjusted earnings per share for the year 20X0	₹ 18,00,000 = ₹ 0.30 (20,00,000 + 40,00,000)
Since the bonus issue is an issue without consideration, the issue is treated as if it had occurred prior to the beginning of the year 20X0, the earliest period reported.	

Example - Rights Issue

(Accounting year 01-01-20XX to 31-12-20XX)

Net profit	Year 20X0 :	₹ 11,00,000
	Year 20X1 :	₹ 15,00,000
No. of shares outstanding prior to rights issue	5,00,000 shares	
rights issue	One new share for each five outstanding (i.e. 1,00,000 new shares) Rights issue price : ₹ 15.00 Last date to exercise rights: 1 st March 20X1	
Fair value of one equity share immediately prior to exercise of rights on 1 st March 20X1	₹ 21.00	

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Computation of theoretical ex-rights fair value per share		
Fair value of all outstanding shares immediately prior to exercise of rights+total amount received		
Number of shares outstanding prior to exercise + number of shares issued in the exercise		
$(Rs. 21.00 \times 5,00,000 \text{ shares}) + (Rs. 15.00 \times 1,00,000 \text{ shares})$		
5,00,000 shares + 1,00,000 shares		
Theoretical ex-rights fair value per share = ₹ 20.00		
Computation of adjustment factor		
$\frac{\text{Fair value per share prior to exercise of rights}}{\text{Theoretical ex-rights value per share}} = \frac{Rs. (21.00)}{Rs. (20.00)} = 1.05$		
Computation of earnings per share		
	Year 20X0	Year 20X1
EPS for the year 20X0 as originally reported: Rs.11,00,000/5,00,000 shares	₹ 2.20	
EPS for the year 20X0 restated for rights issue: Rs.11,00,000/ (5,00,000 shares x 1.05)	₹ 2.10	
EPS for the year 20X1 including effects of rights issue Rs. 15,00,000 $(5,00,000 \times 1.05 \times 2/12) + (6,00,000 \times 10/12)$		₹ 2.55

Example - Convertible Debentures

(Accounting year 01-01-20XX to 31-12-20XX)

Net profit for the current year	₹ 1,00,00,000
No. of equity shares outstanding	50,00,000
Basic earnings per share	₹ 2.00
No. of 12% convertible debentures of ₹ 100 each Each debenture is convertible into 10 equity shares	1,00,000
Interest expense for the current year	₹ 12,00,000
Tax relating to interest expense (30%)	₹ 3,60,000
Adjusted net profit for the current year	₹ (1,00,00,000 + 12,00,000 - 3,60,000) = ₹ 1,08,40,000

No. of equity shares resulting from conversion of debentures	10,00,000
No. of equity shares used to compute diluted earnings per share	50,00,000 + 10,00,000 = 60,00,000
Diluted earnings per share	1,08,40,000/60,00,000 = Re. 1.81

Illustration VI

Example - Effects of Share Options on Diluted Earnings Per Share

(Accounting year 01-01-20XX to 31-12-20XX)

Net profit for the year 20X1	₹ 12,00,000
Weighted average number of equity shares outstanding during the year 20X1	5,00,000 shares
Average fair value of one equity share during the year 20X1	₹ 20.00
Weighted average number of shares under option during the year 20X1	1,00,000 shares
Exercise price for shares under option during the year 20X1	₹ 15.00

Computation of earnings per share

	<i>Earnings</i>	<i>Shares</i>	<i>Earnings per share</i>
Net profit for the year 20X1	₹ 12,00,000		
Weighted average number of shares outstanding during year 20X1		5,00,000	
Basic earnings per share			₹ 2.40
Number of shares under option		1,00,000	
Number of shares that would have been issued at fair value: (100,000 x 15.00)/20.00	*	(75,000)	
Diluted earnings per share	₹ 12,00,000	5,25,000	₹ 2.29

*The earnings have not been increased as the total number of shares has been increased only by the number of shares (25,000) deemed for the purpose of the computation to have been issued for no consideration

{see para 37(b)}

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Illustration VII

Example - Determining the Order in Which to Include Dilutive Securities in the Computation of Weighted Average Number of Shares (Accounting year 01-01-20XX to 31-12-20XX)

Earnings, i.e., Net profit attributable to equity shareholders	₹ 1,00,00,000
No. of equity shares outstanding	20,00,000
Average fair value of one equity share during the year	₹ 75.00
Potential Equity Shares	
Options	1,00,000 with exercise price of ₹ 60
Convertible Preference Shares	8,00,000 shares entitled to a cumulative dividend of ₹ 8 per share. Each preference share is convertible into 2 equity shares.10%
Attributable tax, e.g., corporate dividend tax	
12% Convertible Debentures of ₹ 100 each	Nominal amount ₹ 10,00,00,000. Each debenture is convertible into 4 equity shares.
Tax rate	30%

Increase in Earnings Attributable to Equity Shareholders on

Conversion of Potential Equity Shares

	Increase in Earnings	Increase in no. of Equity Shares	Earnings per Incremental Share
Options			
Increase in earnings	Nil		
No. of incremental shares issued for no consideration {1,00,000 x (75 - 60) / 75}		20,000	Nil
Convertible Preference Shares			
Increase in net profit attributable to equity shareholders as adjusted by attributable tax [(Rs.8 x 8,00,000)+ 10% (8 x 8,00,000)]	₹ 70,40,000		
No. of incremental shares {2 x 8,00,000}		16,00,000	₹ 4.40

12% Convertible Debentures			
Increase in net profit {₹ 10,00,00,000 x 0.12 x (1-0.30)}	₹ 84,00,000		
No. of incremental shares {10,00,000 x 4}		40,00,000	₹ 2.10

It may be noted from the above that options are most dilutive as their earnings per incremental share is nil. Hence, for the purpose of computation of diluted earnings per share, options will be considered first. 12% convertible debentures being second most dilutive will be considered next and thereafter convertible preference shares will be considered (see para 42).

Conversion of Diluted Earnings Per Shares

	Net Profit Attributable (₹)	No. of Equity Shares	Net profit attributable Per Share (₹)	
As reported	1,00,00,000	20,00,000	5.00	
Options	—	<u>20,000</u>		
	<u>1,00,00,000</u>	<u>20,20,000</u>	4.95	Dilutive
12% Convertible Debentures	<u>84,00,000</u>	<u>40,00,000</u>		
	<u>1,84,00,000</u>	<u>60,20,000</u>	3.06	Dilutive
Convertible Preference Shares	<u>70,40,000</u>	<u>16,00,000</u>		
	<u>2,54,40,000</u>	<u>76,20,000</u>	3.34	Anti- Dilutive

Since diluted earnings per share is increased when taking the convertible preference shares into account (from ₹ 3.06 to Rs 3.34), the convertible preference shares are anti-dilutive and are ignored in the calculation of diluted earnings per share. Therefore, diluted earnings per share is ₹ 3.06.

An Exposure Draft on Limited Revision on AS 20 has recently been issued by ICAI to address the conceptual issues in arriving at earnings for computation of EPS. The Companies Act allows various adjustments in the Securities Premium Account, which are inconsistent with the requirements of AS 20. According to this Exposure Draft on Limited Revision, for purpose of calculating basic earnings per share, net profit or loss for the period attributable to equity shareholders should be the net profit or loss for the period after deducting (i) preference dividends and any attributable tax thereto for the period and (ii) adjusting the amount in respect of an item of income or expense which is debited or credited to share premium account/ reserves, that is otherwise required to be recognized in the statement of profit and loss in accordance with accounting standards. It is pertinent to note that this Limited Revision is yet to be notified by the Govt. The same will come into effect as and when it will be notified by the Govt.

AS 26* : Intangible Assets

[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, the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards¹ and the 'Applicability of Accounting Standards to Various Entities'.]

Objective

The objective of this Standard is to prescribe the accounting treatment for intangible assets that are not dealt with specifically in another Accounting Standard. This Standard requires an enterprise to recognise an intangible asset if, and only if, certain criteria are met. The Standard also specifies how to measure the carrying amount of intangible assets and requires certain disclosures about intangible assets.

Scope

1. This Standard should be applied by all enterprises in accounting for intangible assets, except:

- (a) intangible assets that are covered by another Accounting Standard;**
- (b) financial assets²;**
- (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 Standard should not be applied to expenditure in respect of termination benefits³ also.

2. If another Accounting Standard deals with a specific type of intangible asset, an enterprise applies that Accounting Standard instead of this Standard. For example, this Standard 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, 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).

* Issued in 2002.

¹ Attention is specifically drawn to paragraph 4.3 of the Preface, according to which Accounting Standards are intended to apply only to items which are material.

² 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 ownership interest in another enterprise.

³ Termination benefits are employee benefits payable as a result of either:

3. This Standard 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 Standard 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 Standard.

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 Standard does not apply to expenditure on such activities. However, this Standard 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 Standard does not apply to such items also.

Definitions

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

6.1 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.

6.2 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.

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

6.4 Non-monetary assets are assets other than monetary assets.

6.5 Research is original and planned investigation undertaken with the prospect of gaining new scientific or technical knowledge and understanding.

6.6 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.

6.7 Amortisation is the systematic allocation of the depreciable amount of an intangible asset over its useful life.

6.8 Depreciable amount is the cost of an asset less its residual value.

6.9 Useful life is either:

(a) the period of time over which an asset is expected to be used by the enterprise; or

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- (b) *the number of production or similar units expected to be obtained from the asset by the enterprise.*

6.10. 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.

6.11. 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.

6.12. 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.*

6.13. An impairment loss is the amount by which the carrying amount of an asset exceeds its recoverable amount⁴.

6.14. 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 Standard 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 Standard, 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

⁴ Accounting Standard (AS) 28, 'Impairment of Assets', specifies the requirements relating to impairment of assets.

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

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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 Standard (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 Standard 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 Standard 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 Standard:

- (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 Standard. 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 Standard.

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 Standard 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

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Accounting Standard on Impairment of Assets⁵. 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 Standard 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.

⁵ Accounting Standard (AS) 28, 'Impairment of Assets', specifies the requirements relating to impairment of assets.

54. The following are not components of the cost of an internally generated intangible asset:
- selling, administrative and other general overhead expenditure unless this expenditure can be directly attributed to making the asset ready for use;
 - clearly identified inefficiencies and initial operating losses incurred before an asset achieves planned performance; and
 - expenditure on training the staff to operate the asset.

Example Illustrating Paragraph 52

An enterprise is developing a new production process. During the year 20X1, expenditure incurred was ₹ 10 lakhs, of which ₹ 9 lakhs was incurred before 1 December 20X1 and 1 lakh was incurred between 1 December 20X1 and 31 December 20X1. The enterprise is able to demonstrate that, at 1 December 20X1, the production process met the criteria for recognition as an intangible asset. The recoverable amount of the know-how embodied in the process (including future cash outflows to complete the process before it is available for use) is estimated to be ₹ 5 lakhs.

At the end of 20X1, the production process is recognised as an intangible asset at a cost of ₹ 1 lakh (expenditure incurred since the date when the recognition criteria were met, that is, 1 December 20X1). The ₹ 9 lakhs expenditure incurred before 1 December 20X1 is recognised as an expense because the recognition criteria were not met until 1 December 20X1. This expenditure will never form part of the cost of the production process recognised in the balance sheet.

During the year 20X2, expenditure incurred is ₹ 20 lakhs. At the end of 20X2, the recoverable amount of the know-how embodied in the process (including future cash outflows to complete the process before it is available for use) is estimated to be ₹ 19 lakhs.

At the end of the year 20X2, the cost of the production process is ₹ 21 lakhs (₹ 1 lakh expenditure recognised at the end of 20X1 plus ₹ 20 lakhs expenditure recognised in 20X2). The enterprise recognises an impairment loss of ₹ 2 lakhs to adjust the carrying amount of the process before impairment loss (₹ 21 lakhs) to its recoverable amount (₹ 19 lakhs). This impairment loss will be reversed in a subsequent period if the requirements for the reversal of an impairment loss in Accounting Standard on Impairment of Assets⁶, are met.

Recognition of an Expense

55. Expenditure on an intangible item should be recognised as an expense when it is incurred unless:

- it forms part of the cost of an intangible asset that meets the recognition criteria (see paragraphs 19-54); or*
- 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

⁶ Accounting Standard (AS) 28, 'Impairment of Assets', specifies the requirements relating to impairment of assets.

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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 Standard 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)).

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Examples

A. An enterprise has purchased an exclusive right to generate hydro-electric power for sixty years. The costs of generating hydro- electric power are much lower than the costs of obtaining power from alternative sources. It is expected that the geographical area surrounding the power station will demand a significant amount of power from the power station for at least sixty years.

The enterprise amortises the right to generate power over sixty years, unless there is evidence that its useful life is shorter.

B. An enterprise has purchased an exclusive right to operate a toll motorway for thirty years. There is no plan to construct alternative routes in the area served by the motorway. It is expected that this motorway will be in use for at least thirty years.

The enterprise amortises the right to operate the motorway over thirty years, unless there is evidence that its useful life is shorter.

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 renewal of the legal right (if any) will be satisfied.
- (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 amortisation 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:***
 - (i) residual value can be determined by reference to that market; and***
 - (ii) 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 Assets⁷. 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 Standard 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 Standard 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.

⁷ Accounting Standard (AS) 28, 'Impairment of Assets', specifies the requirements relating to impairment of assets.

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 Assets⁸, 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:**
 - (i) additions, indicating separately those from internal development and through amalgamation;**
 - (ii) retirements and disposals;**
 - (iii) impairment losses recognised in the statement of profit and loss during the period (if any);**
 - (iv) impairment losses reversed in the statement of profit and loss during the period (if any);**
 - (v) amortisation recognised during the period; and**
 - (vi) 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.

⁸ Accounting Standard (AS) 28, 'Impairment of Assets', specifies the requirements relating to impairment of assets.

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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 Assets⁹ in addition to the information required by paragraph 90(d)(iii) and (iv).

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 Standard 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 Standard and the period determined under paragraph 63 has expired on the date of this Standard coming into effect, the

⁹ Accounting Standard (AS) 28, 'Impairment of Assets', specifies the requirements relating to impairment of assets.

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 Standard 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 Standard, 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:*
 - (i) 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,*
 - (ii) 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 Standard, 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.*

100. Illustration B attached to the Standard illustrates the application of paragraph 99.

Illustration A

This illustration which does not form part of the Accounting Standard, provides illustrative application of the principles laid down in the Standard to internal use software and web-site costs. Its purpose is to illustrate the application of the Accounting Standard to assist in clarifying its meaning.

I. Illustrative Application of the Accounting

Standard to Internal Use Computer Software

Computer software for internal use can be internally generated or acquired.

Internally Generated Computer Software

1. Internally generated computer software for internal use is developed or modified internally by the enterprise solely to meet the needs of the enterprise and at no stage it is planned to sell it.
2. The stages of development of internally generated software may be categorised into the following two phases:
 - Preliminary project stage, i.e., the research phase
 - Development stage

Preliminary project stage

3. At the preliminary project stage the internally generated software should not be recognised as an asset. Expenditure incurred in the preliminary project stage should be recognised as an expense when it is incurred. The reason for such a treatment is that at this stage of the software project an enterprise can not demonstrate that an asset exists from which future economic benefits are probable.

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4. When a computer software project is in the preliminary project stage, enterprises are likely to:
 - (a) Make strategic decisions to allocate resources between alternative projects at a given point in time. For example, should programmers develop a new payroll system or direct their efforts toward correcting existing problems in an operating payroll system.
 - (b) Determine the performance requirements (that is, what it is that they need the software to do) and systems requirements for the computer software project it has proposed to undertake.
 - (c) Explore alternative means of achieving specified performance requirements. For example, should an entity make or buy the software. Should the software run on a mainframe or a client server system.
 - (d) Determine that the technology needed to achieve performance requirements exists.
 - (e) Select a consultant to assist in the development and/or installation of the software.

Development Stage

5. An internally generated software arising at the development stage should be recognised as an asset if, and only if, an enterprise can demonstrate all of the following:
 - (a) the technical feasibility of completing the internally generated software so that it will be available for internal use;
 - (b) the intention of the enterprise to complete the internally generated software and use it to perform the functions intended. For example, the intention to complete the internally generated software can be demonstrated if the enterprise commits to the funding of the software project;
 - (c) the ability of the enterprise to use the software;
 - (d) how the software will generate probable future economic benefits. Among other things, the enterprise should demonstrate the usefulness of the software;
 - (e) the availability of adequate technical, financial and other resources to complete the development and to use the software; and
 - (f) the ability of the enterprise to measure the expenditure attributable to the software during its development reliably.
6. Examples of development activities in respect of internally generated software include:
 - (a) Design including detailed program design - which is the process of detail design of computer software that takes product function, feature, and technical requirements to their most detailed, logical form and is ready for coding.
 - (b) Coding which includes generating detailed instructions in a computer language to carry out the requirements described in the detail program design. The coding of computer software may begin prior to, concurrent with, or subsequent to the completion of the detail program design.

At the end of these stages of the development activity, the enterprise has a working model, which is an operative version of the computer software capable of performing all the major planned functions, and is ready for initial testing ("beta" versions).

- (c) Testing which is the process of performing the steps necessary to determine whether the coded computer software product meets function, feature, and technical performance requirements set forth in the product design.

At the end of the testing process, the enterprise has a master version of the internal use software, which is a completed version together with the related user documentation and the training materials.

Cost of internally generated software

7. The cost of an internally generated software is the sum of the expenditure incurred from the time when the software first met the recognition criteria for an intangible asset as stated in paragraphs 20 and 21 of this Standard and paragraph 5 above. An expenditure which did not meet the recognition criteria as aforesaid and expensed in an earlier financial statements should not be reinstated if the recognition criteria are met later.

8. The cost of an internally generated software comprises all expenditure that can be directly attributed or allocated on a reasonable and consistent basis to create the software for its intended use. The cost include:

- (a) expenditure on materials and services used or consumed in developing the software;
- (b) the salaries, wages and other employment related costs of personnel directly engaged in developing the software;
- (c) any expenditure that is directly attributable to generating software; and
- (d) overheads that are necessary to generate the software and that can be allocated on a reasonable and consistent basis to the software (For example, an allocation of the depreciation of fixed assets, insurance premium and rent). Allocation of overheads are made on basis similar to those used in allocating the overhead to inventories.

9. The following are not components of the cost of an internally generated software:

- (a) selling, administration and other general overhead expenditure unless this expenditure can be directly attributable to the development of the software;
- (b) clearly identified inefficiencies and initial operating losses incurred before software achieves the planned performance; and
- (c) expenditure on training the staff to use the internally generated software.

Software Acquired for Internal Use

10. The cost of a software acquired for internal use should be recognised as an asset if it meets the recognition criteria prescribed in paragraphs 20 and 21 of this Standard.

11. The cost of a software purchased for internal use 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 software ready for its use. Any trade discounts and rebates are deducted in arriving at the cost. In the determination of cost, matters stated in paragraphs 24 to 34 of the Standard need to be considered, as appropriate.

Subsequent expenditure

12. Enterprises may incur considerable cost in modifying existing software systems. Subsequent expenditure on software 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 software to generate future economic benefits in excess of its originally assessed standards of performance; and
- (b) the expenditure can be measured and attributed to the software reliably.

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If these conditions are met, the subsequent expenditure should be added to the carrying amount of the software. Costs incurred in order to restore or maintain the future economic benefits that an enterprise can expect from the originally assessed standard of performance of existing software systems is recognised as an expense when, and only when, the restoration or maintenance work is carried out.

Amortisation period

13. The depreciable amount of a software should be allocated on a systematic basis over the best estimate of its useful life. The amortisation should commence when the software is available for use.

14. As per this Standard, 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. However, given the history of rapid changes in technology, computer software is susceptible to technological obsolescence. Therefore, it is likely that useful life of the software will be much shorter, say 3 to 5 years.

Amortisation method

15. The amortisation method used should reflect the pattern in which the software's economic benefits are consumed by the enterprise. If that pattern can not be determined reliably, the straight-line method should be used. The amortisation charge for each period should be recognised as an expenditure unless another Accounting Standard permits or requires it to be included in the carrying amount of another asset. For example, the amortisation of a software used in a production process is included in the carrying amount of inventories.

II. Illustrative Application of the Accounting Standard to Web-Site Costs

1. An enterprise may incur internal expenditures when developing, enhancing and maintaining its own web site. The web site may be used for various purposes such as promoting and advertising products and services, providing electronic services, and selling products and services.

2. The stages of a web site's development can be described as follows:

- (a) Planning - includes undertaking feasibility studies, defining objectives and specifications, evaluating alternatives and selecting preferences;
- (b) Application and Infrastructure Development - includes obtaining a domain name, purchasing and developing hardware and operating software, installing developed applications and stress testing; and
- (c) Graphical Design and Content Development - includes designing the appearance of web pages and creating, purchasing, preparing and uploading information, either textual or graphical in nature, on the web site prior to the web site becoming available for use. This information may either be stored in separate databases that are integrated into (or accessed from) the web site or coded directly into the web pages.

3. Once development of a web site has been completed and the web site is available for use, the web site commences an operating stage. During this stage, an enterprise maintains and enhances the applications, infrastructure, graphical design and content of the web site.

4. The expenditures for purchasing, developing, maintaining and enhancing hardware (e.g., web servers, staging servers, production servers and Internet connections) related to a web site are not accounted for under this Standard but are accounted for under AS 10, Accounting for Fixed Assets. Additionally, when an enterprise incurs an expenditure for having an Internet service provider host the

enterprise's web site on its own servers connected to the Internet, the expenditure is recognised as an expense.

5. An intangible asset is defined in paragraph 6 of this Standard as 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. Paragraph 7 of this Standard provides computer software as a common example of an intangible asset. By analogy, a web site is another example of an intangible asset. Accordingly, a web site developed by an enterprise for its own use is an internally generated intangible asset that is subject to the requirements of this Standard.

6. An enterprise should apply the requirements of this Standard to an internal expenditure for developing, enhancing and maintaining its own web site. Paragraph 55 of this Standard provides expenditure on an intangible item to be recognised as an expense when incurred unless it forms part of the cost of an intangible asset that meets the recognition criteria in paragraphs 19-54 of the Standard. Paragraph 56 of the Standard requires expenditure on start-up activities to be recognised as an expense when incurred. Developing a web site by an enterprise for its own use is not a start-up activity to the extent that an internally generated intangible asset is created. An enterprise applies the requirements and guidance in paragraphs 39-54 of this Standard to an expenditure incurred for developing its own web site in addition to the general requirements for recognition and initial measurement of an intangible asset. The cost of a web site, as described in paragraphs 52-54 of this Standard, comprises all expenditure that can be directly attributed, or allocated on a reasonable and consistent basis, to creating, producing and preparing the asset for its intended use.

The enterprise should evaluate the nature of each activity for which an expenditure is incurred (e.g., training employees and maintaining the web site) and the web site's stage of development or post-development:

- (a) Paragraph 41 of this Standard requires an expenditure on research (or on the research phase of an internal project) to be recognised as an expense when incurred. The examples provided in paragraph 43 of this Standard are similar to the activities undertaken in the Planning stage of a web site's development. Consequently, expenditures incurred in the Planning stage of a web site's development are recognised as an expense when incurred.
- (b) Paragraph 44 of this Standard requires an intangible asset arising from the development phase of an internal project to be recognised if an enterprise can demonstrate fulfillment of the six criteria specified. Application and Infrastructure Development and Graphical Design and Content Development stages are similar in nature to the development phase. Therefore, expenditures incurred in these stages should be recognised as an intangible asset if, and only if, in addition to complying with the general requirements for recognition and initial measurement of an intangible asset, an enterprise can demonstrate those items described in paragraph 44 of this Standard. In addition,
 - (i) an enterprise may be able to demonstrate how its web site will generate probable future economic benefits under paragraph 44(d) by using the principles in Accounting Standard on Impairment of Assets¹⁰. This includes situations where the web site is developed solely or primarily for promoting and advertising an enterprise's own products and services. Demonstrating how a web site will generate probable future economic benefits under paragraph 44(d) by assessing the economic benefits to be

¹⁰ Accounting Standard (AS) 28, 'Impairment of Assets', specifies the requirements relating to impairment of assets.

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received from the web site and using the principles in Accounting Standard on Impairment of Assets, may be particularly difficult for an enterprise that develops a web site solely or primarily for advertising and promoting its own products and services; information is unlikely to be available for reliably estimating the amount obtainable from the sale of the web site in an arm's length transaction, or the future cash inflows and outflows to be derived from its continuing use and ultimate disposal. In this circumstance, an enterprise determines the future economic benefits of the cash-generating unit to which the web site belongs, if it does not belong to one. If the web site is considered a corporate asset (one that does not generate cash inflows independently from other assets and their carrying amount cannot be fully attributed to a cash-generating unit), then an enterprise applies the 'bottom-up' test and/or the 'top-down' test under Accounting Standard on Impairment of Assets.

- (ii) an enterprise may incur an expenditure to enable use of content, which had been purchased or created for another purpose, on its web site (e.g., acquiring a license to reproduce information) or may purchase or create content specifically for use on its web site prior to the web site becoming available for use. In such circumstances, an enterprise should determine whether a separate asset, is identifiable with respect to such content (e.g., copyrights and licenses), and if a separate asset is not identifiable, then the expenditure should be included in the cost of developing the web site when the expenditure meets the conditions in paragraph 44 of this Standard. As per paragraph 20 of this Standard, an intangible asset is recognised if, and only if, it meets specified criteria, including the definition of an intangible asset. Paragraph 52 indicates that the cost of an internally generated intangible asset is the sum of expenditure incurred from the time when the intangible asset first meets the specified recognition criteria. When an enterprise acquires or creates content, it may be possible to identify an intangible asset (e.g., a license or a copyright) separate from a web site. Consequently, an enterprise determines whether an expenditure to enable use of content, which had been created for another purpose, on its web site becoming available for use results in a separate identifiable asset or the expenditure is included in the cost of developing the web site.
- (c) the operating stage commences once the web site is available for use, and therefore an expenditure to maintain or enhance the web site after development has been completed should be recognised as an expense when it is incurred unless it meets the criteria in paragraph 59 of the Standard. Paragraph 60 explains that if the expenditure is required to maintain the asset at its originally assessed standard of performance, then the expenditure is recognised as an expense when incurred.

7. An intangible asset is measured subsequent to initial recognition by applying the requirements in paragraph 62 of this Standard. Additionally, since paragraph 68 of the Standard states that an intangible asset always has a finite useful life, a web site that is recognised as an asset is amortised over the best estimate of its useful life. As indicated in paragraph 65 of the Standard, web sites are susceptible to technological obsolescence, and given the history of rapid changes in technology, their useful life will be short.

8. The following table illustrates examples of expenditures that occur within each of the stages described in paragraphs 2 and 3 above and application of paragraphs 5 and 6 above. It is not intended to be a comprehensive checklist of expenditures that might be incurred.

Nature of Expenditure	Accounting treatment
<p>Planning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • undertaking feasibility studies • defining hardware and software specifications • evaluating alternative products and suppliers • selecting preferences 	Expense when incurred
<p>Application and Infrastructure Development</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • purchasing or developing hardware 	Apply the requirements of AS 10
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • obtaining a domain name • developing operating software (e.g., operating system and server software) • developing code for the application • installing developed applications on the web server • stress testing 	Expense when incurred, unless it meets the recognition criteria under paragraphs 20 and 44
<p>Graphical Design and Content Development</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • designing the appearance (e.g., layout and colour) of web pages • creating, purchasing, preparing (e.g., creating links and identifying tags), and uploading information, either textual or graphical in nature, on the website prior to the web site becoming available for use. Examples of content include information about an enterprise, products or services offered for sale, and topics that subscribers access 	If a separate asset is not identifiable, then expense when incurred, unless it meets the recognition criteria under paragraphs 20 and 44
<p>Operating</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • updating graphics and revising content • adding new functions, features and content • registering the web site with search engines • backing up data • reviewing security access • analysing usage of the web site 	Expense when incurred, unless in rare circumstances it meets the criteria in paragraph 59, in which case the expenditure is included in the cost of the web site

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Other <ul style="list-style-type: none">• selling, administrative and other general overhead expenditure unless it can be directly attributed to preparing the web site for use• clearly identified inefficiencies• and initial operating losses incurred before the web site achieves planned performance (e.g., false start testing)• training employees to operate the web site	Expense when incurred
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Illustration B

This Illustration which does not form part of the Accounting Standard, provides illustrative application of the requirements contained in paragraph 99 of this Accounting Standard in respect of transitional provisions.

Illustration 1 - Intangible Item was not amortised and the amortisation period determined under paragraph 63 has expired.

An intangible item is appearing in the balance sheet of A Ltd. at ₹ 10 lakhs as on 1-4-2003. The item was acquired for ₹ 10 lakhs on April 1, 1990 and was available for use from that date. The enterprise has been following an accounting policy of not amortising the item. Applying paragraph 63, the enterprise determines that the item would have been amortised over a period of 10 years from the date when the item was available for use i.e., April 1, 1990.

Since the amortisation period determined by applying paragraph 63 has already expired as on 1-4-2003, the carrying amount of the intangible item of ₹ 10 lakhs would be required to be eliminated with a corresponding adjustment to the opening balance of revenue reserves as on 1-4-2003.

Illustration 2 - Intangible Item is being amortised and the amortisation period determined under paragraph 63 has expired.

An intangible item is appearing in the balance sheet of A Ltd. at ₹ 8 lakhs as on 1-4-2003. The item was acquired for ₹ 20 lakhs on April 1, 1991 and was available for use from that date. The enterprise has been following a policy of amortising the item over a period of 20 years on straight-line basis. Applying paragraph 63, the enterprise determines that the item would have been amortised over a period of 10 years from the date when the item was available for use i.e., April 1, 1991.

Since the amortisation period determined by applying paragraph 63 has already expired as on 1-4-2003, the carrying amount of ₹ 8 lakhs would be required to be eliminated with a corresponding adjustment to the opening balance of revenue reserves as on 1-4-2003.

Illustration 3 - Amortisation period determined under paragraph 63 has not expired and the remaining amortisation period as per the accounting policy followed by the enterprise is shorter.

An intangible item is appearing in the balance sheet of A Ltd. at ₹ 8 lakhs as on 1-4-2003. The item was acquired for ₹ 20 lakhs on April 1, 2000 and was available for use from that date. The enterprise has been following a policy of amortising the intangible item over a period of 5 years on straight line basis. Applying paragraph 63, the enterprise determines the amortisation period to be 8 years, being the best estimate of its useful life, from the date when the item was available for use i.e., April 1, 2000.

On 1-4-2003, the remaining period of amortisation is 2 years as per the accounting policy followed by the enterprise which is shorter as compared to the balance of amortisation period determined by applying paragraph 63, i.e., 5 years. Accordingly, the enterprise would be required to amortise the intangible item over the remaining 2 years as per the accounting policy followed by the enterprise.

Illustration 4 - Amortisation period determined under paragraph 63 has not expired and the remaining amortisation period as per the accounting policy followed by the enterprise is longer.

An intangible item is appearing in the balance sheet of A Ltd. at ₹ 18 lakhs as on 1-4-2003. The item was acquired for ₹ 24 lakhs on April 1, 2000 and was available for use from that date. The enterprise has been following a policy of amortising the intangible item over a period of 12 years on straight-line basis. Applying paragraph 63, the enterprise determines that the item would have been amortised over a period of 10 years on straight line basis from the date when the item was available for use i.e., April 1, 2000.

On 1-4-2003, the remaining period of amortisation is 9 years as per the accounting policy followed by the enterprise which is longer as compared to the balance of period stipulated in paragraph 63, i.e., 7 years. Accordingly, the enterprise would be required to restate the carrying amount of intangible item on 1-4-2003 at ₹ 16.8 lakhs (₹ 24 lakhs - $3 \times ₹ 2.4$ lakhs, i.e., amortisation that would have been charged as per the Standard) and the difference of ₹ 1.2 lakhs (₹ 18 lakhs - ₹ 16.8 lakhs) would be required to be adjusted against the opening balance of the revenue reserves. The carrying amount of ₹ 16.8 lakhs would be amortised over 7 years which is the balance of the amortisation period as per paragraph 63.

Illustration 5 - Intangible Item is not amortised and amortisation period determined under paragraph 63 has not expired.

An intangible item is appearing in the balance sheet of A Ltd. at ₹ 20 lakhs as on 1-4-2003. The item was acquired for ₹ 20 lakhs on April 1, 2000 and was available for use from that date. The enterprise has been following an accounting policy of not amortising the item. Applying paragraph 63, the enterprise determines that the item would have been amortised over a period of 10 years on straight line basis from the date when the item was available for use i.e., April 1, 2000.

On 1-4-2003, the enterprise would be required to restate the carrying amount of intangible item at ₹ 14 lakhs (₹ 20 lakhs - $3 \times ₹ 2$ lakhs, i.e., amortisation that would have been charged as per the Standard) and the difference of ₹ 6 lakhs (₹ 20 lakhs - ₹ 14 lakhs) would be required to be adjusted against the opening balance of the revenue reserves. The carrying amount of ₹ 14 lakhs would be amortised over 7 years which is the balance of the amortisation period as per paragraph 63.

AS 29* : Provisions, Contingent Liabilities and Contingent Assets

[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, the Preface to the Statements of Accounting Standards¹ and the 'Applicability of Accounting Standards to Various Entities'.]

* Issued in 2003.

¹ Attention is specifically drawn to paragraph 4.3 of the Preface, according to which Accounting Standards are intended to apply only to items which are material.

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Pursuant to this Accounting Standard coming into effect, all paragraphs of Accounting Standards (AS) 4, Contingencies and Events Occurring After the Balance Sheet Date, that deal with contingencies (viz., paragraphs 1(a), 2, 3.1, 4 (4.1 to 4.4), 5(5.1 to 5.6), 6, 7 (7.1 to 7.3), 9.1 (relevant partion). 9.2, 10, 11, 12 and 16), stand withdrawn except to the extent they deal with impairment of assets not covered by other Accounting Standards.

Objective

The objective of this Standard 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 Standard is also to lay down appropriate accounting for contingent assets.

Scope

1. This Standard should be applied in accounting for provisions and contingent liabilities and in dealing with contingent assets, except:

- (a) those resulting from financial instruments² that are carried at fair value;**
- (b) those resulting from executory contracts, except where the contract is onerous;**

Explanation:

- (i) An 'onerous contract' is a contract in which the unavoidable costs of meeting the obligations under the contract exceed the economic benefits expected to be received under it. Thus, for a contract to qualify as an onerous contract, the unavoidable costs of meeting the obligation under the contract should exceed the economic benefits expected to be received under it. The unavoidable costs under a contract reflect the least net cost of exiting from the contract, which is the lower of the cost of fulfilling it and any compensation or penalties arising from failure to fulfill it.**
- (ii) If an enterprise has a contract that is onerous, the present obligation under the contract is recognised and measured as a provision as per this Standard.**

The application of the above explanation is illustrated in Illustration 10 of Illustration C attached to the Standard.

- (c) those arising in insurance enterprises from contracts with policy-holders; and**
- (d) those covered by another Accounting Standard.**

2. This Standard 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 Standard does not apply to executory contracts unless they are onerous.

4. This Standard applies to provisions, contingent liabilities and contingent assets of insurance enterprises other than those arising from contracts with policy-holders.

² For the purpose of this Standard, the term 'financial instruments' shall have the same meaning as in Accounting Standard (AS) 20, Earnings Per Share.

5. Where another Accounting Standard deals with a specific type of provision, contingent liability or contingent asset, an enterprise applies that Standard instead of this Standard. 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 Standard applies to such cases; and
- (d) retirement benefits (see AS 15, Accounting for Retirement Benefits in the Financial Statements of Employers).³

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 Standard 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 Standard does not change the requirements of AS 9.

7. This Standard 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 Standard.

8. Other Accounting Standards specify whether expenditures are treated as assets or as expenses. These issues are not addressed in this Standard. Accordingly, this Standard neither prohibits nor requires capitalisation of the costs recognised when a provision is made.

9. This Standard 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 Standard with the meanings specified:

10.1 A provision is a liability which can be measured only by using a substantial degree of estimation.

10.2 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.

10.3 An obligating event is an event that creates an obligation that results in an enterprise having no realistic alternative to settling that obligation.

10.4 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

³ AS 15 (issued 1995) has since been revised and is now titled as 'Employee Benefits'.

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- (b) a present obligation that arises from past events but is not recognised because:**
 - (i) it is not probable that an outflow of resources embodying economic benefits will be required to settle the obligation; or**
 - (ii) a reliable estimate of the amount of the obligation cannot be made.**

10.5 A contingent asset is a possible asset that arises from past events 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.

10.6 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.

10.7 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.

10.8 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 Standard, 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 Standard⁴, 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.*

⁴ The interpretation of 'probable' in this Standard as 'more likely than not' does not necessarily apply in other Accounting Standards.

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.*

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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.

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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.*

Provided that a Small and Medium-sized Company and a Small and Medium-sized Enterprise (Level II and Level III non-corporate entities), may not comply with paragraph 66 above.

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.*

Provided that a Small and Medium-sized Company and a Small and Medium-sized Enterprise (Level II and Level III non-corporate entities may not comply with paragraph 67 above.

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.

Illustration A

Tables - Provisions, Contingent Liabilities and Reimbursements

The purpose of this illustration is to summarise the main requirements of the Accounting Standard. It does not form part of the Accounting Standard and should be read in the context of the full text of the Accounting Standard.

Provisions and Contingent Liabilities

<p>Where, as a result of past events, there may be an outflow of resources embodying future economic benefits in settlement of: (a) a present obligation the one whose existence at the balance sheet date is considered probable; or (b) a possible obligation the existence of which at the balance sheet date is considered not probable.</p>		
<p>There is a present obligation that probably requires an outflow of resources and a reliable estimate can be made of the amount of obligation.</p>	<p>There is a possible obligation or a present obligation that may, but probably will not, require an outflow of resources.</p>	<p>There is a possible obligation or a present obligation where the likelihood of an outflow of resources is remote.</p>
<p>A provision is recognised (paragraph 14).</p> <p>Disclosures are required for the provision (paragraphs 66 and 67).</p>	<p>No provision is recognised (paragraph 26).</p> <p>Disclosures are required for the contingent liability (paragraph 68).</p>	<p>No provision is recognised (paragraph 26).</p> <p>No disclosure is required (paragraph 68).</p>

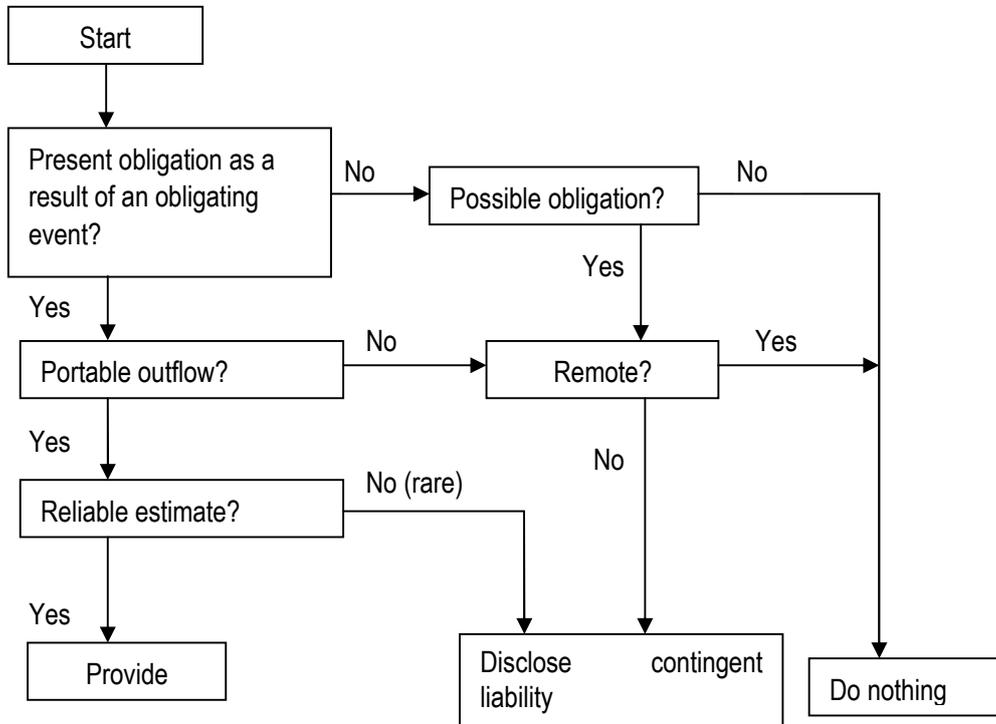
Reimbursements

Some or all of the expenditure required to settle a provision is expected to be reimbursed by another party.		
The enterprise has no obligation for the part of the expenditure to be reimbursed by the other party.	The obligation for the amount expected to be reimbursed remains with the enterprise and it is virtually certain that reimbursement will be received if the enterprise settles the provision.	The obligation for the amount expected to be reimbursed remains with the enterprise and the reimbursement is not virtually certain if the enterprise settles the provision.
The enterprise has no liability for the amount to be reimbursed (paragraph 50).	The reimbursement is recognised as a separate asset in the balance sheet and may be offset against the expense in the statement of profit and loss. The amount recognised for the expected reimbursement does not exceed the liability (paragraphs 46 and 47).	The expected reimbursement is not recognised as an asset (paragraph 46).
No disclosure is required.	The reimbursement is disclosed together with the amount recognised for the reimbursement (paragraph 67(c)).	The expected reimbursement is disclosed (paragraph 67(c)).

Illustration B

Decision Tree

The purpose of the decision tree is to summarise the main recognition requirements of the Accounting Standard for provisions and contingent liabilities. The decision tree does not form part of the Accounting Standard and should be read in the context of the full text of the Accounting Standard.



Note: in rare cases, it is not clear whether there is a present obligation. In these cases, a past event is deemed to give rise to a present obligation if, taking account of all available evidence, it is more likely than not that a present obligation exists at the balance sheet date (paragraph 15 of the Standard).

Illustration C Illustrations: Recognition

This illustration illustrates the application of the Accounting Standard to assist in clarifying its meaning. It does not form part of the Accounting Standard.

All the enterprises in the Illustration have 31 March year ends. In all cases, it is assumed that a reliable estimate can be made of any outflows expected. In some Illustrations the circumstances described may have resulted in impairment of the assets - this aspect is not dealt with in the Illustrations.

The cross references provided in the Illustrations indicate paragraphs of the Accounting Standard that are particularly relevant. The illustration should be read in the context of the full text of the Accounting Standard.

Illustration 1: Warranties

A manufacturer gives warranties at the time of sale to purchasers of its product. Under the terms of the contract for sale the manufacturer undertakes to make good, by repair or replacement, manufacturing defects that become apparent within three years from the date of sale. On past experience, it is probable (i.e. more likely than not) that there will be some claims under the warranties.

Present obligation as a result of a past obligating event - The obligating event is the sale of the product with a warranty, which gives rise to an obligation.

An outflow of resources embodying economic benefits in settlement - Probable for the warranties as a whole (see paragraph 23).

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Conclusion - A provision is recognised for the best estimate of the costs of making good under the warranty products sold before the balance sheet date (see paragraphs 14 and 23).

Illustration 2: Contaminated Land - Legislation Virtually

Certain to be Enacted

An enterprise in the oil industry causes contamination but does not clean up because there is no legislation requiring cleaning up, and the enterprise has been contaminating land for several years. At 31 March 2005 it is virtually certain that a law requiring a clean-up of land already contaminated will be enacted shortly after the year end.

Present obligation as a result of a past obligating event - The obligating event is the contamination of the land because of the virtual certainty of legislation requiring cleaning up.

An outflow of resources embodying economic benefits in settlement - Probable.

Conclusion - A provision is recognised for the best estimate of the costs of the clean-up (see paragraphs 14 and 21).

Illustration 3: Offshore Oilfield

An enterprise operates an offshore oilfield where its licensing agreement requires it to remove the oil rig at the end of production and restore the seabed. Ninety per cent of the eventual costs relate to the removal of the oil rig and restoration of damage caused by building it, and ten per cent arise through the extraction of oil. At the balance sheet date, the rig has been constructed but no oil has been extracted.

Present obligation as a result of a past obligating event - The construction of the oil rig creates an obligation under the terms of the licence to remove the rig and restore the seabed and is thus an obligating event. At the balance sheet date, however, there is no obligation to rectify the damage that will be caused by extraction of the oil.

An outflow of resources embodying economic benefits in settlement - Probable.

Conclusion - A provision is recognised for the best estimate of ninety per cent of the eventual costs that relate to the removal of the oil rig and restoration of damage caused by building it (see paragraph 14). These costs are included as part of the cost of the oil rig. The ten per cent of costs that arise through the extraction of oil are recognised as a liability when the oil is extracted.

Illustration 4: Refunds Policy

A retail store has a policy of refunding purchases by dissatisfied customers, even though it is under no legal obligation to do so. Its policy of making refunds is generally known.

Present obligation as a result of a past obligating event - The obligating event is the sale of the product, which gives rise to an obligation because obligations also arise from normal business practice, custom and a desire to maintain good business relations or act in an equitable manner.

An outflow of resources embodying economic benefits in settlement -

Probable, a proportion of goods are returned for refund (see paragraph 23).

Conclusion - A provision is recognised for the best estimate of the costs of refunds (see paragraphs 11, 14 and 23).

Illustration 5: Legal Requirement to Fit Smoke Filters

Under new legislation, an enterprise is required to fit smoke filters to its factories by 30 September 2005. The enterprise has not fitted the smoke filters.

(a) At the balance sheet date of 31 March 2005

Present obligation as a result of a past obligating event - There is no obligation because there is no obligating event either for the costs of fitting smoke filters or for fines under the legislation.

Conclusion - No provision is recognised for the cost of fitting the smoke filters (see paragraphs 14 and 16-18).

(b) At the balance sheet date of 31 March 2006

Present obligation as a result of a past obligating event - There is still no obligation for the costs of fitting smoke filters because no obligating event has occurred (the fitting of the filters). However, an obligation might arise to pay fines or penalties under the legislation because the obligating event has occurred (the non-compliant operation of the factory).

An outflow of resources embodying economic benefits in settlement - Assessment of probability of incurring fines and penalties by non-compliant operation depends on the details of the legislation and the stringency of the enforcement regime.

Conclusion - No provision is recognised for the costs of fitting smoke filters. However, a provision is recognised for the best estimate of any fines and penalties that are more likely than not to be imposed (see paragraphs 14 and 16-18).

Illustration 6: Staff Retraining as a Result of Changes in the Income Tax System

The government introduces a number of changes to the income tax system. As a result of these changes, an enterprise in the financial services sector will need to retrain a large proportion of its administrative and sales workforce in order to ensure continued compliance with financial services regulation. At the balance sheet date, no retraining of staff has taken place.

Present obligation as a result of a past obligating event - There is no obligation because no obligating event (retraining) has taken place.

Conclusion - No provision is recognised (see paragraphs 14 and 16-18).

Illustration 7: A Single Guarantee

During 2004-05, Enterprise A gives a guarantee of certain borrowings of Enterprise B, whose financial condition at that time is sound. During 2005-06, the financial condition of Enterprise B deteriorates and at 30 September 2005 Enterprise B goes into liquidation.

(a) At 31 March 2005

Present obligation as a result of a past obligating event - The obligating event is the giving of the guarantee, which gives rise to an obligation.

An outflow of resources embodying economic benefits in settlement -

No outflow of benefits is probable at 31 March 2005.

Conclusion - No provision is recognised (see paragraphs 14 and 22). The guarantee is disclosed as a contingent liability unless the probability of any outflow is regarded as remote (see paragraph 68).

(b) At 31 March 2006

Present obligation as a result of a past obligating event - The obligating event is the giving of the guarantee, which gives rise to a legal obligation.

An outflow of resources embodying economic benefits in settlement - At 31 March 2006, it is probable that an outflow of resources embodying economic benefits will be required to settle the obligation.

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Conclusion - A provision is recognised for the best estimate of the obligation (see paragraphs 14 and 22).

Note: This example deals with a single guarantee. If an enterprise has a portfolio of similar guarantees, it will assess that portfolio as a whole in determining whether an outflow of resources embodying economic benefit is probable (see paragraph 23). Where an enterprise gives guarantees in exchange for a fee, revenue is recognised under AS 9, Revenue Recognition.

Illustration 8 : A Court Case

After a wedding in 2004-05, ten people died, possibly as a result of food poisoning from products sold by the enterprise. Legal proceedings are started seeking damages from the enterprise but it disputes liability. Up to the date of approval of the financial statements for the year 31 March 2005, the enterprise's lawyers advise that it is probable that the enterprise will not be found liable. However, when the enterprise prepares the financial statements for the year 31 March 2006, its lawyers advise that, owing to developments in the case, it is probable that the enterprise will be found liable.

(a) At 31 March 2005

Present obligation as a result of a past obligating event - On the basis of the evidence available when the financial statements were approved, there is no present obligation as a result of past events.

Conclusion - No provision is recognised (see definition of 'present obligation' and paragraph 15). The matter is disclosed as a contingent liability unless the probability of any outflow is regarded as remote (paragraph 68).

(b) At 31 March 2006

Present obligation as a result of a past obligating event - On the basis of the evidence available, there is a present obligation.

An outflow of resources embodying economic benefits in settlement - Probable.

Conclusion - A provision is recognised for the best estimate of the amount to settle the obligation (paragraphs 14-15).

Illustration 9A: Refurbishment Costs - No Legislative Requirement

A furnace has a lining that needs to be replaced every five years for technical reasons. At the balance sheet date, the lining has been in use for three years.

Present obligation as a result of a past obligating event - There is no present obligation.

Conclusion - No provision is recognised (see paragraphs 14 and 16-18). The cost of replacing the lining is not recognised because, at the balance sheet date, no obligation to replace the lining exists independently of the company's future actions - even the intention to incur the expenditure depends on the company deciding to continue operating the furnace or to replace the lining.

Illustration 9B: Refurbishment Costs – Legislative Requirement

An airline is required by law to overhaul its aircraft once every three years.

Present obligation as a result of a past obligating event - There is no present obligation.

Conclusion - No provision is recognised (see paragraphs 14 and 16-18). The costs of overhauling aircraft are not recognised as a provision for the same reasons as the cost of replacing the lining is not recognised as a provision in illustration 9A. Even a legal requirement to overhaul does not make the costs of overhaul a liability, because no obligation exists to overhaul the aircraft independently of the

enterprise's future actions - the enterprise could avoid the future expenditure by its future actions, for example by selling the aircraft.

Illustration 10: An Onerous Contract

An enterprise operates profitably from a factory that it has leased under an operating lease. During December 2005 the enterprise relocates its operations to a new factory. The lease on the old factory continues for the next four years, it cannot be cancelled and the factory cannot be re-let to another user.

Present obligation as a result of a past obligating event-The obligating event occurs when the lease contract becomes binding on the enterprise, which gives rise to a legal obligation.

An outflow of resources embodying economic benefits in settlement- When the lease becomes onerous, an outflow of resources embodying economic benefits is probable, (Until the lease becomes onerous, the enterprise accounts for the lease under AS 19, Leases).

Conclusion-A provision is recognised for the best estimate of the unavoidable lease payments.

Illustration D

Illustrations: Disclosure

This illustration does not form part of the Accounting Standard. Its purpose is to illustrate the application of the Accounting Standard to assist in clarifying its meaning.

An illustration of the disclosures required by paragraph 67 is provided below.

Illustration 1 Warranties

A manufacturer gives warranties at the time of sale to purchasers of its three product lines. Under the terms of the warranty, the manufacturer undertakes to repair or replace items that fail to perform satisfactorily for two years from the date of sale. At the balance sheet date, a provision of ₹ 60,000 has been recognised. The following information is disclosed:

A provision of ₹ 60,000 has been recognised for expected warranty claims on products sold during the last three financial years. It is expected that the majority of this expenditure will be incurred in the next financial year, and all will be incurred within two years of the balance sheet date.

An illustration is given below of the disclosures required by paragraph 72 where some of the information required is not given because it can be expected to prejudice seriously the position of the enterprise.

Illustration 2 Disclosure Exemption

An enterprise is involved in a dispute with a competitor, who is alleging that the enterprise has infringed patents and is seeking damages of ₹ 1000 lakh. The enterprise recognises a provision for its best estimate of the obligation, but discloses none of the information required by paragraphs 66 and 67 of the Standard. The following information is disclosed:

Litigation is in process against the company relating to a dispute with a competitor who alleges that the company has infringed patents and is seeking damages of ₹ 1000 lakh. The information usually required by AS 29, Provisions, Contingent Liabilities and Contingent Assets is not disclosed on the grounds that it can be expected to prejudice the interests of the company. The directors are of the opinion that the claim can be successfully resisted by the company.